ANALYSING FACTORS INFLUENCING LENGTH OF STAY AND SPENDING BEHAVIOUR OF AIR TOURISTS TO SOUTH AFRICA

Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Magister Technologiae: Tourism and Hospitality Management in the Faculty of Human Sciences, Vaal University of Technology

CHRISTOPHER MUZENDA
215009886

BCom Honours in Tourism and Hospitality Management

Vaal University of Technology

Supervisor: Prof E Slabbert
Co-supervisor: Dr V Labuschagne
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DECLARATION

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

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ABSTRACT

Tourism is regarded as a global phenomenon in the 21st Century and is the world's largest and fastest growing industry. Many countries globally look at tourism as a key driver for economic growth and rescue to their economic slumber (Brida, Lanzilotta, Moreno & Santiñaque 2018:62). In South Africa, tourism contributed immensely to total employment and economic activity in the country and the government sees this industry as a great resource, the country's strategy for expansion and a possible vehicle to take South Africa into a new economic trajectory. The National Department of Tourism developed the National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS 2016-2026) to facilitate the growth of this industry. As a result, direct tourism performance is measured on an ongoing basis against the goals set for South Africa of which two of the performance measures are length of stay and direct spend (NTSS 2019). These two are important because if visitors stay for longer periods at a destination, their spending increases as they partake in more tourism activities and pay for accommodation. This in turn increases the value attached to tourism as an engine for economic growth (SA Tourism 2007:59). Tourists' spending and length of stay are therefore very important variables in the tourism industry as they contribute immensely to the economic value of tourism to specific destinations (Wong, Fong, & Law, 2016:958; Wang, Fong, Law & Fang 2018:472; Montañoa, Rossellób & Sansób 2019:112).

Length of stay and average spend per day by tourists are fluctuating for South Africa as a tourism destination (SAT 2009-2018). The growth of both these variables has also been small over a period of ten years. These fluctuations and slow growth exert pressure on the tourism industry (SAT 2005-2018) and therefore annually form part of the strategic objectives of the National Department of Tourism (NTSS 2019). An in-depth analysis of these two variables is lacking and understanding the factors influencing these two variables within a South African context is of paramount importance to improving the economic value of tourism to the country. Although the factors influencing the two variables have been widely researched, these cannot be stereotyped to all destinations as they are destination specific (Barros & Machado 2010:693; Gemara & Correiab 2018:56) and these have not been analysed in the context of South Africa as a tourism destination. Though fluctuating patterns and slow growth on tourists' length of stay and spending in South Africa is evident and is a cause of concern, the real problem here is lack of in-depth information on factors which influence these two key variables from a South African perspective. Even though South African Tourism have placed length of stay and spending of tourists as key strategic variables that need to be closely monitored and improved it needs action from the South African context. Once these factors are known, only

then can South African Tourism be able to condition them positively for the benefit of the country's economy. This research therefore sought to explore the factors influencing the stay duration and spending behaviour of international air tourists to South Africa and how these factors can be developed to increase tourists' length of stay and spending in South Africa.

Hence the aim of this research was to identify and analyse factors that influence length of stay and spending behaviour of international tourists reaching South Africa by air and in both cases, attention was given to the intrinsic and extrinsic contributing factors. Literature was reviewed on tourists' travel behaviour by means of an in-depth discussion of travel motivations in general and travel motivations to South Africa specifically, tourists' decision-making process, type of holiday decisions tourists makes, and the factors that influence these tourists' decisions. The composition of the total tourism product was also analysed as this has an influence on tourists' travel behaviour. This was followed by a comprehensive analysis of literature concerning tourists' spending behaviour and visitors' length of stay, which form the pith of this study. The analysis focused on the definition of concepts such as *tourists' length of stay* and *spending behaviour*, the importance of length of stay and spending behaviour of tourists in tourism, how tourism spending is measured, how tourism expenditure data is gathered, what constitutes tourism spending/expenditure and lastly the factors which influence tourists' length of stay and spending behaviour.

A quantitative paradigm in the form of a sample survey was used in conducting this research. This research follows a cross-sectional design (exploratory and descriptive in nature at the same time) which involves the collection of data on more than one case and at a single point in time. The target population of this study comprised international tourists who visited South Africa by air. These visitors were accessed at one of the top tourist attractions in Cape Town (one of the most popular cities for international tourists) namely Table Mountain Cable Way. Table Mountain was selected as a data collection hub as it enjoys the lion's share of South Africa's international tourist arrivals. According to the Table Mountain Aerial Cableway Company (TMACC2014:11), Table Mountain was named Africa's leading tourist attraction in the World Travel Awards 2014 which makes it possible to pull many international tourists to the country of South Africa. Guided by previous similar studies, the sample size for this study was predetermined at 800 respondents of which 720 were completed without error signifying a response rate of 90%. A non-probability sampling technique namely convenience sampling was chosen for this survey as no list was available on who would be visiting the Table Mountain Arial Cable Way. The 800 international tourists were therefore purposively (only international visitors) and conveniently recruited depending on their willingness to participate in the research project; thus, a non-probability sampling technique was followed. Through the

researcher distributing the questionnaire in person and using own judgement, a diverse range of nationalities, age groups and gender was included in the sample for it to be a close representation of all the visitors to South Africa as well as of the phenomenon under investigation.

The questionnaire was designed and used to obtain detailed data on travel motivations, spending patterns and length of stay of the international air tourist market to South Africa. The questionnaire was designed from previous studies related to the above key variables and this added to the content validity of the questionnaire. A pre-test study was conducted by means of 10 survey questionnaires administered to academic experts at a University who had travelled abroad, and this added to the face validity of the questionnaire. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0 for Windows was used to analyse the data and data gathered was presented by means of frequency tables and analytically described, subjected to exploratory factor analysis, one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA), t-tests, and Spearman's rank order correlation analysis to establish the relationships between variables.

Based on the empirical findings of this research project it is concluded that more males than females participated in this research and on average the age of the participants is 41 years, mostly married people and mainly staying in hotels and lodges. A variety of nationalities participated in this research but most of the respondents were from USA, UK followed by a huge margin from Germany, Netherlands and Australia, a profile which matches that of typical visitors to South Africa and were holders of a degree or diploma, followed by those with a postgraduate qualification with the majority being professionals followed by those in managerial positions. Most of the respondents to the study were first-time visitors to South Africa, travelling in a group of 3 or less people, and the average number of people in the travel group was 4 people and the average number of previous visits to South Africa was 1.68 times. Many of the respondents to this study travelled to South Africa mainly for holiday/leisure mostly to enjoy the natural attractions of South Africa since they placed high importance on appreciation of natural resources, enjoyment of beautiful scenery and sightseeing of tourist spots as important travel motivators. Most of the respondents to this study stayed on average 16.42 days which is higher than the annual average length of stay of international tourists. This information is very important from a marketing perspective as it helps in the profiling of tourists, targeting, tourism product development and positioning. Of importance as well is the fact that that the bigger the travel group the higher their spending will be.

The most important aspects directly and significantly influencing length of stay were time constraints, the location of South Africa and financial constraints. It can be concluded that length of stay, availability of time to shop and respondents' experience as a tourist directly and significantly contributes to visitor spending while interaction with the locals does not. The main travel motivations of international tourists to South Africa were Relaxation and Novelty, Social motivations, Cultural and heritage motivations, Personal Motivations and Destination motivations, of which Relaxation and Novelty and Cultural and Heritage motivations were rated high as travel motivations of tourists to South Africa. The main factors influencing length of stay of the respondents to this study were Personal experience, Access attributes, Destination attributes and Personal constraints. Of these factors, personal constraints and destination attributes ranked the highest as influencers of tourists' length of stay. The respondents' length of stay was least influenced by access attributes. The main factors influencing tourist spending patterns as determined by the factor analysis were: "Access and opportunity", "Time availability" and "External influences". Tourists' spending was to a larger extent influenced by time availability followed by access and opportunity but least affected by external influences.

The recommendations to increase length of stay and spending of inbound air tourists to South Africa made in this study are specific to South Africa as they were derived from a deep exploration of factors that influence air tourists' length of stay and spending behaviour to South Africa. If South African Tourism, tourism industry associations and business owners implement these recommendations, this will improve both stay duration and spending of inbound air tourists to South Africa which has been fluctuating and showing slow growth. The recommendations most importantly add to literature that was lacking from a South African perspective on how length of stay and spending can be positively influenced for inbound air tourists to South Africa. The recommendations are as follows:

South African Tourism, various industry associations (FEDHASA, ASATA, GHASA, RASA, SATSA), tour operators and travel agents, individual tourism and hospitality business companies that offer tourism products and services to inbound air tourists should take into consideration that length of stay is inhibited by personal constraints. It is thus important to offer value for money to the tourists. Continuous creative marketing strategies should be employed to attract long staying tourists to this country. South African Tourism, tourism business owners and industry associations should utilise new approaches and strategies that provides information about diverse range of attractions, spending opportunities and facilitate easy access as these are important to tourists who stay longer. Tourists' personal experiences have a significant influence on tourists' decisions to stay for longer periods hence South African Tourism and respective industry associations should offer thorough training to tourism and

hospitality product/service providers and employees to enhance quality interaction with the visitors as this has a significant influence on the tourists' decisions to stay longer in South Africa.

Tourists that have been to South Africa before were influenced by personal experiences to stay for longer periods while the older and higher educated tourists were less influenced by the length of stay factors owing to their experience and confidence of what they want from a holiday in South Africa. South African Tourism, industry associations and tourism business owners should therefore target repeat visitors and the old, educated tourist market as they tend to stay for longer periods thus adding to the economic returns through their prolonged spending. Tourists that travel in larger groups are influenced by personal constraints, namely time and money; hence creating opportunities for value packages by tourism business owners in conjunction with wholesale and retail travel companies will ensure that this market stays longer in South Africa. Since destination attributes have proven to significantly influence length of stay of international tourists to South Africa, South Africa Tourism needs to create awareness on tourism opportunities that are not fully realised. This will increase tourists' knowledge of the wide variety of activities and attractions to see in South Africa; hence they will budget long enough time to enjoy these products.

Since spending patterns of tourists are influenced by time availability, if tourists stay longer, they will have enough time to shop and to experience destination products and services; hence their spending will rise. It is important to improve the environment related to Access and opportunity, Time availability and External influences as these factors influence how much tourists spend in the destination visited. The most important aspect to give attention to in order increase tourists' spending is time availability. Opportunities should be created for tourists to spend money, which should be communicated on various platforms. South African Businesses that offer shopping opportunities (especially in shopping malls) should extend shopping hours late in the evening to allow tourists time to shop but safety and security should be geared up. Most of the tours do not always offer ample time for shopping and this should be communicated to the tour operators as it will also assist the local economy to grow.

Keywords: *Tourist Behaviour, Visitors' length of stay, Tourist spending, Tourist, Tourist Destination* and *South Africa*.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1   INTRODUCTION

Tourism is regarded as a global phenomenon in the 21st Century and is the world's largest and fastest growing industry (South African Tourism 2016/17). The tourism industry is also described as a major economic, environmental and socio-cultural dynamic force (George 2013:3). According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2019), worldwide international tourist arrivals (overnight visitors) increased by 6% to 1.4 billion in 2018. The Middle East (+10%), Africa (+7%) and Asia and the Pacific (+6%), and Europe (+6%) led the growth in 2018. These growth rates were all above the 3.7% growth registered in the global economy. This confirms that this industry is one of the most powerful drivers of economic growth and development. Stronger economic growth, more affordable air travel, easier access to visas, new business models, and technological changes have accelerated the growth in recent years.

Many countries globally look at tourism as a key driver for economic growth (South African Tourism 2016/17:13). In South Africa, tourism contributed 1.5 million jobs (9% of total employment) and R425.8 billion to the economy in 2018 which represents 8.6% of all economic activity in the country (WTTC 2019). The tourism industry is primarily driven by leisure visitors (64%) whilst 36% was generated from business travellers. The domestic market is growing with 44% tourism spend that came from international travellers and 56% from domestic travellers (South African Tourism (SAT) 2018). Statistics South Africa (2019) indicated that one in every 22 working South Africans is employed in the tourism industry. President Ramaphosa labelled South Africa as a "Travel and Tourism job creation champion" and wants to double the number of people directly employed in travel and tourism in South Africa (from 700 000 to 1.4 million) and sees this industry as a great resource and the country's strategy for expansion (Anon 2018).

In an effort to improve tourism business to South Africa, South African Tourism in cooperation with travel industry trade have carried out marketing campaigns in classified tourists source markets such as UK, USA, Spain, Italy, Brazil, South Korea, China, Germany, Netherlands and many more. These campaigns where done as roadshows, on radio, digital media buy and creating shareable blog content, themed reality TV shows (SA Tourism 2016/2017:34). Familiarisation tours were carried out for overseas travel trade, media and key personalities.

SA tourism carried out Welcome campaigns to create a welcoming tourism culture across all tourist touch points and provided workshops highlighting the importance of trade's face-to-face interaction with tourists; and the product packaging workshops were used to update the trade with the latest market knowledge and trends as well as practical tips and advice for servicing specific countries and markets (SA Tourism 2016/2017:34). All these efforts have been boosted by multiple streams of income such as government grant (80%), voluntary Tourism Marketing South Africa levies (11%), sundry and interest revenues (SA Tourism 2016/2017:26). South Africa has established a quality assurance recognition and reward programme (the annual Lilizela Tourism Awards) to encourage industry players across the value chain to improve tourist experiences through service excellence, thus growing South Africa's global destination competitiveness (SA Tourism 2016/2017:25).

The 5-in-5 strategy and Project Ignite, due to their consultative nature, helped boost staff morale and encouraged a common vision among employees (SA Tourism 2016/2017:26). South Africa also participated in international Travel expositions and signed bilateral and multilateral agreements with trade associations in Africa (SA Tourism 2016/2017:39). From a domestic side, South African Tourism has carried out marketing campaigns on social media, radio, television, the well-known one is the "Shot Left" campaign. Other campaigns include the "Gogo on tour" aimed at senior citizens, Youth tour campaign, the stokvel campaign, the Finders Keepers" print, radio and online campaign by TOMSA and the TGCSA to name but a few (South African Tourism 2016/2017:40). South Africa also hosts its own mega Tourism Indaba every year which brings together tourism buyers and sellers under one roof, as well as Meetings Africa.

The National Department of Tourism developed the National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS 2016-2026) to facilitate the growth of this industry. This is based on five pillars being: (a) Effective Marketing, (b) Facilitating Ease of Access, (c) The Visitor Experience, (d) Destination Management and (e) Broad Based Benefits. As part of this the direct tourism performance is measured on an ongoing basis against the goals set for South Africa. Two of these performance measures are length of stay and direct spend (NTSS 2019). These two are important because if visitors stay for longer periods at a destination, their spending increases as they partake in more tourism activities and pay for accommodation. This in turn increases the value attached to tourism as an engine for economic growth (SAT 2018). Tourists' spending and visitors' length of stay (Thrane 2015) are therefore very important variables in the tourism industry as they contribute profoundly to the economic value of tourism to specific destinations (South Africa Tourism 2016/17:48; Montañoa, Rossellób & Sansób 2019:112).

1.2 RATIONALE AND MOTIVATION

Tourists' behaviour, according to Divisekera (2010:629), is an extensively scrutinised subject matter academically. Travel behaviour refers to the way in which tourists behave according to their attitudes before, during and after travelling (Van Vuuren & Slabbert 2011:604) and is studied in a variety of contexts. These contexts include destination choice, travel mode choice, accommodation choice, planned viz-a-viz realised behaviour of tourists in relationship to buying and consuming of discretionary tourism services, and purchase of international travel holidays. Comprehension of tourist travel behaviour is of utmost importance if destinations are to be sustainably developed, managed and marketed (Vu, Li, Law & Ye 2015:222). It is therefore important to understand tourist travel behaviour and to be able to influence it to the benefit of a tourist destination such as South Africa. There are various variables that make up tourists' travel behaviour which South African Tourism considers but has highlighted the strategic importance of length of stay and tourist spending (NTSS 2019).

1.2.1 Length of stay

The length of time a tourist spends at a destination is considered to be one of the most important components of tourism demand as it affects tourists' activities and behaviour as well as the intensity of interactions with locals, which in turn impacts satisfaction with and attitudes towards the destination (Jackman, Lorde, Naitram & Greenaway 2020:2) Visitors stay for different durations at a destination and this decision is normally made in the tourist country of origin when they make other travel decisions (Alegre & Pou 2006:1343; Salmasi, Celidoni & Procidano 2012). Tourists' length of stay is considered a variable of outstanding significance for any tourism destination due to its crucial effect on overall tourism expenditure as it positively correlates with tourists' spending in a destination(Wang, Fong, Law & Fang 2018:472; Jacobsen, Gössling, Dybedal & Skogheim 2018:29). That is the longer visitors stay the more they spend (Thrane 2012; Wang, Little & Del Homme-Little 2012:67; Ganzon & Fillone 2015:238; Salmasi *et al.* 2012; Barros, Butler & Correia 2010:13; Martinez-Garcia & Raya 2008:1064). Already in Opperman (1994:834) it is postulated that length of stay has an influence on the spatial distribution of tourism in a destination – an aspect South Africa is struggling with (SAT 2018). Barros & Machado (2010:693) also supports Opperman's findings that short stayers tend to stay centrally and visit only the major tourist attractions, while long stayers, visit a greater range of attractions, explore more peripheral regions and generate more diverse economic, social and environmental impacts. Cognizance of tourists' length of stay and its determinant factors is considered important for good planning and management of tourist destinations (Martinez-Garcia & Raya 2008:1064). According to Barros & Machado (2010:693), it is also important for policy purposes to investigate tourists' decisions on the length of stay.

The factors influencing length of stay of tourists at a destination have been revealed in several studies and they were identified using multiple methodologies such as survival and regression models. These factors include civil status, employment status, frequency of vacation in a year, vacation trip purpose, budget per hour, overall travel budget, age, gender, climate, accommodation type, group size, trip type, activities carried out at the destination, nationality, experience, familiarity, daily spending, repeat visits, far travel distances, level of tourists income, level of education, availability of time; prices and other destination characteristics (Alen, Nicolau, Losada & Dominguez 2014:19; Ganzon & Fillone 2015:238; Gokovali, Bahar & Kozak 2007:736; Wang *et al.* 2012:71; Martinez-Garcia & Raya 2008:1064; Peypoch, Randriamson, Rasoamanjara & Solonandrasana 2012:1234).

According to Gokovali, Bahar & Kozak (2006), Kruger & Saayman (2014:9) and Solera *et al.* (2018:56) and Barros, Correia & Crouch (2008:330), it is important to ascertain the covariates which best explain the length of stay decisions since these covariates are not universally significant to all destinations. The factors discovered by previous researchers above may not be affecting the length of stay of tourists in South Africa since the covariates according to Barros & Machado (2010:693) are destination specific. If this is the case, what then are the factors which influence the stay duration of tourists in South Africa? This study therefore seeks to answer this question as part of the problem statement.

1.2.2 Tourists' spending

How much to spend on a trip, just as length of stay, is also partially a decision to be made during the travel decision-making process taking place before travelling. Tourists usually prepare a holiday budget prior to travelling depending on several factors. This budget may also be altered accordingly when the tourists are already at the destination as a result of diverse factors as well. Tourists' spending is a behaviour that may be influenced by a wide range of variables and if these factors can be known they could be conditioned to benefit the destination concerned. Investigating tourists' expenditure behaviour is necessary as revenue generated from tourists' consumption is one of the most important indicators of the economic effects of tourism policies and marketing activities (Zhang, Zhang & Kuwano 2012:1563; Divisekera 2010:629). Detection and analysis of determinants of individual tourist spending is important in order to evaluate how likely certain drivers can boost tourism in a destination (Abbruzzo, Brida & Scuderi 2014).

Laesser & Crouch (2006) as cited by Brida & Scuderi (2013:30) pointed out that tourism expenditure is a function of physical and intangible or emotional dimensions that are interdependent and overall indivisible. This is true as the tourism product is a combination of

tangible and intangible elements of which some are priceless. Tourists, according to Mok & Iverson (2000),Amir *et al.* (2015:391); Brida & Scuderi (2013:32); Marrocu, Paci & Zara (2015:14) usually spend their income on products and services such as accommodation (lodging), shopping (gifts and souvenirs), food and beverage, transportation, entertainment, recreation (tourism activities) but how much they actually spend and why, is subject to personal variations and explanations. Tourists' spending may be influenced by economic constraints, socio-demographic, trip-related and psychographic variables.

Economic constraints include variables such as tourists' income, ownership of financial and non-financial assets and financial difficulties. Socio-demographic attributes entail age, education, gender, family size, marital status and life cycle stages, nationality, occupation and race (Kotler, Bowen, Makens & Baloglu 2017). Trip-related characteristics cover factors such as accommodation used, tourism activities, places visited (number, type and location), travel information sources, length of stay, transportation means, party size and composition, time of reservation, previous experience, purpose of travel, reservation items paid for (package tours, transport only, independent tour, return flights and accommodation rates and packages), type of reservation (intermediary or self-organised), travel distance, type of visitor (Kotler *et al.* 2017; Fourie 2016). Psychographic factors include general opinions, opinions about the trip and trip motivations (Brida & Scuderi 2013:32; Marrocu *et al.* 2015:14; Abbruzzo *et al.* 2014:36). Wang *et al.* (2006); Lehto, O'Leary & Morrison (2002) emphasise that psychographic variables should never be underestimated with regard to their influence on tourists' spending.

From the above discussion it is clear that length of stay and spending of tourists at a destination are crucial variables to the success of any tourist destination. Although tourism is growing in South Africa it is not necessarily about the number of tourists but how long they stay and how much they spend. Less tourists, spending more and staying longer is better taking into account the impacts of tourism (Kruger & Saayman 2014; Gössling, Scott & Hall 2018).

1.3   PROBLEM STATEMENT

It is evident from Table 1.1 (below) that both length of stay and average spend per day by tourists are fluctuating for South Africa as a tourism destination (SAT 2009-2018). The growth of both these variables has also been small over a period of ten years. With regard to length of stay it has stayed very much the same in the first part of the ten-year period and only in 2016 an increase was evident to 9.5 days and a significant increase to 12.2 days in 2017. These fluctuations and slow growth exert pressure on the tourism industry (SAT 2005-2018).

The same pattern is evident from Table 1.1 with regard to average spending per day. The difference between average spending in 2008 and 2017 is R500. If one considers the inflation rates and economic environment over the last ten years this is a very small increase. Between 2008 and 2011 average spend did not reach R800 and between 2013 and 2015 not R1000. Again, now in 2017 the average spending increased to R1280 per day which is higher than the R1090 of 2016. Again, there is room for improvement and if these two variables increase at its current rate South Africa will reap less and less benefits from the tourism industry.

Table 1.1: Average length of stay and average spend per day

YEAR	AVERAGE LENGTH OF STAY	AVERAGE SPEND PER DAY
2008	8.2 nights	R 780
2009	7.5 nights	R 740
2010	8.5 nights	R 710
2011	8.3 nights	R 780
2012	7.7 nights	R 850
2013	8.7 nights	R 980
2014	8.6 nights	R 950
2015	9.5 nights	R 960
2016	9.2 nights	R 1090
2017	12.2 nights	R 1280

Sources: South African Tourism Annual Reports (2009-2018)

Considering the strategic valence of length of stay and spending of tourists to South African Tourism, these fluctuation patterns and slow growth is a serious cause for concern and therefore annually form part of the strategic objectives of the National Department of Tourism (NTSS 2019). An in-depth analysis on these two variables is lacking. Understanding the determinant factors of these two variables within a South African context is of paramount importance to improving the economic value of tourism to the country. Although the factors influencing the two variables have been widely researched, these cannot be stereotyped to all destinations as they are destination specific (Barros & Machado 2010:693; Kruger & Saayman (2014:9) and Solera *et al.* (2018:56).) and these have not been analysed in the context of South Africa as a tourism destination. Though fluctuating patterns and slow growth on tourists' length of stay and spending in South Africa is evident and is a cause of concern, the real problem here is lack of literature and practical evidence on factors which influence these two key variables from a South African perspective. Even though South African Tourism have placed length of stay and spending of tourists as key strategic variables that need to be closely monitored and improved on to increase the contribution of the tourism industry to the country's

economy, this will continue to be a dream until the determinant factors which influence these variables in South Africa are known. Once these factors are known, only then can South African Tourism be able to condition them positively for the benefit of the country's economy. This research therefore sought to answer the following questions:

(a) What are the factors influencing the stay duration and spending behaviour of international air tourists to South Africa?

(b) How can these factors be developed to increase tourists' length of stay and spending in South Africa?

1.4   OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this study was to identify and analyse factors that influence length of stay and spending behaviour of international tourists reaching South Africa by air. In both cases attention was given to the intrinsic and extrinsic contributing factors.

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following secondary objectives were formulated for the study:

- To conduct an in-depth literature review on tourist travel behaviour with reference to tourist spending behaviour and visitor length of stay.
- To empirically identify and analyse the intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing spending behaviour and length of stay of international tourists of the air market segment in South Africa.
- To draw conclusions and make recommendations on ways of improving air market tourist spending and of extending their length of stay in South Africa.

1.5   THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study contributes to the body of knowledge on intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing spending behaviour and length of stay of tourists to South Africa, a developing country and long-haul destination. The outcome and recommendations of the study may inform policy on destination development, management and marketing; thus, adding value to SA Tourism's efforts towards increasing visitors' length of stay and spending thereof and this might improve tourism's value as catalyst for economic growth in South Africa. The South African Tourism industry will directly benefit from extended stay and spending of international tourists in such a manner that it will lead to growth and the creation of more employment opportunities for South Africans as also indicated by President Ramaphosa (Anon 2018). The importance of this study should not be underestimated given the outcomes thereof.

1.6   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research pursued a two-pronged approach with reference to an in-depth literature review and an empirical investigation following a quantitative approach. Details concerning the research methodology and approaches followed are to be found in Chapter 4.

1.6.1   Literature review

An in-depth literature review was conducted on tourist behaviour; visitors' length of stay and spending in a tourist destination. Analysing the existing literature assisted in identifying the gaps that justified this study (Bryman & Bell 2017). For an effective review of literature on the above subject matter various text books, electronic databases for journals and e-books (Emerald, JSTOR, Science Direct, EBSCO Host, SABINET, Lexis Nexis, Ingenta, SA e-Publications and NRF/Nexus); secondary sources (SA Tourism Reports and Statistics SA Publications); Internet and other authentic information sources were used. The key words included: Tourist Behaviour, Visitors' length of stay, Tourist spending, Tourist, Tourist Destination and South Africa. Chapters 2 and 3 have been dedicated to the theoretical, methodological and analytical review of previous literature and this formed the basis of this empirical study.

1.6.2   Empirical study

An empirical investigation was conducted to identify and analyse the factors influencing the spending behaviour and length of stay of international air market tourists in South Africa. A quantitative paradigm in the form of a sample survey was used in conducting this research. According to Bryman & Bell (2017) quantitative research emphasises the quantification in the collection and analysis of data. In this case a deductive approach to the relationship between theory and research is followed. There is however more to the method than the mere presence of numbers.

In the case of this study a survey is used, and Statistical Data and Metadata Exchange (SDMX) (2009:146) defines a survey as "an investigation about the characteristics of a given population by means of collecting data from a sample of that population and estimating their characteristics through the systematic use of statistical methodology". Sample surveys collect data from a sample of population members, in most cases randomly (Economic Commission for Europe of the United Nations (UNECE) 2000 as cited in SDMX 2009:146). This research follows a cross-sectional design which involves the collection of data on more than one case and at a single point in time. This is done to collect data in connection with two or more variables (Bryman & Bell 2017).

1.6.3   Target population

Target population is defined as the relevant population to be studied and this population must be correctly identified since the inclusion of wrong population elements jeopardises the legitimacy, credibility and reliability of the research result (Quinlan, Babin, Carr, Griffin & Zikmund 2015:170). Zikmund *et al*. (2010:391) describe target population as a list of elements from which the sample may be drawn. Cooper & Schindler (2011:364) define a population as the total collection of elements about which the researcher wishes to make inferences. According to Neuman (2006), target population refers to the units in the population that the researcher wishes to investigate in the study.

Goddard & Melville (2001:34) define population as any group that is the subject of intended research. Quinlan *et al.* (2015:170) further postulate that the target population must be carefully defined from the onset so that proper sources from which data is to be collected can be identified. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016:27) describe target population as that portion of the population that has been redefined as something more manageable due to the challenges of some population elements not known or as that portion that is of easy access. This can be a subset of the population and is the actual focus of the research enquiry.

The target population of this study consisted of all international tourists who visited South Africa by air. However, all visitors could not be accessed. Therefore, the survey was done at one of the top tourist attractions in Cape Town (one of the most popular cities for international tourists), namely Table Mountain Cable Way. Table Mountain was selected as a data collection hub as it attracts a significant number of international and domestic tourists. According to the Table Mountain Aerial Cableway Company (TMACC 2014:11), Table Mountain was named as Africa's leading tourist attraction in the World Travel Awards 2014 which makes it possible to attract many international tourists to the country of South Africa. In 2014, TMACC received a record number of 909,000 visitors, which on average translates to 75,750 visitors per month and 2,443 visitors per day (TMACC 2014:3). In year 2015 to 2016, TMACC received 1,000,000 visitors who used the cable car to the top of Table Mountain, meaning that on average, per month, the company hosted 83,333 visitors translating to 2,688 visitors on average per day (TMACC 2015:6). The number of tourists per day who use the cable car to go up the mountain can even go above 4,000, especially when it is busy during spring and summer as they enjoy extended hours of day light up to 8 pm in the evening.

1.6.4   Sampling and description of sample

Zikmund *et al*. (2010:68) postulates that sampling involves any procedure that draws conclusions based on measurements of a portion of the population. A sample therefore is a

portion of the target population that is selected for the purpose of the study and is deemed representative of the intended population or that is suitable for describing the phenomenon under investigation. According to Saunders *et al.* (2016:274), sampling is relevant and valid when it is not feasible to survey the entire population due to limitations on time, money and access. Where a sample survey is conducted, the sample should be drawn carefully from the target population highlighted in the research question and objectives. This enables conclusions to be drawn regarding the population under investigation (Saunders *et al.* 2016:27). If an incorrect or unrepresentative sample is chosen, the validity and reliability of the research findings will be compromised and so also the conclusions and recommendations drawn concerning the target population under study.

Steyn *et al.* (1998) as cited by Saayman and Saayman (2006:71) regard 400 respondents adequate in providing results that are statistically significant at a 95% level for large populations. Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1232) distributed 1,000 questionnaires in the study of length of stay of tourists in Madagascar; 900 were returned of which 618 were properly completed without missing data, signifying a response rate of 61.8%. This response rate was considered an acceptable sample of respondents by Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1232). Barros *et al.* (2010:16) in their study of length of stay of golf tourists in Algarve, Portugal collected data from 1,000 golf tourists and out of this number, 610 questionnaires were returned of which 593 questionnaires were adequately completed and suitable for informing the phenomenon under investigation. This signified a response rate of 59.3% and still it was considered an acceptable sample size of respondents.

It is generally acknowledged that for a population (*N*) of 1,000,000, the recommended sample (*n*) size is 384 (Krejcie& Morgan 1970:608). Following this recommendation and these guidelines of previous similar studies, the sample size for this study was predetermined at 800 respondents, of which 720 were completed without error, signifying a response rate of 90%. A non-probability sampling technique, namely convenience sampling, was chosen for this survey as no list was available on who would be visiting the Table Mountain Arial Cable Way. The 800 international tourists were therefore purposively (only international visitors) and conveniently recruited in accordance with their willingness to participate in the research project; thus, a non-probability sampling technique was applied. Care was also taken to ensure that a diverse range of nationalities; age and gender were included in the sample for it to be a close representation of all the visitors to South Africa as well as of the phenomenon under investigation. This was achieved through the distribution of the questionnaire in person by the researcher and use of own judgement as to the inclusion of a variety of age groups, nationalities and gender able and willing to participate in the research.

1.6.5 Data collection method

To achieve the aim of this research inquiry, a research instrument, namely a questionnaire, was designed and used to obtain detailed data on travel motivations, spending patterns and length of stay of the international air tourist market to South Africa. The questionnaire was designed from previous studies related to the above key variables and these include studies by Alegre & Pou (2006), Alegre, Mateo and Pou (2011), Celidoni, Procidano and Salmasi (2010), Ganzon & Fillone (2014), Alen *et al.* (2014), Wang *et al.* (2012), Martinez-Garcia and Raya (2008), Raya-Vilchez & Martinez-Garcia (2011), Ferrer-Rosell, Martinez-Garcia & Coenders (2014), Barros & Machado (2010), Barros *et al.* (2010) and Peypoch *et al.* (2012). This added to the content validity of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire recorded demographic characteristics of the respondents (age, gender, nationality, occupation, income); length of stay; purpose of visit; spending behaviour of tourists (size of the travel party, repeat or first-time visits, holiday motivation, accommodation used, transportation modality, places visited; activities undertaken, trip organisation, place of origin) and tourists' travel motivations. A detailed discussion of the structure of the questionnaire is outlined in chapter 4.

The survey questionnaire was designed in a user-friendly manner so that it encourages participants to provide precise responses with adequate information. The questionnaire design discouraged participants from refusing to respond to specific questions, premature discontinuation of participation and left the participants with a positive attitude towards survey participation (Cooper & Schindler 2008:335). This maximised the response chances by participants. The data gathered was used to determine tourist travel behaviour, travel motivations to South Africa, typical spending patterns and the factors influencing length of stay of the international air tourist market.

1.6.6 Pre-testing

A pre-test study was conducted by means of 10 survey questionnaires administered to academic experts at a University who had travelled abroad. This helped to detect possible flaws in the measurement procedures and unclear or ambiguous questions (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2005:148). Poor instructions or inappropriate question wording on the questionnaire can be identified through pre-testing (Zikmund 2003:457). Three technical changes were made to the questionnaire as a result of the pre-testing phase. This added to the face validity of the questionnaire.

1.6.7 Data analyses

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0 for Windows was used to analyse the data. The data gathered was presented by means of frequency tables and analytically described, subjected to factor analysis, one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA), *t*-tests, and Spearman's rank order correlation analysis to establish the relationships between variables. A detailed discussion of data analysis techniques used in this research is done in chapters 4 and 5.

1.7   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This research adhered to ethics in research as informed concern was sought. The purpose of the research was explained to the authorities at Table Mountain Aerial Cable Car Company and permission to do the research was granted. Respondents were also informed of the purpose of the study and they participated willingly in the survey and no reference was made in the questionnaire that would enable the identification of participants. The questionnaire did not request respondents to write their names or contact details on the questionnaire and the researcher made it clear to the participants that the information obtained during research will not be shared with anyone thus confidentiality was attained. Upon completion of the questionnaire the respondents agreed to their data being used for research purposes in an aggregated manner. The data was analysed as a unit with no specific reference to individuals. The research posed no harm in any way to the participants in the research, the biodiversity of Table Mountain National Park, the Table Mountain Aerial Cable Car Company (TMACC) and its employees. The researcher, throughout the research, exercised and valued integrity and honesty with high regard.

1.8   DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

The following main concepts form part of the study and need clarification:

1.8.1 Tourist

Keyser (2009:69) defines a tourist as a visitor who stays at least one night in a destination visited (an overnight visitor). Bennet (2000:38) defines a tourist as a person making a discretionary tour which involves at least a one-night stay away from the normal place of residence, excluding tours primarily made for remuneration from places visited. UNWTO (2019) gave time boundaries to the definition of a tourist (which are: for a person to be regarded as a tourist, he/she must have stayed in a destination for a period not less than 24 hours, and not more than 12 months for purposes other than employment in the destination visited). This implies an economic contribution to the immediate area as well. Air tourists to

South Africa are the international tourists who use air as a mode of transport into the country. South African Tourism (2017/2018:26) refer to air tourists as tourists from international air markets meaning overseas and African tourists who arrive in South Africa by air not via land or sea.

1.8.2 Tourist behaviour

Lubbe (2003:31) defines travel behaviour as the study of why people buy the tourist products they do and how they make decisions. According to Schiffman & Kanuk (2007:4) as cited by George (2013:187), tourist behaviour refers to how individuals make decisions to spend their available resources (that is time, money and effort) on the consumption of travel and tourism-related products and services. Lubbe (2003:31) and Kotler *et al.* (2017) state that tourists have needs and these needs create an intrinsic tension (motivation or energising force directed at meeting these needs) which need to be eased by engaging in travel and tourism. In other words, the tension in turn initiates behaviour (action) aimed at satiating the pressure, which is travel behaviour.

If tourist consumption behaviour is known, it may then be influenced by information, branding, promotional activities and other marketing strategies (George 2013:187). According to Bennet (2000:96) and George's (2013:198) description, travel decisions include destination choice, budget allocation, type/mode of travel and time of travel, tourism product and service consumption choice (accommodation, shopping/gifts and souvenirs), length of stay, package holiday or independent travel. Tourist travel behaviour may be affected by a variety of factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) and understanding of these is crucial for sustainable destination development and management.

1.8.3 Tourist destination

Bennet (2000:38) defined a tourist destination as a location which attracts tourists to stay temporarily – particularly the features which inherently contribute to that attraction. According to Leiper (1995:87), a tourist destination is a place to which people travel and where they choose to stay for a while in order to experience certain features and characteristics. Buhalis (2000:98) defines a destination as a geographical region that offers an amalgam of tourism products and services at which visitors look as being unique entities with a core of six main provisions which are: attractions, accessibility, amenities, available packages, activities and ancillary services. Keyser (2009:81) defines a tourist destination as a defined spatial area made up of a mix of tourism resources, created facilities and support services and infrastructure that is managed, marketed and consumed under a brand identity. This can be a country, a province or town or local area. Miah, Vu, Gammack & Mc Grath (2017:771) describe

tourist destination as a geographic area that offers tourists an opportunity of engaging in a variety of attractions and activities and is supported by all hospitality and other complimentary services required by the visitors. Tourists spend their time and money in visiting this collection of locations for sightseeing, participating in activities and enjoy creating memories.

1.8.4 Visitors' length of stay

Visitors' length of stay refers to how long the visitors stay in a destination from the time they enter a destination up to the time they leave. This is usually measured in the number of nights spent in a destination. Two main indicators of length of stay in tourism statistics are the average length of stay and the most common stay. Candela & Figini (2012:38) and Sergo, Poropat & Ruzic (2014:521) define average length of stay as the average number of nights visitors spend in the destination. This is measured by the ratio between the number of nights and the arrivals, which is the total number of overnight stays per certain period divided by the total arrivals for the same period. The more the tourists stay in a destination the higher the average length of stay. The most common length of stay just as it says is the stay duration measured in nights that most tourists to the destination register in a given period.

1.8.5 Tourist expenditure/spending

UNWTO (2007) as cited in Candela & Figini (2012:26) point out that tourism expenditure is the amount paid for the purchase of goods and services, for and during tourism trips. This includes expenditure by visitors themselves, as well as expenses paid for or reimbursed by others. Tourism expenditure includes the services delivered before the trip and those clearly related to the trip (such as travel visas, medical insurance, travel agency fees); all goods purchased before the trip intended for use during the trip (specific clothes) or souvenirs. This also includes the consumption of food, groceries, use of public and private transport which makes it difficult to separate from the normal consumer and therefore challenging to measure. Total tourist expenditure according to Masieroa, Nicolaub & Lawa (2015:1) entails the spending for all the different products that comprise the travel experience of which accommodation included.

Tourist expenditure can be used synonymously with the term tourist spending. Tourist expenditure levels can be expressed by means of four possible categories of indicators which are total expenditure for the whole trip; expenditure per day, expenditure per tourist and expenditure per tourist per day (Brida & Scuderi 2013:32).For purposes of this study, tourist expenditure excludes spending on capital items but includes goods and services purchased during the trip and the stay in destination South Africa but included all expenditure directly related to their trip in South Africa.

1.8.6   Extrinsic and intrinsic factors

Intrinsic motivation is an additional source of possible reinforcers that could serve to motivate behaviour (Sansone & Harackiewicz 2000:1). Intrinsic factors of motivation emanate from within the individual and they do drive the individual to partake in a behaviour that relinquishes the mental void or deficiency. These factors could include status, the desire for socialisation, self-development and so on (Page 2009:90). When tourists are influenced by exogenous factors it is referred to as extrinsic motivation factors (Frey & Osterloh 2002:7). Exogenous factors originate from the outside environment such as marketing communication from tourism marketing companies and destination marketing bodies, culture, family, society with its standards and norms of behaviour, peer pressure from social groups, and shape individuals, attitudes, preferences and perceptions (Page 2009:90).

1.9   CHAPTER OUTLINE

Subsequently a classification of the chapters follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction and background

This chapter gives an overview of the study from the background, problem statement, and justification through to research objectives, a brief description of data gathering and analysis, definition of key terms and ethical considerations congruent to the study. This chapter sets the basis for the rest of the study.

Chapter 2: Analysing tourist travel behaviour

This chapter analyses literature on tourist travel behaviour with respect to travel motivations and related theories, the tourist decision-making process including the types of holiday decisions tourists make, the factors which influence tourist decisions and total tourist product as the centre upon which decisions are made. The chapter forms the theoretical vertebrae of this study as it provides in-depth background of the subject matter of this study and guides development of the questionnaire instrument. Various literature sources have been used to develop this theoretical compilation.

Chapter 3: Analysing length of stay and spending behaviour of tourists

In-depth literature analyses of tourist travel behaviour with particular reference to factors influencing visitors' length of stay, and tourists' expenditure are discussed in this chapter. The relationship between the two variables mentioned above is also unpacked through the review of literature. Strategies recommended by previous researchers in other countries of the world to increase tourist expenditure and stay duration are analysed. Included in this analysis are

the importance of length of stay and comprehension of spending behaviour of tourists in a destination, socio-demographic, economic, psychographic, trip and stay characteristics, destination attributes as determinants of length of stay and spending behaviour of tourists in destinations visited. This chapter is the pith of this study as it forms the theoretical framework and guides the research instrument design.

Chapter 4: Research methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodological approach employed in conducting this research and to justify the reasons for selecting a specific method to address the research questions. The methodology employed is discussed in the context of research design, the research method/strategy, the data collection techniques and statistical data analysis. This chapter therefore forms both the methodological and analytical framework of this study.

Chapter 5: Empirical Analysis

Research findings are discussed in relationship to findings of previous researchers on the subject. The aim of this chapter is to determine the travel behaviour, travel motivations of international visitors to South Africa, the factors influencing these visitors' length of stay and spending in South Africa. In this chapter the main results are discussed and compared with previous similar studies, and the unique elements related to the topic of South Africa are highlighted. The descriptive analysis is done by means of frequency tables after which exploratory data analysis techniques are utilised to analyse the data such as factor analysis, One-way analysis of variances (ANOVA), *t*-tests and spearman's rank order correlation analyses.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

Conclusions are drawn from the research findings and recommendations are made regarding ways of increasing length of stay and spending of international air market tourists in South Africa. Included in the recommendations is how findings on travel motivations will be used to increase attraction of tourists with high value to South Africa and in the development of the tourism product with an appeal to the intended market targets. The limitations and implications for further research are highlighted in this last-mentioned chapter.

CHAPTER 2
ANALYSING TOURIST TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism has grown in its importance as an engine for economic growth for many countries in the world (South Africa Tourism 2016/17:13). In fact, some countries have become totally dependent on tourism for economic growth such as Seychelles, Mauritius, Zanzibar, most of the Caribbean Islands and some developing mainland countries of the world (UNWTO 2017). Tourism has also been considered a vehicle for poverty alleviation (one of the Millennium Development Goals) most specifically through employment generation (United Nations 2015:4). Tourism has many other benefits apart from employment creation if properly and sustainably developed and managed which include enhancement of the quality of life of the visitors and the host communities alike, generation of much needed foreign currency (third export sector in the world according to UNWTO Secretary-General, Zurab Pololikashvili as reported in the UNWTO Barometer, January (2018:1), improvement of the balance of payment, improvement of relationships between nations, cultures and ethnic groups. UNWTO (2018:1) as referenced in the South Africa's state of tourism report (2016/2017:13) points out the role tourism plays in bringing prosperity to communities around the world through employment creation and entrepreneurial activities; thus, increased GDP contribution.

South Africa Tourism (2016/17:9) emphasises in its state of tourism report the role tourism plays in the economic growth and employment creation in the country. The president of the Republic of South Africa, Cyril Ramaphosa, in his State of the Nation address (February 2018) even highlights the potential tourism has as a driver of the South African economy (South Africa Tourism 2016/17:9). The National Development Plan (NDP), an economic policy framework of South Africa which aims to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030, also identifies tourism as a key driver of employment, economic growth and the national transformation agenda (NDP2012 as cited by South Africa Tourism 2016/17:9). South Africa's Growth Path Framework (2011) as cited by South Africa Tourism (2016/17:9) sees the tourism sector as an agent for rural development in South Africa. It is therefore important that if countries are to benefit more from tourism, they need to offer tourism products that are in line with the expectations of the target market. This can only be possible if destination marketers and the destination tourism industry are cognisant of the target market's needs, wants and desires.

Destination marketers and managers need to have a thorough understanding of tourists' travel behaviour to be able to create a tourism offering that is congruent to their needs, wants and their desires (George 2007:267; McCabe 2014:251). An understanding of tourists' travel behaviour assists in enhancing visitor experiences in destinations visited. Tourist travel behaviour encompasses a discussion of what motivates tourists to travel to specific destinations, what activities they partake in, how they make their purchasing decisions, what the factors are that influence them to make the decisions they make, how much they spend on a holiday, how long they stay in a destination visited, which places they include in their itinerary, how long they make bookings before their actual travel date and many more (Goeldner & Ritchie 2009:248).

Tourist travel behaviour components are interrelated meaning that the decision tourists make before travelling, how they make the decisions and their travel motivations have an influence on how long they stay and how much they spend on what in the destination visited. The choice of travel companions may influence the kind of activities that the group may participate in, choice of accommodation and places of dining hence spending is affected. What motivates tourists to travel influences how long they will stay and how much they will spend in what expenditure categories (accommodation, activities, shopping, food and beverages). Tourists who travel for business may stay only for the duration of the business or they may decide to stay for extra few days depending on their time availability and financial capacity. A decision to take a holiday that is made well in advance allows the tourists enough time to do information search on holiday alternatives that is activities to partake in and other spending opportunities which may make them decide to stay for longer or for shorter and to allocate a higher or small budget in the destination visited. This thus have an influence on spending behaviour and length of stay of tourists in the destination visited. It is therefore important at this point to explore literature on tourist travel behaviour as a base to understand tourists' length of stay and spending patterns including the factors which influence these two variables.

The purpose of this chapter is to analyse tourist travel behaviour with regard to travel motivations in general and travel motivations to South Africa specifically, tourists' decision-making process, types of holiday decisions tourists make, and the factors that influence these tourists' decisions. The elements of the tourism product will also be discussed as it has an influence on tourist travel behaviour. Length of stay and spending behaviour of tourists in destinations visited with a special focus on factors which influence these two variables will be dealt with in depth in chapter 3, as this is the fulcrum and pith of this study.

2.2 UNDERSTANDING TOURIST TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

From a literal point of view, tourist travel behaviour means the behaviour that tourists display when they are making decisions to undertake holidays. These may include what makes them to want to travel (travel motivations), what decisions they make when they want to travel (choice of destinations, travelling companions, length of stay, how much to spend, mode of transportation, lodging and many more), what influences them to make such choices, the steps they follow when they decide to travel and many more. According to Goeldner & Ritchie (2009:248) and McIntosh, Goeldner & Ritchie (1995:167) tourists' behaviour deals with tourists' travel motivations, how tourists make travel choices, tourists' thought process regarding the offerings they buy including the quantities they purchase and consume, their holiday experiences (joys and learning), how they interact with the host communities and the environment, and how satisfied they are with their holidays.

Reisinger (2009:279) regards tourist travel behaviour as the consumer behaviour in relationship to tourists and travel products. Tourist travel behaviour theories try to comprehend and "explain how tourists make decisions to spend available resources (time, money and effort) on travel-related products and services", an assertion which concurs with that of Schiffman & Kanuk (2000:5). McCabe (2014:25) defines tourist behaviour as undertakings by people when buying, consuming and evaluating tourism and travel services. According to George (2007:267; 2019:225), the main aspects of tourists' behaviour are understanding of the reasons for people to holiday (motivation), the way people choose holidays/places to go to on holiday (the decision-making process), and consumer categories (tourism market segments and typologies).

Page (2009:100) defines tourists' travel behaviour as the way in which tourists conduct themselves while spending money on tourism-related products and services and their attitudes and values towards what they purchase and experience. According to Pearce (2005:9) tourists' behaviour is different from consumer behaviour and one noticeable difference hinges on the "extended phases that surround tourist activities" and included in these phases is "an anticipation/pre-purchase stage, an on-site experience, a return travel component and the extended recall and collection stage". According to Page (2009:82), purchasing of a tourist product differs from that of other consumer products, as a tourism experience may last longer in the memory of the traveller and can enrich a person's life. A holiday is unique as it is about people's dreams, expectations of enjoyment and satisfaction. In support of the above point that tourist travel behaviour differs from consumer behaviour, Holloway (1998:4) and Holloway & Taylor (2006:8) regard purchasing a holiday as an investment involving high trust levels on the part of the holiday taker.

George (2019:226) describes buying a holiday as the most expensive purchase made in a year without any return or possibility of a sample experience before the purchase; hence equated this to buying dreams. According to Holloway & Taylor (2006:8), holiday purchase is equivalent to renting strange environment for a short while, including all the benefits both tangible and intangible that come with it. George (2019:226-7) labels purchasing a tourism product as sophisticated since the purchase is not usually spontaneous (it is carefully planned, especially holiday travel, except for business travel of course). The planning, the dreams about the holiday prior to travelling, may be part of its enjoyment as well as the actual travelling itself; experience reflections later through photos and videos taken during the trip are further extensions of the experience (Holloway & Taylor 2006:8). This makes the behaviour displayed by tourists (tourist travel behaviour) different from behaviour shown by consumers of tangible products (consumer behaviour).

According to Reisinger (2009:279), tourist behaviour involves understanding tourists' minds which comprise their **"cognition** (thinking, knowing, understanding, perceiving, storing, processing, and retrieving of information from the environment); **affect** (feelings, emotions, attitudes, predispositions); and **conation** (intentions to act and behave in a specific way, reasons for doing things, willingness and volition)". Included in tourist behaviour according to Reisinger (2009:279), is the "body in terms of overt behaviour, spirit environment (which influences tourist behaviour) and feedback (what a tourist receives from the environment)". According to Reisinger (2009:282), tourist behaviour and explanations to these behaviours are determined by the goals, priorities and preferences tourists have. Having looked at what tourist travel behaviour is all about, it is then compelling to unveil why comprehension of this phenomenon is very important to various stakeholders.

2.3   THE IMPORTANCE OF UNDERSTANDING TOURIST TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

Understanding tourist travel behaviour is considered important to various stakeholders such as private tourism service providers, the tourism public sector, local communities and tourists themselves (McCabe 2014:251). Comprehension of tourists travel behaviour is important in that it guides the development of tourism product and policies thereof, facilitates informed decision-making by tourists, guides development of marketing plans and strategies, enhances visitor experience, and contributes to ultimate tourist satisfaction. The following aspects support the importance of understanding tourist travel behaviour:

- **Guides tourism product development and tourism policy designing**

Understanding tourists' behaviour according to Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert & Wanhill (2005:52) enables tourism businesses to be cognisant of the needs and motives behind buying and the tourism consumption decision-making process. Since analysing the tourist travel behaviour enables tourists' needs to be unearthed, private tourism service providers and destination development and management bodies will then be enabled to segment, target and position themselves through designing products and policies which are in line with these needs; hence unforgettable tourist experience is guaranteed (McCabe 2014:251). By understanding its buyers and their decision-making processes, a tourism business can develop an offering which is appropriate, accessible and attractive to tourists and at an acceptable price (George 2007:267). Findings of research on the visitor perception of tourism products pricing in a destination will assist in adjusting the prices in line with what the customer expects; thus, boosting business. If the public sector has thorough knowledge of tourist needs, it is enabled to effectively address consumer expectations through development of relevant statutes and policies that attract more tourism business to the destinations (McCabe 2014:251).

- **Leads to tourist satisfaction**

Related to creation of tourism products which are in line with tourists' expectations is the enhancement of tourist satisfaction. Comprehension of tourist travel behaviour by tourism businesses in all dimensional areas is core to successfully run tourism businesses as it enables tourist expectations to be met which also comes with additional positive spill-over effects such as repeat purchase, free marketing through positive word-of-mouth and the flexibility in maintaining or even increasing the price of tourism service as loyal customers are less price sensitive (McIntosh *et al.*1995:167; Dunne, Flanagan & Buckley 2011:158). In-depth knowledge of customer needs, wants, buying behaviour and habits is a pre-requisite for constant and continuous customer satisfaction and long-term survival of organisations (Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur 2014:2).

Included in this is an understanding of cultural needs of international tourist markets (Reisinger 2009:285). Cultural comprehension of tourists from other countries empowers the hosts' communities to address cultural needs of tourists hence lack of this makes the locals incapable to handle and meet the needs of these markets; therefore, frustrating and stressing the hosts. Confidence and a sense of pride in providing a product or service that tourists enjoy are enhanced if locals understand tourists' culture and behaviour (Reisinger 2009:286); hence tourist satisfaction is enhanced. According to Maumbe & Donaldson (2010:2), growing global

competition has heightened the need by destinations to know the target market better to market to them as well as meet their needs satisfactorily.

- **Assists tourists in making informed decisions**

Understanding of consumer behaviour and consumption is useful to tourists as it enables them to make informed decisions with respect to undertaking holidays. Comprehension of tourist travel behaviour enlightens tourists on how tourism marketing communication influences their decisions; hence they end up making better informed decisions. They will understand how commercial sources of information can be developed to influence their preferences and choices (McCabe 2014:251).

- **Guides development of marketing plans and strategies**

Dunne *et al.* (2011:158), Van Vuuren & Slabbert (2011:694) and Cooper *et al.* (2005:52) argue that by understanding tourists' travel behaviour, tourism businesses will be aware of the effect of various marketing communication strategies on tourists' consumption behaviour. The knowledge of different market groups based on the way they buy and consume tourism products and the way tourism managers can ameliorate their marketing is acquired through the comprehension of tourists' travel behaviour (Van Vuuren & Slabbert 2011:694 and Cooper *et al.* 2005:52). Understanding why tourism products are in demand, what tourists buy, when, where and how they purchase and the factors that influence consumers' purchasing decisions helps destination marketers to prepare marketing plans and also contributes to literature on tourist behaviour (Van Vuuren & Slabbert 2011:694 and Holloway & Robinson 1995:55).

Reisinger (2009:282) postulates that comprehension of tourist behaviour enables better strategic decisions to be made; hence destination marketing organisations should learn various kinds of behaviour displayed by tourists when purchasing tourism products with a view to facilitate quality response to the needs of travellers. It is of utmost importance for continuous research on tourists' behaviour to be done as the needs of tourists are not static but dynamic. What motivated tourists to engage in certain travel behaviour in the past might not be a travel motive today and the same could be said about tomorrow's travel motives. Tourists seek new forms of tourism experiences, in fact tourists have already started migrating from hedonistic travel motivation (escape and rest) to holidays with more environmental and social content and the humanisation of tourism activities as predicted by Krippendorf (1987); Brotherton & Himmertoglu (1997); Culligan (1997) as cited by Koc & Altinay (2007:229). Another prediction made by Nadal *et al.* (2004); Poon (1993) and Zauhar as cited in Koc & Altinay (2007:229) which has already started dawning in the tourism industry is splitting holidays into several sub-

periods allowing tourists to partake in both summer and winter vacations within a single year and this further complicates the behaviour of tourists.

2.4 UNDERSTANDING TOURIST HOLIDAY DECISION-MAKING

Hermann & Du Plessis (2016:55) define decision-making as a thought process of selecting a logical choice of products or services from available options. Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:263) assert that consumers are on an on-going basis making decisions about what products and services to purchase for consumption purposes and the chief rationale for making these decisions is that it needs to satisfy their desires, needs and wants but there is more than one avenue to follow for doing so.

Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff, Terblanche & Klopper (2016:84) and Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:264/5) also agree that no matter what steps are followed in making a buying decision, the ultimate decision is to buy (spend) or not to buy (not to spend). However, regarding tourism, tourists are faced with multiple decisions which include destination choice, when and who to travel with, travel budget and many others but the first decision is whether or not to travel (Hermann & du Plessis 2016:55). According to Slabbert & Viviers (2014) tourists motivations encourage them to travel or not to travel. Wilson, Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremier (2016:30) attest that organisations are highly concerned with customer purchase choices and the steps that lead to the purchase of one offering instead of others. Deciding to travel or not to travel is the initial choice to be made by any potential tourist as tourism is among the products to be allocated to the tourist's budget competing with other non-tourism products (Sirakaya, McLellan & Uysal 1996 as cited by McCabe 2014:257). A decision to travel is dependent on the intensity of the need or the motive, as highlighted above by Hermann and Du Plessis (2016:58). The dedication is conditioned by the ability to travel (money, health and time). Figure 2.1 provides an integrative framework of holiday decision-making (Decrop 2010). The model shows the factors that influence tourist behaviour, the types of decisions made by tourists (holiday decisions) and the decision-making process (decision variables). This model is also guiding the literature review as discussions will be done according to the main elements of the model.

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                    │    ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS     │
                    └──────────────────────────────┘

┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐
│ GEOGRAPHICAL │ │ POLITICAL│ │ ECONOMIC │ │ SOCIO-CULTURAL   │ │ TECHNOLOGICAL    │
└──────────────┘ └──────────┘ └──────────┘ └──────────────────┘ └──────────────────┘
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PRIMARY PERSONAL FACTORS	SECONDARY PERSONAL FACTORS	INTER-PERSONAL FACTORS
Age Nationality Gender Education and occupation Personality and self-image Feelings	Personal resources Household composition and family lifecycle Travel experiences and involvement level Motives and benefits sought Lifestyle and values	Group/Decision-making unit composition Interactions within the group Distribution of roles and tasks Conflict management and influence tactics

HOLIDAY DECISIONS	DECISION-MAKING VARIABLES
➢ Generic decision: to go or not to go ➢ Modal decision: which holiday type ➢ Specific decisions: Accompaniment; Meals; Activities; Organisation; Attractions; Period; Budget; Purchases; Destination; Route; Length; Tour; Lodging; Transportation; Holiday style	➢ Need(s) recognition ➢ Information search ➢ Evaluation of choice alternatives ➢ Purchase and booking process

Figure 2.1: An integrative framework of holiday decision-making
Source: Decrop (2010)

2.4.1 Types of holiday decisions and the way they are undertaken

Once the decision to travel has been made, tourists are faced with a series of decisions which are not taken simultaneously. These decisions made, according to March & Woodside (2005:67), McCabe (2014:256), Hermann & du Plessis (2016:55) and Cook, Hsu & Taylor *et al*. (2014:34) include choices on the destination to be visited, activities, attractions, accommodation, transport mode and route to and around the chosen destination, dining out choices and lastly souvenirs, durable and non-durable products (March & Woodside 2005:67). The trip decisions indicated above are interactive with one another and may condition immediate or future tourist decisions.

March & Woodside (2005:70) and Decrop (2006) and Cook *et al.* (2014:34) concur that tourists are faced with multiple decisions when planning to travel and all these decisions are not taken concurrently but in successive phases. According to the three sources mentioned above it takes place in three phases which they refer to by different names but Cook *et al.* (2014:34) places these decisions in five phases.

March & Woodside (2005:70) divided the travel decisions up into the following levels:

- Level 1 decisions: refer to decisions on destination to be visited and activities and attractions which interact, and they are made at the beginning of the holiday-planning process.

- Level 2 decisions: involve decisions on accommodation and the mode/route transport to the destination. The modes of transport/route and accommodation decisions were empirically found to be made most often independent of each other and these decisions are made before the trip begins.

- Level 3 decisions: these decisions are made after travellers have reached the destination and these include purchase of self-gifts and durable products, local area routing and transportation, dining out decision. Many travel-related products purchases are not planned before the traveller embarks on the trip, especially gift-purchases, as travellers will not even know what will be available as the best souvenirs. According to March & Woodside (2005:71), it is therefore important to study unplanned purchases, as a large share of the traveller's monitory expenditures may not be planned, and the traveller's overall holiday satisfaction is likely to be shaped by these situational elements.

Cook *et al.* (2014:34) agree with March & Woodside (2005:70) that tourists' multiple decisions are not all made at once but in progressive sets and they consider the decision to take a trip as the first set of decisions. These decisions are made before committing to go on a trip and they include answers to questions as to whether the person has time, money, health and interest in undertaking the trip, the amount of time and effort to be spent on the potential trip, the travelling companion, own booking or organised booking. Cook *et al.* (2014:34) regard destination choice as a general second decision which involves where to go, what to do during the trip, given the time and budgeting constraints. The third decision according to Cook *et al.* (2014:34) is the destination commitment decision and this is not easily changed. This involves choosing the best destination to meet the needs of the customer from a pool of alternatives. The fourth decision entails preparing for the trip, what Cook *et al.* (2014:34) calls "post-trip commitment decisions". These include the decision on the specific day of departure, the length of stay in one place, single or multi-destination itinerary, travel insurance, transport mode to

the destination areas and elements of the holiday to pay for or reserve in advance. The fifth and final set of decisions are the decisions made during the trip and include how to get around the destination area, routes to be taken within the destination area, accommodation per night if not pre-arranged, where to dine, activities to engage in, attractions to visit and souvenirs to purchase (Cook *et al.* 2014:34).

Decrop (2006) on the other hand also refers to levels of decisions – more specifically three levels.

- Generic decisions: to go or not to go on a holiday
- Modal decisions: decisions on the type of holiday
- Specific decisions: travel party, activities to undertake, attractions to visit, travel budget, destination to visit, length of stay, accommodation to stay in during the holiday, dining places, organisation, period of holiday (summer/winter), purchases, route, tour, transportation and holiday style (McCabe 2014:256).

According to McCabe (2014:256), generic, modal and specific decisions should however be regarded as conceptual levels not as hierarchical or sequential levels. It was also highlighted in McCabe (2014:257) that the generic decision to go on a holiday is not always considered first nor is the destination decision considered in the last instance. Decrop and Snelders (2004) use an example of last-minute bookings indicating that the generic decision of deciding to go on a holiday may come after decisions are made on the timing of the trip.

Unlike generic decisions which are non-comparable choices, specific decisions involve comparable alternatives (McCabe 2014:257) where comparability is defined as the extent to which alternatives are described and judged using similar characteristics. Simply, non-comparable alternatives share few attributes if at all, while comparable alternatives share the same attribute background. According to Laws (1995) as referenced by McCabe (2014:257), it has increasingly become difficult for visitors to decide where to go, how to go and where to stay due to the availability of multi-variety destinations, diverse activities and accommodation. The order in which holiday decisions are made cannot be stated with precision, as evidenced by inconsistencies in research such as that of Fesenmaier & Jeng (2000) who concluded that the core decision of the travel route often precedes choice of attraction which is an "en route" decision which contradicts the findings of King & Woodside (2001).

McCabe (2014:257) stated that specific choices are influenced by several personal factors (such as previous experiences, position in the family life cycle, education level, financial and

time resources), psychological variables (such as motives, beliefs/images, attitudes, intentions, personality and lifestyle, and environmental variables (such as product's pull factors).

Modal decisions according to McCabe (2014:258) fall between generic and specific decisions on the holiday decision-making continuum as some decisions are considered in any holiday type such as destination, accommodation, transport and many more, whereas others are particular to one type only and are not comparable with other holiday types. Three common types of modal holiday choices include length of the trip (such as short breaks versus longer trips), time of the year (winter versus summer holidays) and lastly trip purpose (leisure, business or visiting friends and relatives). According to Etzel & Woodside (1973); Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) the above-mentioned criteria in modal choices are often used for segmentation of tourist markets. Tourists are conditioned to make trade-offs between modal alternatives due to limitations in financial and time resources (McCabe 2014:258). According to Alegre & Pou (2005), though alternatives are not fully comparable, visitors weigh up their benefits, assess their costs and affordable stay duration both financial and timewise. According to McCabe (2014:258) generic and modal decisions entail exclusive, substitutable or independent alternatives while holiday-specific decisions depend on inclusive, complimentary or dependable alternatives.

2.4.2   The tourist decision-making process

McCabe (2014:255) points out that most decision-making models are horizontally presented, considering the different steps consumers follow from need recognition to purchase and post-purchase process. These horizontal models assume a funnel shaped structure in which decisions are narrowed down among comparable alternatives through cognitive, affective and behavioural stages (Payne, Bettman & Johnson 1997; Shafir, Simonson & Tversky 1997 as cited in McCabe 2014:255). Most structural and process models follow this horizontal sequence and included in these horizontal linear models of tourist purchasing behaviour are those by Mill & Morrison (1992:102), Cooper *et al.* (2005:65), Weaver & Lawton (2006:173), Mathieson & Wall   (2006:43), Hudson (2008:56), Reisinger (2009:305), Cooper (2012:277), Morrison (2013:410-14), McCabe (2014:252) and Cook *et al.*(2014:33).

Though various models have been designed in an attempt to explain the tourists decision-making process; of all the models, the most widely used one is the five phase sequential process which involves realisation of the need to travel, searching for information, evaluation of possible choices, actual purchase and finally the post-purchase stage as shown on the integrated model by Decrop 2010 above and supported by Cooper *et al.* (2005:65); Hudson

(2008:56); Reisinger (2009:305) and Engel *et al.*(1978) as cited in Middleton *et al.* (2009:89) and Bowen & Clarke (2009:59). This model was borrowed from models on purchasing of tangible physical products with adjustments to suit the nature of the tourism product as evidenced by Hudson (2008:56)'s assertion that the buying process of tourism offerings is sometimes considered similar to purchasing of tangible products with the presumption that tourists move through a number of phases aggregating to the purchase. Other models can actually be regarded as variations of the above as there are some additions or subtractions to it as highlighted in the discussion below.

Engel *et al.'s* (1978) model has been labelled by Middleton *et al.* (2009:89) and Bowen & Clarke (2009:59) as the most commonly used tourist decision-making process which involves problem recognition, information search (internal and external), evaluation of possible purchase options (alternatives) until the choice is narrowed down to the preferred option, the actual purchase of the preferred option and evaluation of experiences after purchase (five step process). Mansfield (1992) as cited by Fluker & Richardson (2004:67) see the destination choice process as a number of steps starting with motivation, followed by first phase of gathering travel information then establishment of alternatives, second phase of travel information gathering, evaluation of possible destination options, choosing the best alternative and lastly partaking in travel (Fluker & Richardson 2004:67).This model, though it is a seven step process, it is in actual fact a variation of the five stage process highlighted above except that information search has been split into two and alternative evaluation has been dissected into alternative identification and evaluation of possible destination options. Choosing the best alternative is an equivalent of the actual purchase.

Mill and Morrison (1992:102) proposed a seven-stage buying process that people go through when making travel decisions namely "attention and awareness; knowledge and comprehension; attitudes, interest and liking; evaluation, preferences and desire; intention and conviction; purchase, trial and action and lastly adoption". The decision-making process by Mathieson & Wall (2006:43) outlines five principal and interacting phases namely travel desire/felt need, gathering and evaluation of information, the actual purchase of holiday product, preparation to travel and actual travel and lastly travel experience evaluation. Weaver & Lawton (2006:173) postulate that the tourist decision-making starts with push factors in the place of origin (an equivalent of need arousal and recognition), then an information search, evaluation of alternative destinations from the awareness set, the actual visit or destination consumption and lastly the recollection and evaluation of tourism purchases/experience (an equivalent of post-purchase).

Hudson (2008:56) modelled the tourists' purchasing process to include awareness of the need to travel, searching for information, assessing possible purchase options, the actual buying and the after-purchase phase. This model has been adopted by Reisinger (2009:305) as is, except that Reisinger termed awareness to be problem recognition. Other theories of tourist decision-making according to Reisinger (2009:318) mainly involve three stages from a low level to a high level of response. At the lowest level (cognitive stage), purchasers think about the product or service, recognise it, get to know about product features and benefits. At the highest level of response (affective stage), the prospective buyer develops feelings toward the product and perception of it. If the perception is positive then liking, interest and positive attitudes are developed. This happens when product benefits match the buyer's needs and wants. After evaluating available product alternatives, the prospective buyer develops a preference or desire for a specific product and becomes convinced that its benefits will meet his/her needs and wants. In the behavioural stage in the final higher stage the prospective purchaser can still weigh the constraints to purchase the product such as lack of financial capacity and transport. Once the buyer makes the choice, he/she buys the product (Reisinger 2009:318).

The stages of tourist purchasing process according to Cooper (2012:277) start with the arousal and realisation of the need followed by setting of goals and objectives of buying the product, identifying possible product options to buy, compiling set of products from which to choose, searching for information (multi-sources), choosing final alternative, purchasing travel product and lastly post-purchase behaviour and feedback. Bennet *et al.* (2012:91) assert that consumers follow a linear process when making purchase decisions, which comprises awareness, attention and need recognition; attitude development; evaluation of alternative offerings (using multiple evaluation criteria); decision-making; purchase and lastly adoption and post-purchase.

Morrison (2013:410-14) points out that the travel purchase behaviour process consists of seven sequential stages, namely realisation of the need to travel, scouting for information, evaluation of possible options prior to purchase, the actual buying of the product (booking), the actual travel and holiday experience (consumption), aftermath holiday experience evaluations (post-consumption) and lastly remembering and sharing. Cook *et al.* (2014:33) assert that the tourist's thought process occurs in five stages, namely dreaming, researching, booking, experiencing and the sharing cycle. Though this might appear different from the five-stage process, it is actually another variation of the process. Dreaming can be equated to need recognition while researching is an equivalent of information searching. Booking is the same as the actual purchase of the holiday while experiencing and the sharing cycle can be

likened to post-purchase. Alternative evaluation, though it seems left out in the process above, it however happens in between researching and booking.

McCabe (2014:252) concluded that most tourists' behaviour models entail three stages, namely "pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase". This conclusion is clearly a summary of the five-stage process mentioned above. During pre-purchase, prospective tourists realises the need for travelling and once the need is recognised or aroused, they engage in information searching behaviour for possible destinations and evaluation of alternatives to choose the best one to meet their needs (Klenosky & Gitelson 1998; Um & Crompton 1990). Kotler *et al.* (2017:191) holds that the consumer decision-making process includes need recognition, information searching, evaluation of the alternative choices, purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour. Kotler *et al.* (2017:191) emphasise that between evaluation of alternatives and purchase of the product, consumers show their purchase intention which is usually influenced by attitude of others about the product and the unexpected situation which may end up influencing the final choice to buy or not to buy the product. George (2019:240) postulates that tourist decision-making follows a five-stage process which is needs and wants recognition, buying, anticipation and expectations, travel and post-trip evaluation.

Having highlighted the phases in consumer decision-making, Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:264) however argue that the steps of the decision-making process do not always follow one another in that rigid order, as customers can start at any stage and sometimes skip other steps depending on the type of product to be bought. Hudson (2008:56) argues that a universally applicable decision-making process especially for travellers is practically impossible, considering different decision-making styles. Some consumer-purchasing decisions may be complex, moderate or very easy and faster than others, depending on several moderating influencers such as the type of product being bought, the level of interest of the person in buying the product, the level of risk perceived and many more.

According to Lamb *et al.* (2016:92) and Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:270) all purchasing decisions by customers can be plotted along a spectrum of three types, namely, routine or habitual, limited and extensive decision-making or problem-solving, as Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:263) clearly state that decision-making is synonymous with problem-solving. Hudson (2008:55) points out that various buying situations exert an influence on the consumer-buying process; thus, customers showcase varying commitment levels based on the purchase type. Howard & Sheth (1969) as cited in Hudson (2008:55) and Holloway & Robinson (1995:60) identified three levels of the consumer-purchasing process, namely "extended problem solving, limited problem solving and habitual problem solving".

Reisinger (2009:314) also highlights the degree of engagement (involvement) of individual customers when making decisions as occurring at three levels, namely habitual, limited and extensive/complex decision-making. Lamb *et al.* (2016:92) point out that the population of product offerings along the continuum of three decision types is in accordance with the strength of customer engagement (highly, moderately or lowly involved), the amount of time expended on making the purchase decision, product offering price to be paid, the intensity of information scouting done by the buyer, and the number of possible product options available for consideration by the buyer before the actual purchase. Lamb *et al.* (2016:92) describe consumer involvement as the amount of time and energy a buyer expends in scouting for information, weighing of possible product options to buy from and the entire sophistication of the thought processes the customer goes through.

The level of customer engagement in choosing a product offering to buy is influenced by variables such as past experience, the general level of importance of the product offering (interest), the perceived level of risk to be encountered (safety and security), and the circumstances around the purchase and how visible the product is to others in our social settings (Lamb *et al.* 2016:93/4). The less the previous experience with the product, the higher the involvement, while the greater the interest in the product being bought, the more the involvement with the reverse being true (Lamb *et al.* 2016:93/4). Where the perceived risk of buying a product is high, the level of consumer involvement becomes high as well as in purchasing a holiday. The prevailing purchasing situation such as choosing a holiday for yourself compared to choosing a holiday to go with your boss also has an effect on the level of involvement, with high involvement registered for choosing a holiday to go with a special person. The more visible the product is to others, the higher the involvement, and the opposite is true for all the above scenarios (Lamb *et al.* 2016:93/4).

Table 2.1: Overview of tourist decision-making models

SUMMARY OF TOURIST DECISION-MAKING MODELS	
AUTHOR/S	**STEPS IN DECISION-MAKING**
Engel *et al.* (1978)	Problem recognition, Information search, Evaluation of alternatives, Purchase, Post-purchase
Mansfield (1992)	Motivation, 1st phase of information gathering, Establishment of alternatives, 2nd phase of information gathering, Assessment of destination alternatives, choice of the best alternative, Undertaking travel

Mill and Morrison (1992)	Attention and awareness, knowledge and comprehension, Attitude, interest and liking, Evaluation of preferences and desires, Intention and conviction, Purchase, trial and action, Adoption
Mathieson & Wall (2006)	Felt need/travel desire, Information collection and evaluation, Purchase travel decision, Travel preparation and travel experience, Travel satisfaction evaluation
Weaver & Lawton (2006)	Push factors, Information search, Evaluation of alternatives, actual visit, Recollection and evaluation of tourism experience
Hudson (2008)	Awareness, Information search, Alternative evaluation, Actual purchase, Post-purchase
Reisinger (2009)	Problem recognition, information search, Alternative evaluation, Purchase, Post-purchase
Bowen & Clarke (2009)	Problem recognition, Information search, Evaluation of alternatives, Choice/purchase, Evaluation of post-purchase experiences
Decrop (2010)	Need recognition, Information search, Alternative evaluation, Actual purchase, Post-purchase
Cooper (2012)	Need arousal and recognition, Formulation of goals and objectives of purchase, Identification of alternatives for purchase, generation of alternative set
Bennet *et al.* (2012)	Awareness, attention and need recognition, Attitude development, Evaluation of alternative offerings, Decision-making, Purchase, Adoption and post-purchase.
Morrison (2013)	Need recognition, Information searching, Pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives, Purchase, Consumption, Post-consumption evaluation, Remembering and sharing
Cook *et al.* (2014)	Dreams, Researching, Booking, Experiencing, Sharing
McCabe (2014)	Pre-purchase, Purchase, Post-purchase
Kotler *et al.* (2017)	Need recognition, Information search, Evaluation of alternative choices, Purchase decision, Post-purchase behaviour
George (2019)	Needs and wants recognition, buying, anticipation and expectations, travel- and post-trip evaluation

It is clear from the table above that consumer decision-making, especially of tourism products – particularly a holiday – is complex because purchasing a tourism product is highly sophisticated compared to purchasing of physical product. Though several authors came up with own explanations for the stages of consumer decision-making, most of these phases are crafted around the one by Engel (1978) which is problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and post-purchase. It is also clear that some models are more related to holiday decision-making such as those by Mansfield (1992), Mathieson & Wall (2006), Weaver & Lawton (2006), Cook *et al.* (2014), and George (2019) as evidenced by the key constructs in the process. Though the remaining ones from the table above are more applicable to physical product, they may also be relevant to holiday decision-making as tourists go through these phases. Some holiday decisions take longer to make than others, depending on many factors such as the amount of money to be spent, the main holiday of the year (high importance), travelling with a very important person in life, the level of interest of the person in buying the product, the level of risk perceived. This makes the travellers become more involved, more time and effort spent on searching for information and evaluation of possible holiday options.

From the discussion of tourist travel behaviour models above, it is clear that tourists follow a linear process when they are purchasing holiday products. Other models of tourist purchasing behaviour acknowledge that tourists go through stages when deciding to go on holiday but what is amazing about these models is their comprehensiveness in terms of covering the factors that condition decision-making by customers. The process of choosing product offerings to purchase is however influenced by a variety of factors. The effect of these factors on the decision process can be felt at any of the stages of the decision-making process, which are: felt need, information hunting, alternative evaluation, actual purchase and finally the post-purchase phase. It is also important at this juncture to acknowledge the contribution made by certain models in explaining the variables that influence tourist decision-making. These models include those by Schmoll (1977), Engel *et al.* (1993:53), Mathieson & Wall (1982), Woodside & Lysonski (1989), Middleton & Clark (2001:77) and Weaver & Lawton (2006:173). The above-mentioned models will not be discussed below individually but their contribution will be included under the factors that influence tourist decisions.

2.4.3 Factors influencing tourists' decision-making or travel behaviour

From the integrative model by Decrop (2010) above, one can see that tourist decision-making is influenced by several factors. George (2019:226) and Decrop (2010) as cited in McCabe (2014:256) postulates that tourist holiday decisions are influenced by environmental factors such as geographical, political, socio-cultural, technological and economic factors, which in

turn influence primary personal factors, secondary personal factors and lastly interpersonal factors, which then affect the holiday decisions and the decision-making process. This assertion is supported by Reisinger (2009:280) though he added demographic, historic, ecological, competitive and legal factors as part of environmental stimuli. According to Reisinger (2009:280) a list of sub-variables resorts under these factors which both on their own and in combination can influence tourist needs, motivational patterns and ultimately specific behaviour.

Demographic factors include age, gender, marital status, stage of life cycle, socio-economic status, population-related aspects such as age composition, population size, distribution, density and diversity, while social variables entail family, groups/reference groups, neighbours, social stimuli, social roles, social status and social class (Reisinger 2009:291). Cultural variables with an influence on tourist buying behaviour according to Reisinger (2009:291) include "values, beliefs, language, religion, customs, traditions and family relationships". Economic variables consist of income, time, employment, price, taxes, interest rates exchange rates, while geographic factors include a place of origin and climate. War, political unrest and terrorism are considered political variables while legal variables include consumer protection and competition laws. Technological variables include new developments in information and communication technology (ICT) while ecological variables include environmental conservation, protection and recycling (Reisinger 2009:280). These environmental factors according to Reisinger (2009:290) influence the "buyer's personal factors, buyer's psychological characteristics and the actual decision process which in turn influence buyer's responses".

The buyer's personal factors according to Reisinger (2009:290) include "nationality, religion, age, gender, life cycle stage, occupation, economic status, lifestyle, personality and self-concept" while the buyer's psychological characteristics entail "motivation, perception, learning, beliefs and attitudes". The actual decision-making process includes "problem recognition, information search, alternative evaluation, purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour" while the buyer's responses cover aspects such as "product selection, pricing acceptance, seller and service choice, reactions to product promotion, purchase location, purchase amount and timing" (Reisinger 2009:290). Schmoll (1977) maintains that the eventual travel decision is influenced by four main factors, namely travel stimuli (product promotions, recommendations from personal and trade sources), personal and social determinants (tourist's personal and social motivations), external variables (prospective travellers' confidence and trust in providers of tourism services, image of tourist destination,

tourists' previous experience and time and finance limitations) and destination characteristics (endowment of attractions, accessibility, quality amenities, and ancillary services).

Engel *et al.* (1993:53) as cited in Bowen & Clarke (2009:59) also assert that the way tourists make holiday decisions is influenced by "environmental factors such as culture, social class, personal influences, family, and situation and individual differences such as consumer resources, motivation and involvement, knowledge, attitudes, personality, values and lifestyle", which concurs with Schmoll (1977) above. Mathieson & Wall (1982) as referenced by Cooper *et al.* (2005:69) and Fletcher *et al.* (2013:55) postulate that "tourist profile, travel awareness, destination resources and characteristics and trip features" have an influence of tourist buying behaviour. Tourists profile according to Mathieson & Wall (1982) includes demographic factors like "age, education, income, attitudes, previous experience and motivations" while travel awareness entails the image of a destination in totality or individual components that makes the destination and this image created is dependent on how credible the source of information is. Destination resources and characteristics involve the both primary and secondary tourist attractions which lures tourists to the destination and destination facilities which add to the tourists experience while trip features include distance between place of origin and the destination, trip duration and the perceived risk of the destinations visited. Mathieson & Wall (1982) postulates that the characteristics of holiday that is their "intangibility, perishability and heterogeneity" nature of holidays in one way or another influence the consumer's decision-making.

Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:264) and Bennet *et al.* (2012:86) state that factors that influence consumer buying behaviour can be divided into internal (individual) factors and external factors where the former include "needs/motives, personality, perception, learning, attitudes and lifestyle" while the latter entails "culture, social influences, reference groups and family". According to Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:263) and Lamb *et al.* (2016:84) both these factors influence the internal thought processes, but they are not alone in this as personal characteristics, environment and marketing also play a critical role. Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:264/5) and Lamb *et al.* (2016:84) agree that the consumer decision-making process is influenced by individual (internal), social (external) factors and the situation surrounding the purchasing (purchase reason, purchase time, and even the physical surroundings). Personal characteristics like race, gender, age, religion and as well as market characteristics such as climate, economy, government and technology also influence consumer decision-making process/consumer behaviour (Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur 2014:28) which agree with Decrop (2010) as cited in McCabe (2014:256); Reisinger 2009: 290).

From the different studies above, it is clear that there are a number of similarities but also differences in terms of the factors influencing travel behaviour. Therefore, a detailed discussion of the factors that influence tourist travel behaviour follows:

2.4.3.1 Demographic factors

Demographic factors refer to characteristics such as age, gender, ethnicity, stages of family life cycle, marital status, occupation, nationality, level of education, labelled as variables that have an influence on tourists travel behaviour (Weaver & Lawton 2006:179/83; Hudson 2008:41; Reisinger 2009:280; Page 2009:100; Uysal *et al.* 2012:136; McCabe 2014:251; Page 2014:53; Cook *et al.* 2014:33; George 2019:229). Discussed below are some of the variables listed above with a special focus on the nature of the influence on tourist behaviour.

- **Age**

Age and family lifecycle stages are demographic segmentation variables which influence tourist travel behaviour significantly as this influence time availability and financial viability (work and family obligations respectively), which impact the travel decisions (George 2019:229; Weaver & Lawton 2006:179; Bennet *et al.* 2012:71; Kotler *et al.* 2017:183).

According to Hudson (2008:47), age influence consumer behaviour especially with the grey market as it is not affected by seasonality and involves longer trips. Hudson further states that after people retire, they may remain loyal to destination products they are familiar with and were happy about, but prices have to be suitable for the retiree's income. Age according to Reisinger (2009:302) shapes people's behaviour and the product offerings they buy and other travel decisions such as destination, length of stay and many more. Mature customers consist of people aged 65 years and above and their travel behaviour vary from that of travellers below 35 years as senior tourists usually prefer health and convenience while younger segments desire excitement and adventure (Reisinger 2009:297). Older people are also considered an important tourist market segment, increasing in volumes and have special needs when it comes to tourism consumption. According to Shaw & Williams (2002) senior tourists engage in activities which are less tiresome in nature.

According to tourist behaviour literature as cited in Uysal *et al.* (2012:136) age is a critical factor in influencing tourism activity participation, tourists' expectations and travel behaviour in general behaviour. Children under the age of 12 may influence destinations their parents visit and their travel behaviour during holidays (Pearce 1993; Genc 2009 as cited in Uysal *et*

al., 2012:136), hence destinations and tourism organisations that appeal to both children and parents (family) will be better preferred by families to destinations that are not (Pearce 2005).

Related to age, is the University going students who demonstrate an interest in certain tourism activities hence their choice of tourism offerings can vary from other tourists' segments (Uysal *et al.* 2012:137). Swarbrooke & Horner (1999) point out that students generally participate in tourism engagements aimed at enriching their knowledge academically especially according to their academic schedules (school holidays) in order to refresh their minds, reenergise and mental well-being. According to Page (2014:61) overseas holiday are mostly undertaken by tourists aged between 35 to 54 years while the retired generally goes on domestic vacations in UK. Those aged between 16 and 24 and over 65 are most likely not to go on a holiday than other groups. Page (2014:62) also points out that young adults features in adverts as backpackers and they often desire fun-packed holidays. Tourism participation could be a symbol for income of adulthood for young people. Tourism offers opportunities for experimentation, development of self-identity and confidence, establishment of independence, horizon broadening, sexuality and relationship experimentation. These opportunities are believed to diminish as people age (Page 2014:62).

- **Gender**

Bennet *et al.* (2012:72) assert that gender's influence on travel behaviour is more evident with women playing an influential role in travelling. However, these gender stereotypes are changing as the gender roles and gaps are thinning hence some women are now participating in hard adventure activities. Bond (1997) as quoted by Weaver & Lawton (2006:178) states that female travellers prefer ultimate security and comfort, value social interaction during travel and are very particular with service quality (Westwood, Pritchard & Morgan 2000 as cited in Weaver & Lawton 2006:178). Furthermore, female tourists are loyal customers to destinations that meet their needs satisfactorily and they are excellent word of mouth advertisers (Weaver & Lawton 2006:178). Gender has also been found to be powerfully impacting tourism decisions with women being holiday-decision makers in households though this notion is argued to be changing with the rise of single parent households and dual income households (women working) (Page 2009:102). According to Hudson (2008:47), gender may influence tourists' behaviour in some societies, in terms of the roles men and women are expected to play. As more and more women are travelling today, marketers should adapt to suit their needs as they are more discerning and demanding than men. They value safety and security then comfort and convenience (Hudson 2008:47).

Shaw & Williams (2002) suggested that women tourists prefer to engage in physical and mental relaxation activities as well as socialisation. Small (2003) as referenced in Uysal *et al.* (2012:138) proposed that older women capable of getting out of cultural coconut shell (norms) of feminism enjoy holidays better than other woman as women are always gender stereotyped with shopping holidays. According to Uysal *et al.* (2012:138), based on research findings by Small (2003), major gender differences will manifest regarding choice of tourism offerings and levels of gratification of travelling needs and these should be researched thoroughly in the future.

Gender as an influence on tourism decision-making according to Page (2014:63) has not been widely researched only limited to employment patterns and focusing on women as suppliers of tourism products instead of consumer (Pritchard 2004 as cited in Page 2014:63). Clarke & Critcher (1985) as cited in Page (2014:63), argue that females in general are incapacitated in terms of leisure time as compared to their male counterparts and therefore engage less in tourism activities since they spend much time around home and family. Page (2014:63) argues that if Clarke & Critcher (1985)'s assertion is applicable, thus housebound and care giving women, would not be motivated to travel and stay in a self-catering establishment if their motive is to escape from routine but if tourism is part of family ritual then every member will participate. According to Page (2014:63) it is the quality and type of tourism participation that matter instead of general participation of women in primary care roles.

Gender roles have also changed over the years witnessing the emerging of powerful career women and singletons as referenced by Boniface, Cooper & Cooper (2014:569); Page (2014:64) and Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:137-140). Men travelling alone tend to be viewed as adventure seeking, expedition tourists while lone women travelling are regarded as brave, vulnerable or even abnormal. Many women prefer familiar environments even though they take calculated risk by personality (Page 2014:64). Foo *et al.* (2004) as cited in Page (2014:64) state that female tourists are more passive in unfamiliar surroundings than male tourists who participate in many tourism activities and engagements in new environments.

Gender intertwined with culture influence behaviour displayed by tourists when travelling. According to Henderson *et al.* (1988) as cited in Reisinger (2009:295), women are restricted in their travelling engagements than men in countries where women are regarded as care givers and child bearers with men assuming the breadwinning role. Travelling in these societies is considered masculine hence women are discouraged to travel unless if they are accompanying their husbands (Henderson *et al.* 1988 as cited in Reisinger 2009:295).

However, in western cultures, women are becoming more independent and travel frequently for holidays and business. Understanding of gender in the context of cultural variations aid in identifying and predicting differences in behaviour displayed during travelling by men and women especially in relationship to products sought, reaction to promotional endeavours, decision-making roles) (Reisinger 2009:295).

- **Income, education and occupation**

High levels of income, education and professional occupations are positively associated with tourism activity especially long-haul travel as this has a financial connotation (no or limited financial restrictions on travel decisions). According to Weaver & Lawton (2006:183), education influences occupation, which in turn influences income level hence their effect on tourists' behaviour. According to Bennet *et al.* (2012:72), the better educated sector of the population generally forms an important part of senior management more mobile owing to business travel. Bennet *et al.* (2012:72) state that the level of education affects the type of new experiences a person is willing to accept. The higher the people gets educated, the more they move from types of tourism products they used to consume to consumption of tourism offerings that are more related to self-development and culture related.

Kotler *et al. (*2017:183) highlighted the influence that occupation has on travel behaviour. An important relationship to take note of is that of work and tourism. According to Page (2014:66), work provides income for tourism and the reason for escaping (push factor) but however, both leisure and work compete for an individual's time (if one increases, another decreases). Page (2014:66) argues that it is not work which is a hindrance to tourism but rather the type of work. Where the work is tedious, arduous or monotonous, escape will stimulate the need to escape. On the other hand, where work is exciting, enjoyable and possibly difficult to delineate from leisure, a holiday may be seen as an extension of work itself. Page (2014:66) concludes that different types of work produce varying individual needs and wants for travel hence different travel behaviour is displayed where some professions may prefer physical and adventure holidays while others desire holiday experiences characterised by resting and relaxation.

- **Family lifecycle**

The stages through which families transcend influence tourism purchasing behaviour and product consumption patterns at each level (Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert & Wanhill 2013:48; Bennet *et al.* 2012:71; George 2019:229; Kotler *et al.* 2017:184). Young married people without children have higher discretionary incomes, travel and dine out more than families with children (Reisinger 2009:302). According to Page (2009:102), the stage of family life cycle (kids, no kids) may inhibit or encourage tourism participation since this has a bearing on the

amount of discretionary income available, and as well as the travel budget. Family life cycle closely relates to age influencing types of tourism engagements demanded as one migrates through various stages of family life. This has a link as well to income and family responsibilities which influence the available income and time for leisure (Page 2014:62). Family lifecycle influences consumer decisions that are chosen, as people move up through the stages of the lifecycle the behaviour they display when holidaying changes thus trends in tourists' behaviour need to be monitored to enable prediction of behaviour (Hudson 2008:50).

- **Nationality**

Nationality is one of the demographic factors found by some researchers to have an influence on tourism consumption behaviour (Uysal *et al.* 2012:138; Pearce 2005). Nationality is closely related to culture as people from the same country tend to have same culture and subcultures within one national culture. It is therefore important for destinations to understand tourism needs by nationalities in order to be better prepared to satisfy their needs should they target such markets. In terms of nationality and national identity, less research has been done but of those few studies done, there is empirical evidence that these factors influence tourist behaviour (Foo *et al.* 2004).

According to Page (2014:65) tourists from cultures viewed as extroverts tend to be adventurous in their holidaying and tourists who differ in terms of culture to the destination visited tends not to visit a wide range of attractions and regions within the destination (Page 2014:65).Pizam & Susiman (1995) as cited by Page (2014:66) discovered five behavioural differences between Japanese, Americans, French and Italian travellers. They discovered that Japanese tend to stay within their own group while Americans are great spenders. They also discovered that Italians and French are the most adventurous and in terms of bargaining and trip planning, Japanese were found to be best planners while Italians are poor planners. Lastly, they concluded that French, Italians and Americans are interested in authentic experiences. According to Page (2014:66) language barriers and visa bureaucracies impede overseas travelling especially with the face of terror attacks and safety concerns. Tourism marketers therefore need to deeply understand the needs and aspirations of each nationally and develop suitable strategies accordingly.

2.4.3.2 Economic factors

Economic factors include disposable income, cost of leaving in relationship to the destination, differences in foreign currency exchange rates, prices of products in a destination compared to other destinations, promotional expenditures, effectiveness of marketing campaigns by destinations, proximity of the destination from places of origin, Gross National Product per

capita income and private consumption (Uysal 1998 as cited by Page 2009:88). Economic factors with an influence on buying behaviour of tourists were listed as disposable income, discretionary income, price of necessities, the cost of buying luxury product offering such as travel, recreation and education (Reisinger 2009:299). Fletcher *et al.* (2013) and Kotler *et al. (*2017:185) included income and economic conditions while Reisinger (2009:88) regards income, time, employment, prices, taxes, interest rates, foreign currency exchange rates as economic factors with an influence on tourists spending patterns. Bennet *et al.* (2012:86) included income, purchasing power and willingness to purchase as economic factors. All these influences either increasing or decreasing the tourists spending ability. Employment though usually considered a demographic factor; it is linked to the disposable income tourists may have.

Engel's law as cited in Reisinger (2009:299) holds that as what people earn goes up, their spending on accommodation remains the same but reduce their expenditure on essential products while spending more on luxury products (travelling included). Price elasticity of demand law states that as product prices goes up, people's spending on essential goods stays static while luxury expenditures are curtailed, but not always the case as some people may luxury more to fulfil or maintain their ego needs (Reisinger 2009:299). Concluded by Reisinger (2009:299) as economic factors with an influence on people's spending behaviour are "business cycles, inflation, unemployment rate, the interest rates, exchange rate, saving policy, debt, credit availability, taxation policy, imports and exports". In times of economic boom, people have higher incomes (purchase more especially on expensive and luxury products) while during periods of economic downturn (recessions), the consumers' purchasing power is eroded as discretionary income is reduced (migrate from buying luxury items to necessities, low priced items).

2.4.3.3 Socio-cultural factors
Socio-cultural factors that have an influence on tourists travel behaviour includes family and the roles they play in consumption of tourism products (Holloway & Robinson 1995:66; Cooper *et al.* 2005:61; Weaver & Lawson 2006:175; Hudson 2008:56; Fletcher *et al.*2013:48; George 2019:238); reference groups and group decision-making (Holloway & Robinson 1995:59; March & Woodside 2005:67; Hudson 2008:52; Reisinger 2009:280; Fletcher *et al.*2013:41; Roberts-Lombard & Paramusur 2014:263; Page 2014:53; George 2019:238); social class (Holloway & Robinson 1995:60; Hudson 2008:41; Reisinger 2009:280; Cooper 2012:274; Page 2014:61). According to Holloway & Robinson (1995:59); March & Woodside (2005:67); Hudson (2008:52); Reisinger (2009:280); Page (2009:86); Middleton *et al.* (2009:80-87); Cooper (2012:274); Fletcher *et al.* (2013:41); Roberts-Lombard & Paramusur (2014:263) and

Page (2014:61) culture also influences tourist travel behaviour. Social factors have an influence on tourists' consumption behaviour. People generally purchase products which are in line with how they are perceived socially, how they view themselves in their societal surroundings and how they want to be perceived by other in a social arena. Above all, they prefer to be around people who they perceive as like themselves hence their behaviour is conditioned likewise (Moore *et al*. 2005 as cited in Uysal *et al*. 2012:141). Tourists may be motivated to seek social benefits such as social approval, social status, ego enhancement and many more (Uysal *et al*. 2012:141). These factors are discussed below.

- **Family and roles**

Holloway & Robinson (1995:66); Cooper *et al*. (2005:61); Weaver & Lawton (2006:175); Hudson (2008:56); Fletcher *et al*. (2013:48) and Kotler *et al. (*2017:183) all agree that the family and the roles each member play has an influence on the tourist purchasing behaviour. Reisinger (2009:297) emphasise the role of family as an influencer of behaviour of the members with spouses and children usually directly influencing one's behaviour than any other groups. Family members perform varying roles in life and in the purchasing situations. While some purchasing decisions may be split between husband and wife in a family, travel or holiday decision, schooling, housing and entertainment are made jointly (Reisinger 2009:298).

Roles played by individual people in families or society are determined by the external environment and do influence behaviour of these individuals as they reflect a social status given to an individual by society (Reisinger 2009:298). Role adoption also influences the tourist purchasing process and according to Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1990) as cited by Hudson (2008:56), there are five roles which can be assumed by different people within an organisation or household and some of the roles could be performed by two people conjointly. The roles identified include the initiator, influencer, decider, buyer, user (Hudson 2008:56). Family influence tourism decisions and it is regarded as a purchasing unit acting different decision-making roles as husband and wife, brothers and sisters and many others, which may supply the needs of perhaps two or more generations (Fletcher *et al*. 2013:48; Cooper *et al*. 2005:61). Family also induct the young ones to purchasing certain types of products which they will continue to like and buy, and they will also orient their own children (Fletcher *et al*. 2013:48). Family is also considered a reference group with an influence of purchasing behaviour of members and other families that want to emulate these families (Fletcher *et al*. 2013:48; Cooper *et al*. 2005:61; Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur 2014:286).

According to Holloway & Robinson (1995:66), in families where decisions must be made together rather than individually, there is need to know the participants in the decision and

their respective roles in the purchasing decision process. According to Holloway & Robinson (1995:66) women play a critical role regarding family holidays however where decisions are made jointly (husband and wife), parties involved may have different needs and objectives and as a result, marketers should tailor make messages to suit each of the parties involved. Wang *et al.* (2004) as cited in Weaver & Lawton (2006:175) discovered that husbands and wives were equally influential in making travel decisions (budgeting, length of stay determination, airline choices, and restaurants selection) and destination choices in South Korea. Wang *et al.* (2004) further conclude that wives however played a dominant role in scouting for information and in choosing accommodation properties to stay, travel agents to book with and types of shopping to participate in while in the destination. Weaver & Lawton (2006:175) and George (2019:238) also highlighted the importance of young children in the purchase decision-making process. They point out that though children usually do not have much say, but they strongly influence their parents to make decisions because of their special needs and wants especially during the trip. They may influence their parents to undertake a holiday to Disneyland during the summer holiday.

- **Social class**

Social class are groups of people in societal set ups where members have common values, interests, status or position hinged on aspects including but not limited to the type of income and how much they earn, source of livelihood, areas of residence, interests, opinions and lifestyle choices (Reisinger 2009:297) and these variables varies from nation to nation. Kotler *et al. (*2017:181) defines social class as "relatively permanent and order divisions in society whose members show similar values, interests and behaviour". Within one social class conduct of people tend to be the same but different across classes in terms of product brand preferences and included in this is travel patterns, recreational and leisure activities indulged in. George (2019:235) regards social class as an influence on tourist travel patterns and an aid to the identification of spending potential of the tourists. Social class is defined by Hudson (2008:47) as positions which people occupy in society as determined by how much they earn, their educational level, occupational type, family background, prestige, value of properties owned and neighbourhoods they live in. According to Holloway & Robinson (1995:60), Hudson (2008:41; 47); Page (2009:101); Reisinger (2009:280) and Page (2014:53; 61) social class is an important external factor that has an influence on tourists' consumption behaviour and this is related to occupation and level of income. The higher the social class, the better the employment and economic status, the higher the participation in tourism (Page 2009:101). Page (2014:66) however labels social class an awkward concept as it is determined by multiple variables such as power, money, prestige, culture and an individual's background. This remains an important segmentation variable along with gender and age (Page 2014:66).

- **Social status**

Social status of tourists also influences tourism behaviour as tourists purchase tourism products that are in line with their social status such as accommodation, destinations and other tourism services (Rizaoglu 2003 as cited in Uysal *et al.* 2012:138). Tourists according to Uysal *et al.* (2012:138) are likely to assess their experiences based on what they see and are offered by tourism organisations and destinations as well as what has been omitted in the service process/encounter.

According to Shaw & Williams (2002) as cited in Uysal *et al. (*2012:138) identifying and understanding socio-economic profiles of potential tourists are critical for designing marketing communication (advertising and publicity campaigns). Genς (2009) further asserts that this marketing communication will also be used by tourists who wish to consume tourism products of a higher social class (cited by Uysal *et al.* 2012:138). According to Rizaoḡlu (2003) as cited in Uysal *et al.* (2012:138), multiple groups may exist within the same social group possessing differing needs hence; marketers should be cognisant of this fact. Genς (2009) as cited in Uysal *et al.* (2012:138) concludes that even though social status influences consumption behaviour of tourists, it is not the ultimate determinant on its own as factors such as family size, number of people earning income may differ in the members of the social group.

- **Lifestyle**

Hudson (2008:41); Reisinger (2009:280/303); McCabe (2014:251); Roberts-Lombard & Paramasur (2014:264) and Page (2014:53) consider lifestyle a tourist personal factor that influence tourist travel behaviour. Reisinger (2009:303) and Kotler *et al. (*2017:186) define lifestyle as a person's specific pattern of activities, interest and opinion in areas such as work, politics and mainly leisure and recreation. Kotler & Armstrong (2015:178) defines lifestyle as the way in which people live, (a person's pattern of living) as envisaged in the activities, interests, opinion and services. Lifestyle dictates how people utilise their energy, time and monetary resources and influences places they go to, products they buy which should be in line with their lifestyle (Hudson 2008:50). According to George (2019:229), lifestyle informs marketers who the consumers are and why they buy the products or services thus revealing their hidden motivation and values such as showing off hidden behind security and safety in the choice of an expensive hotel. Some people may have a lifestyle of being outgoing, confident and travelling for social reasons while others may avoid travelling with people who know them and making new friends in destinations visited; therefore, they seek solitude and travel close to home. One category of tourists may adore tranquil, nature-related activities such as hiking, walking and bird watching while others pursue risk engagements such as bungee-jumping or mountain climbing, water rafting (Reisinger 2009:303). Risk is a very

important factor in tourists purchasing behaviour where low-risk tourists book holidays early via travel agents and may revisit destinations due as they feel safe and secure in tried and tested places unlike new destinations while high risk will book even closer to travelling, use unfamiliar transport services, indulge in new unfamiliar destinations and holiday (Page 2009:110).

- **Reference groups and opinion leaders**

Reference groups also influence consumer behaviour as certain groups set tone of how members and aspiring members should behave morally in society. Hudson (2008:52) and Kotler *et al. (*2017:181) define reference groups as groups of people in society with a direct or indirect effect on a person's attitude or conduct. George (2019:236/7) defines reference groups as people we consider to be our equals for example friends, family, music and tv personalities, social club, workmates, social network, and other social groups. These groups do influence what individuals buy; holidays included. Holloway & Robinson (1995:59) state that peer groups considerably influence buying decisions of individuals with these groups as there is a strong tendency for individuals to conform to the norms and values of the groups. Peer groups including closely associated group of people such as fellow students, workmates, friends and relatives, close neighbours (Holloway & Robinson 1995:59). According to Holloway & Robinson (1995:59), reference groups exercise strong influences on aggregate patterns of consumer demand. People may choose to want to be associated with some groups either because they simply admire them, or they want to emulate their lifestyle. There are also other groups that people do not want to associate with and this as well influence consumer purchasing behaviour as buying any product or destination associated with such groups is undesirable (Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur 2014:108).

According to Kotler *et al.* (2017:181) reference groups influence consumers in three ways which are:
- Expose the person to new behaviours and lifestyle
- Influence the person's attitudes and self-concept
- Creates pressure to conform that may affect the person's product, brand and vender choices.

Product endorsement by members of the reference groups (for example film stars and sports personalities) featuring in an advert can lead to huge increase in sales of that product as people want to be associated with that personality (George 2019:236/7). Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:110) however argue that for this to work there must be a strategic fit in terms of association between the personality chosen and the product being advertised.

According to Reisinger (2009:297) social influence can either be interpersonal or intrapersonal where the former (interpersonal) refers to groups which people are affiliated to or would like to belong to such as family, friends, interest groups and many more while the latter (intrapersonal) stimuli are the needs internal to a person and drive an individual's conduct. Reisinger (2009:297); Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014: 264) highlighted 3 classes of reference groups with an influence on consumer purchasing behaviour as groups one belongs to already, groups that a person would desire to affiliate to (aspirational groups) and lastly groups one would not like to belong to or associate with (dissociative groups). According to Reisinger (2009:297), aspirational groups exert pressure on individuals to conform to the group norms hence attitude and self-image is influenced.

Related to reference groups is enhancement of social images. Sirgy & Su (2000) as cited in Uysal *et al.* 2012:141) further state that the motive for social consistency focuses on how individuals are viewed by others in the social context hence consumes products in sync with it. Social approval motives also lead to indulging in holidays acceptable to the reference groups they belong to. According to Schiffman & Kanuk (2004) if tourists of a certain social class are known to always be buying certain products say upper middle class staying in five-star luxurious establishments, this type of product will act as a reference point for all people within this socio-economic class when purchasing accommodation in a destination (cited by Uysal *et al.* 2012:141).

- **Culture**

Schiffman & Kanuk (2014:436) as cited by George (2019:234) defines culture "as the sum total of learnt beliefs, values and customs that serve to direct the consumer behaviour of members of a particular society". Most people according Hudson's (2008:46) assertion strive to satiate their needs though societally approved means thus culture impacts on tourists' behaviour both before and during tourism consumption experience (Uysal *et al.* 2012:142; Bennet *et al.* 2012:70; Kotler *et al.* 2017:178). Affected by cultural values and norms is tourists' analysis of the tourism experience especially where tourists who considers their culture as superior to others and who are less open to other cultures are most likely to experience lower levels of need gratification (Uysal *et al.* 2012:142). Some tourists enjoy being on their own and peace (solitude). Individualistic and collectivistic cultures may influence tourist consumption behaviour (Uysal *et al.* 2012:142).

According to Reisinger (2009:293), cultural factors with an influence on tourist behaviour include language, values, religion, beliefs, customs, traditions and family relationships and

these dictates what food tourists eat, their dressing, recreational activities, sources of credible information, holiday product evaluation criteria and many more hence it defines people's needs. Different groups of customers vary in values owing to experiences and situations encountered hence different product preferences and expectations, spending behaviour and reactions to product promotions, holidays included of course (Reisinger 2009:293). According to George (2019:234) culture determines which motives and behaviour patterns are socially acceptable and which are not. George (2019:235) further state that some cultures sees holidaying as rights and necessity for reliving stress while other sees it as a luxury or a product only for the affluent.

2.4.3.5 Psychological factors

Several authors such as Fluker & Richardson (2004:67); Cooper *et al.* (2005:52); Hudson (2008:43); Middleton *et al.* (2009:80-87); Page (2009:86); Reisinger (2009:280); Cooper (2012:274); Fletcher *et al.* (2013:40/1); Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:264) and George (2019:231) concur that psychological factors have an influence on tourist travel behaviour. These variables include tourist motivation, personality, learning, perception, attitude, beliefs and images. Psychological variables are included under tourist/buyer factors by Reisinger (2009:290) rather than environmental stimuli while Roberts-Lombard & Parumasur (2014:264) places them under internal influences. These factors are discussed below.

- **Motivation**

Motivation just like other factors is a step in the formation of expectations which provides satisfaction from tourism experience (Uysal *et al.* 2012:142) and thus influence tourist behaviour (Cooper *et al.* 2005:52; Cooper 2012:274; George 2019:232). Expectations of a tourist influence choice processes and perception of experiences hence they form the basis for tourist satisfaction (Gnoth 1997 as cited in Uysal *et al.* 2012:142). Del Bosque *et al.* (2009) as cited in Uysal *et al.* (2012:142) postulate that factors which influence tourist expectations dwell within (are intrinsic) the experiences of the individual and the respective image of the destination. Isa-Ahola's (1980) intrinsic motivation theory of tourists' behaviour holds that the main motivation for travelling and participating in certain activities emanates from internal leisure needs of an individual which is shaped by social and other conditional factors (Uysal *et al.* 2012:142). Motivation will be discussed in depth later under the heading *travel motivations* as this is the starting point of all tourist travel behaviour.

- **Learning**

Learning influences the manner in which people behave; hence they make choices based on information learnt from the environment (Reisinger 2009:305; Cooper 2012:274; Fletcher *et al*. 2013:41; Kotler *et al*. 2017:190). According to Cooper *et al*. (2005:52); Hudson (2008:43); Bennet *et al*. (2012:73) and George (2019:231) learning also influences tourism purchasing behaviour as people acquire experience through travelling, by listening to others who have partaken in travel and from a variety of other sources; thus building up a portfolio of memories and expectations about places (a catalogue of good and bad travel experiences) which will then be recalled when selecting holidays and destinations in the future (Hudson 2008:43; George 2019:231). According to Reisinger (2009:305), learning arises from exposure to stimuli, observation, active participation, socialisation, responses and reinforcement.

- **Attitudes**

Pike (2018:41) as cited in George (2019:231) defines attitude as an evaluation of an object or a level of liking of an object; hence attitude puts people into a frame of mind for liking or disliking something such as tourist destination. Attitudes according to Cooper (2012:274); Bennet *et al*. (2012:73) and Fletcher *et al*. (2013:41) once attained are difficult to change and they do have an influence on tourists' purchasing behaviour. Through experiential learning, people develop attitudes which may be positive or negative, which will always influence future purchasing decisions; thus, marketers aim to influence people's attitudes towards their products (Hudson 2008:44). Negative experience with the destination or hotel results in negative attitude towards the product; therefore, future recommendations to friends and relatives are influenced. According to George (2019:231), tourists may project a negative attitude towards polluted, overcrowded, unfriendly and inhospitable, environmentally insensitive destinations and may thus not revisit such destinations or give positive reviews. Attitudes towards certain products, destinations and services influence purchase of these products, as well as perception of the product's benefits. Attitudes therefore predict people's behaviour (Cooper *et al.* 2005:52; Reisinger 2009:305).

- **Perception**

Perceptions do influence consumer-purchasing decisions (Cooper *et al.* 2005:52; Hudson 2008:44; Cooper 2012:274; Bennet *et al*. 2012:73; Kotler *et al*. 2017:187). Perceptions involve the interpretation of information obtained from the environment by individuals and have a major influence on attitude and behaviour towards tourist products (Fletcher *et al*. 2013:40). Perception is shaped by what people hear or what they have experienced personally, and it influences people's purchasing behaviour. George (2019:231) regards perception as a

function of motivation, learning and attitude (is especially related to previous travel experience). Perception varies and changes over time with experience and age and it can be influenced by adverts and marketing communication by destination and marketing companies (George 2019:231). Related to perception is destination image. The perception tourists have of a tourist destination influence whether or not they will visit that particular destination. Destination image will be discussed later under the heading *destination characteristics*.

- **Beliefs**

Reisinger (2009:305) and Kotler *et al. (*2017:190) describe beliefs as thoughts people hold about certain things based on knowledge gained, faith or opinions and those reinforced images then influence behaviour. Pike (2018:40) as cited in George (2019:42) defines beliefs as information held about brands, firms, products, services and destination. These beliefs may be positive or negative; hence they influence tourism purchasing behaviour as tourists will always have beliefs (thoughts) about tourism products and destinations – especially safety and security concerns or confidence in the destination (Hudson 2008:43; George 2019:42). Tourists who had a negative tourism experience during a previous visit to a destination will hold a belief that the destination is not a good one and this belief will certainly be cascaded down even to the next generation, and the opposite is also true.

- **Personality**

Kotler *et al.* (2017:186) define personality as an individual's distinguishing psychological characteristics that lead to relatively consistent and lasting responses to his or her environment. Pike (2018:42) as referenced in George (2019:229) and Kotler *et al.* (2017:186) state that personality influences the travel and tourism behaviour of an individual, for example adventurous or cautious, sociable or loner, confident or shy. This personality influences the type of holiday products bought, for example backpacker hostel for socialisation of the youth and like-minded tourists. Tourists with different personalities behave differently as they have varying needs (Pearce 2005; Middleton *et al*. 2009:80-87; Reisinger 2009:303; Cooper 2012:274; Fletcher *et al.* 2013:41; Cook *et al.* 2014:33; McCabe 2014:252). People can be regarded as either extrovert; that is "high-activation and high energy" or introverts; that is "low-activation or low energy" (Fiske and Maddi 1961 as cited in Reisinger 2009:304). The extremist engages in a variety of activities and seeks more choices while introverts seek comfort, familiarity and fewer choices (Reisinger 2009:304). Since tourists have different personalities, several authors have tried to segment tourists into groups according to personality traits to enable effective targeting and servicing of their respective needs. These groups have resulted in what is termed "tourist typologies" which influence tourist travel behaviours regarding destinations they visit, accommodation facilities they prefer staying at in the destinations,

transport companies they travel with, whether they travel as groups or individuals, their level of interaction with the local communities and many more. Page (2014:61) argues that the purpose of the holiday (travel motivations) and tourist typologies may influence tourists' purchase behaviour (destination choice). George (2019:225) agrees with Page (2014:61) that tourist typologies are a major component to tourist travel behaviour as they influence the travellers' respective behaviours as indicated above.

Cook *et al.* (2014:40) postulate that personality factors enable marketers to understand tourists better based on behavioural patterns of tourists observed over time. Plog's psychocentric-allocentric model is yet another attempt to comprehend and describe how wants and needs of tourists vary (Cook *et al.* 2014:40). According to Plog (1974, 1991, 1998) as cited in Fletcher *et al.* (2013:44); Goeldner & Ritchie (2009:261); Hudson (2008:53); Weaver and Lawson (2006:185-86); Lubbe (2003:38); Page (2014:58) and Cook *et al.* (2014:40) travellers can be classified along a spectrum of personal characteristics with allocentrics (venturers) or psychocentrics (dependables) at the extreme ends where allocentrics prefer exotic destinations, vacations that are not structured instead of organised vacations with more interaction with cultures of the hosts, while psychocentrics prefer usual destinations, travel agent organised holidays and "touristy" areas.

Allocentrics according to Fletcher *et al.* (2013:44) aim to discover new destinations and they rarely revisit the destination; hence their label "wanderers". According to Fletcher *et al.* (2013:44) allocentrics "prefer destinations at the frontier of tourism, unspoilt and undiscovered by the travel trade while psychocentrics desire comfort of well-developed and safe destinations". According to Cook *et al.* (2014:40) allocentrics would be referred to by marketers as "innovators" as they seek destinations and activities that are undiscovered by others but as soon as more people become aware of these destinations and activities (early adopters, early majorities, late majorities, and laggards) they move to other places and participate in new activities all together; thus according to the tourist area life cycle. According to Cook *et al.* (2014:41) "dependables" are mostly tradition-bound and tend not to visit new locations and participate in different activities; hence their interest is in customary activities and popular destinations. They desire predictability and comforting reassurance that other tourists have enjoyed the same experiences (Cook *et al.* 2014:41). According to Page (2014:58) allocentrics are above the average income groups, cultural explorers prefer travelling independently and they seek adventure experiences.

Fletcher *et al.* (2013:44) regard psychocentrics as "conservative in travel patterns, preferring safe destinations and often taking many trips" hence their label "repeatism". Page (2014:58)

regards psychocentrics as unsure, insecure about travel; hence their frequenting of familiar environments. Plog (1974) as referenced to in Fletcher *et al.* (2013:44) placed lower income tourists as most likely to be psychocentrics while the upper class are mostly allocentric. According to Cook *et al.* (2014:40) in between the Ventures and the Dependables, there are further classes, namely Near-venturers, Near-dependables and Mid-centrics though the majority are mid-centrics" (Plog 1974 as cited in Fletcher *et al.* 2013:44; Page 2014:59). According to Page (2014:59) mid-centrics travel to known destinations but lack exploration and adventure spirit and they travel to destinations previously discovered and popularised by allocentrics. Fletcher *et al.* (2013:44) and Hudson (2008:53) dispute the usefulness of Plog's (1974), theory arguing that it is hard to use as tourists may travel for different motives at different times. Tourists take several holidays mainly annual and several short breaks and according to Fletcher (2013:45), the main summer holiday might fall into an allocentric category while the several short vacations may be to close and familiar destinations; they fall within the psycho-centric group.

George (2019:231) however argues that though personality influences the type of holiday purchased, at times people of a certain personality may end up taking a holiday contrary to their personality to try to change their personality profile, for example introverts might take adventure holidays to meet new people, and the opposite may be true.

- **Self-concept/Self-image**

Associated with personality is self-image or self-concept, that is how people see themselves and that they are identified by what they own or have (George 2019:230). Self-image affects how people see themselves and the product offerings they purchase to improve their self-image, holidays included (Reisinger 2009:304). Uysal *et al.* (2012:139) highlights the self-concept/image and identity consolidation as the main psychological characteristics which influence tourism consumption behaviour. When tourists choose holiday destinations, they also choose a social setting in which tourism consumption will occur (Uysal *et al.* 2012:139). Self-image/evaluation influences selection of a destination and makes the tourists part of the social interaction. Beerli *et al.* (2007), lists four aspects of identity that influence consumer behaviour, namely the actual self (how one sees self), the ideal self (how one desires to be), how one is seen by others, and how one wants to be seen by others, and all these influence consumption behaviours. Ahuvia (2005) as cited in Uysal *et al.* (2012:139) highlights two important functions of the self-inherent in consumed services including tourism. The first function is that an individual must express the self while the second one is that it has to be transformed into a more idealised form. In line with the above, it is therefore prevalent to note that the consumers purchase tourism products which are congruent with their self-concept at

the same time expressing to attain their ideal/desired self-image through the destinations they go to, tourism products and services they buy (Beerli *et al.* 2007) hence urge to match the two (Sirgy & Su 2000 as cited by Uysal *et al.* 2012:139). Litvin & Goh (2003) as cited in Uysal *et al.* (2012:139) in their cross-cultural sample found a link between the image of the destination and self-image which in turn was positively correlated with visitor satisfaction. Litvin & Goh (2003) also supported that people from individualistic societies reported more satisfaction with their holiday if the image of the destination country is individualistic in nature thus showing culture's influence on self-image.

How one sees oneself determines the tourism activities and destinations chosen such as the postmodern tourists who seek new places/experiences and shuns travel agents and old places/experiences (Lopez-Bonilla 2009) and wildlife experience seekers (Curtin 2010) as cited in Uysal *et al.* (2012:140). The activities people partake in, places they visit, the people they spend their time with and their possessions help them to define their selves as individuals (Belk 1988) and people consolidate who they are through their conduct hence consumption is thought of as a form of verification of their identity (Litvin & Goh 2002 as cited by Uysal *et al*. 2012:140). McCabe & Stokoe (2004) as cited in Uysal *et al*. (2012:140) in their interview with tourists in UK parks discovered that tourists sought authenticity (real, genuine experience). Consumption behaviour therefore means something more than just satisfaction of needs but a form of self-expression and contribution to creation and validation of the self-image. Also, by purchasing products and services with similar consumer profile to consumers themselves such as environmentally green products and environmentally sensitive tourists, tourists create own identities, reinforce who they are and reduce what Sirgy & Su (2000) call "psychological discordance" (Uysal *et al*. 2012:141).

2.4.3.6 Technological factors

Technological advancement always influences tourist purchasing behaviour. Internet has made consumers to have access to wide information before settling for the final purchase and obtain information on various product aspects such as price, special rates and purchase conditions, as well as price comparisons by suppliers (Reisinger 2009:300). Technology plays a role during information search and evaluation and even holiday experience sharing with the coming of social media. People can purchase products online in the comfort of their homes if they have access to internet for example airline tickets, accommodation), in fact they can create their own dream holidays through online platforms such as Trivago and many more. Smart phones and in fact social media enable experiences to be shared and hence purchasing behaviour is influenced (Reisinger 2009:300). Tourists now have an opportunity to even buy

souvenirs online after the trip back home in the comfort of their homes due to improvement in technology.

2.4.3.7 Destination characteristics

Schmoll (1977) in his model of tourists' decision-making as cited in Fletcher *et al.* (2013:54) allude to destination characteristics that influence tourist travel behaviour as they pull tourists to the destination and these include endowment of attractions, accessibility, quality amenities and ancillary services. Destination activities, attractions, destination setting, facilities, services, hosts, other tourists, destination marketing and management influences tourists' decisions as they create destination image which will in turn influence tourists' choices to travel (Pearce 2005 as cited by Page 2009:86). According to Ryan (1997) as outlined in Page (2014:53) destination-related characteristics such as quality of lodging facilities and tourists' attractions of any kind may magnetically draw tourists toward the destination hence their purchasing behaviour is influenced.

Reisinger (2009:298) regards destination characteristics as geographical factors which influence tourists' purchasing behaviour and these are "natural resources such as water, forests, beaches, wildlife, coral reefs, clean air, vegetation and land use". Differences in geographical features and surroundings between tourists generating regions and destination regions entice (pull) tourists to want to travel to those respective destinations (climate and other geographic related attraction) (Reisinger 2009:298).

According to Tuan (2011) prices of tourism products within the destination, accommodation quality and tourists' safety and security are the most important factors to be considered when booking holidays. Tuan (2011), further states that research conclude "that consumers would change their destination choice as a result of bad press about health (dirty beaches) or safety issues, but not for lack of environmental or social responsibility on the part of the supply". Destination attributes encompasses so many characteristics within a tourist destination that lures tourists to visit. Tourist destinations are products which are created to appeal to target tourist market needs hence they should live to the expectations of the market. When destination developers develop destinations, they should look at it from a total product's point of view as this is what tourists will be expecting. Failure to do so will result in a destination product which is uncompetitive and will always be side-lined when tourists make decisions to travel.

- **Destination image**

Though destination image may be a psychological component as it is intangible and attained through perception and the actual tourist experience, for this study it will be discussed under destination characteristics. Image of destination influences destination choices immensely and the larger the gap between the perceived image and reality (expectations versus satisfaction), the more likely the tourists will be disappointed with their travel experience, hence information disseminated to tourists should not deviate from reality (Mathieson & Wall 2006:43).Tourist consumption behaviour is greatly affected by destination image and according to Cooper (2012:274), this factor is important as it influences both the tourists' perception of the destination place and their choice of travelling or not. According to Cooper *et al.* (2005:62) destination image influences behaviour and attitude of both individual and group tourists. Sussmann & Unel (1999:223) as cited by George (2014:521) define tourist destination image as "the result of a person's beliefs, ideas, feelings, expectations or impressions about a tourist destination". It is a visual or mental picture that an individual has of a destination place and this image is one of the factors considered when prospective visitors are choosing a holiday destination (George 2014:521). UNWTO as cited in Fletcher *et al. (*2013:51) defines image as "the artificial imitation of the apparent form of an object or item, a form resemblance, identity and ideas, conceptions held individually or collectively of the destination". Furthermore, UNWTO as cited by Fletcher *et al.* (2013:51) state that destination image should be presented as transformation of an existing image rather than destination creation out of nothing.

Two factors that make the image especially important for tourist decision-making are the intangibility and the inseparability nature of the tourism product. Inseparability means that the image is the only proof present that visitors have of the destination before they visit (Cooper 2012:274). The fact that production and consumption of tourism product is simultaneous connotes that once the tourist visits the destination, their image of the destination is immediately changed by experience (Cooper 2012:274). Destination image can be formed from information acquired from environmental sources such as marketing communication; organic sources such as personal experience which is the most believed and trusted information source by tourists and autonomous sources which includes media or popular culture). Autonomous sources are regarded powerful as they can in no time change a tourists' image of a destination (Cooper 2012:274).

According to Page (2009:108), tourists consider destination image when selecting places to go on holiday from their consideration set. Basing on knowledge gained, the mental images obtained from media and opinions of individual(s) and group members in person or on social media reviews, consumers look at destination options available, evaluate them and reconsider

specific places thus making decisions to travel time consuming and sophisticated (Page 2009:108). Fletcher *et al.* (2013:48) postulate that "cognitive evaluation of experiences, learning, and emotions" forms an individual's image and this image influences that individual's preferences, behaviour and motivation towards tourist products and destinations as it has a magnetic effect.

Echtner & Ritchie (1991) as cited by Fletcher *et al.* (2013:51) assert that destination images should be considered as both individual attributes that makes a destination (climate, friendliness of the hosts, accommodation facilities and many more) and as whole (mental impressions of the entire destination). Fletcher *et al.* (2013:52) and Cooper *et al.* (2005:63) identified four stages involved in the development of a holiday image. The first image is created by marketing communication such as advertising, education, word of mouth before the tourists' even think about taking a holiday and is in a vague format or a fantasy. Holiday image is developed further when the trip decision has been made where decisions of when, where and what type of holiday to engage in are made. It is here that the image is restructured, upon completion of the holiday plans and according to Fletcher *et al.* (2013:52) and Cooper *et al.* (2005:63) the expected/anticipated image is established. The third stage involves the holiday experience itself, which realigns or eliminate components of the image that prove to be out of line with reality and consolidate the relevant ones (Cooper *et al.* 2005:63). According to Fletcher *et al.* (2013:52) aspects of the image created during anticipation which do not conform to the actual image will be adjusted accordingly upon actual trip experience.

The fourth stage is characterised by the after image (formed during the recollection stage). The tourists may experience "feelings of nostalgia, regret or fantasy" after returning home and the image created will in turn develop attitude towards that destination thus future holiday decisions will be informed (Fletcher *et al.* 2013:52; Cooper *et al.* 2005:64)).

- **Marketing communication**

March and Woodside (2005:67), Page (2009:108), Kotler *et al.* (2003) as referenced by Cooper (2012:274) and Page (2014:42:43) agree that tourists are stimulated to travel by the marketing input (information supplied to them by tourism companies and destination marketers). This communication is meant to entice the tourists or to make them realise their need to take a holiday. Mathieson & Wall (1982) as referenced by Cooper *et al.* (2005:69) labels the marketing input as travel awareness while Schmoll calls this travel stimulus. Reisinger (2009:289) regards this marketing stimulus as one of the environmental factors with an influence on tourist travel behaviour.

From the above discussions of the tourist decision-making models one can pick that tourists' first decision is whether or not to travel and this is explained by travel motivation and the factors that influence it. Once tourists decide to undertake travelling, one of the second set of decisions is that regarding which to travel to (destination/s). The decision of where to travel is mostly influenced by a match between the travel motives (push factors) and the destination characteristics (pull factors). The destination that best addresses the traveller's travel motives (needs) stand a highest chance of being selected, considering other factors such as time and monetary budget. An in-depth review of why people travel is therefore critical in view of gaining an overall comprehension of the tourist decision-making process. Travel motivations are therefore discussed below and towards the end, travel motivations to South Africa will be outlined.

2.5   UNDERSTANDING TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

Soldatenko & Backer (2019:122) regards motivation as a fundamental determinant of tourist behaviour which plays an important role in tourism. They further assert that awareness of motivational differences among tourists from main tourist source markets is a foundational requirement for effective and successful destination marketing programs. Travel motivation is considered the first step in the tourist decision-making process. What motivates people to want to travel has been widely researched and various theories have been modelled to explain travel motivations. Pearce & Lee (2005) as cited in Cooper (2012:276) labelled motivation as a driving force behind tourism and a starting point on trying to comprehend tourism demand and behaviour. Motivation is the inward drive within an individual that propels and influences a trip and is regarded by Fletcher *et al.* (2013:42) as the beginning point of consumer behaviour. Fluker & Richardson (2004:67) regard motivation as a critical variable as it drives all kinds of consumer behaviour. Motivation according to Page (2014:53) is a crucial component of consumer behaviour in tourism as it evokes a chain of events in the tourism decision-making process.

Keyser (2009:267) and Fletcher *et al.* (2013:41) state that some tourists travel because of the "energisers of demand" which are motivational forces that cause a tourist to travel for holiday. According to Keyser (2009:267) and Fletcher *et al.* (2013:41), even though motivation may exist, demand may be affected due to factors which may be of economic, sociological or psychological nature; thus, causing people not to travel. Keyser (2009:267) explains that to understand tourists' motivation one has to see travel as a gratifier of people's needs and wants; thus he defines travel motivators as "factors intrinsic to an individual, expressed as needs, wants, and desires, which lead some people to place a much higher value on leisure and travel than others and influence the type of destinations and tourism experiences they

choose". Bhatia (2009:48) describes travel motivations as those factors that cause a person to desire to travel, and these internal psychological influences affect individual choices.

Keyser (2009:267) highlights the difference between travel motivation and the purpose of travel. He describes travel motivation as the unconscious reason for acting in a certain way, whereas travel purpose is the conscious reason. According to Pike (2018:44) as cited in George (2019:232) the reason for travelling should not be confused with the motivation for travel, for example VFR is not motivation to travel but the need for socialisation with family members or friends. According to Bhatia (2009:45) tourists may travel for various reasons but not all reasons given by tourists may be motivation. Reasons supplied that have to do with destination facilities and amenities though important in attracting tourists, are not in actual sense motivation (Bhatia 2009:45); therefore, agreeing with Hertzberg's two factor theory of motivation. If hygiene factors are not found, they will result in dissatisfaction on the side of the tourists which, however, may influence future decisions to visit the same destination. Krippendorf (1987) as cited in Hudson (2008:43) postulates that travel is induced by "going away from" instead of "going towards" a destination and that the travel behaviour of tourists and their respective travel motivations emanate from within individuals (a point supported by Bhatia (2009:45). According to Bhatia (2009:46) the study of the interrelationship between the driving force to action and the object or condition towards which that driving force is directed is the study of the dynamics of tourists' behaviour or motivation.

Swarbrooke & Horner (2006) as cited in Keyser (2009:269) labels travel motivations complex, as people may have more than one motivator to be satiated by engaging in travel while others often do not express their true motivations. Furthermore, people are not only influenced by their own motivators, but also for their travel company and lastly people's motivations may change from trip to trip. Pike (2018:44) as cited in George (2019:232) argues that tourism motivation is not clearly understood, as tourists have difficulties in recalling and articulating what motivated their recognition of the need to travel.

Fletcher *et al*. (2013:42) notes that understanding motivation provides an insight into comprehension of tourists' behaviour through addressing the reason why people travel. Understanding travel motivation provides insights into tourism planning, development and marketing (Bennet *et al*. 2012:69). Understanding why people engage in travelling, as highlighted by Fluker & Richardson (2004:66), can help marketers to create attractive marketing messages about tourists' destinations and tourism offerings in a way that will meet the needs of target markets. This also helps tourism destination planners and tourism businesses in developing products that will appeal to the respective target market. Page

(2009:83) regards motivation as a "highly individualised element of human behaviour which affects and conditions how people react and behave as well as their attributes to tourism as something they consume". Understanding tourists' motivations to visit destinations assists destination developers and marketers in planning for a more memorable and enjoyable visitor experience (Page 2009:83).

2.5.1   Motivators for travel

What motivates people to travel has long been researched and it has been concluded that people travel for various reasons, as evidenced by many researchers as discussed below. Crompton (1979) empirically concluded that tourists are motivated to travel by "socio-psychological and cultural motives". The seven socio-psychological motives as listed by Crompton (1979) are "escape from perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression (doing things one is unable to do in a person's usual lifestyle), enhancement of kinship relationships, facilitation of social interaction (meeting new people in different location)". Novelty and education were regarded as cultural motives by Crompton (1979). Crompton's (1979) model can be equated to Dann (1977) in that socio-psychological motives equal push factors while cultural motives are equivalent to pull factors (Morrison 2013:404).

McIntosh, Goeldner & Ritchie (1995) assert that tourists are motivated to travel by physical, cultural, interpersonal, status and prestige motives. Physical motivation according to McIntosh *et al.* (1995) includes travelling for purpose of refreshment, health, sport and pleasure and the aim is to reduce tension as supported by Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (also to be discussed later). Cultural motivations on the other hand entail the desire to see and learn more about other people's cultural way of life, which is their music, art, folklore and the way they dance. Interpersonal motivations have something to do with the desire to meet and interact with new people, visit friends and relatives, to seek new and different experiences, which are escape from routine and spiritual enhancement while status and prestige motivation deals with the desire to continue with education, develop oneself, enhance one's ego and indulge one's senses. Status and prestige motivation are also related to pursuit of hobbies and education (the desire to be recognised and seek attention from others to boost one's esteem needs). Discovery and curiosity were also found to be motives for travellers by authors such as Paul Thoreaux, Jan Morris and Eric Newby as cited in McIntosh *et al.* (1995:169). McIntosh *et al.* (1995:175) explain tourist destinations as being settings where visitors are exposed to multiple and diverse holiday experiences. Travellers' motives according to McIntosh *et al.* (1995:176) influence what tourists look for in a destination and different destinations do not offer similar holiday experiences; - hence they visit places where they select activities and holiday

experiences among those offered to suit their personal psychological and motivational profile. This agrees with Dann's "push and pull factors" interaction.

Middleton & Clarke (2001:72) assert that people mainly travel for business (conferences, meetings, exhibitions), physiological reasons (health, fitness, relaxation, recuperation, escape from stress, warmth, sunshine), cultural reasons (festivals, theatre, music, museums, courses, cultural and natural heritage), interpersonal and ethnic reasons (VFR, social events, visiting places of birth and exploring historical roots), entertainment or pleasure and lastly for religious reasons. Middleton & Clark (2001:74) classify tourists in accordance with their attitude types, namely those driven by sustenance (fear for future and needs for security), outer-directed groups and inner-directed groups. According to Middleton & Clark (2001:74) outer-directed groups have money and confidence to overcome their finance insecurities and can choose from a range of tourism products without restrictions according to their perception of quality of life. Furthermore, they are materialistic, ambitious and acquisitive in outlook and purchase tourism products based on their self-concept and the expected effect on others. This provides them with a sense of achievement and belonging and they are motivated by fashion.

Inner-directed groups according to Middleton & Clark (2001:74) are mostly educated, self-confident, mature in terms of personality and tolerance and can live easily with themselves and their social contacts. This group of tourists seek information and desire control over the quality of their lives and their environment, intent on achieving the goals they themselves have set. They are motivated by aesthetics, culture, and creativity (Middleton & Clark 2001:74). Seth (2008:10) features education and culture, relaxation and pleasure as well as ethnicity as motivations for people to travel. People may travel to experience how other people live their lives, to sightsee, as well as to attend special events/festivals or cultural happenings (Seth 2008:9). Relaxation and pleasure entails getting away from routine life (enjoying being away from home) and having a romantic experience. This is meant to recuperate individuals for the next phase of life. Ethnic motivation involves visiting places of family origin or where friends once lived (Seth 2008:10).

According to Bhatia (2009:48) people may travel for pleasure (to have fun, excitement and a good time, getting away from routine of everyday life); relaxation, rest and recreation; health reasons (fresh air, sunshine, spas and sanatoria's); sports (soft and hard as well as either as participants or spectators); curiosity and culture (historical, cultural, art festivals, music and food festivals, theatre); ethnic and family/ interpersonal (VFR, meeting new people and seeking new relationships); spiritual and religious reasons (pilgrimages to Jerusalem, Mecca and many others); status and prestige (impressing friends, fashionable and to show

affordability, especially foreign trips) and lastly professional or business (conventions, conferences (Bhatia 2009:49-53; Goeldner & Ritchie 2009:251). According to Bhatia (2009:52) tourists may also mix business and leisure where either one or the other could be the main reason for travel.

Bhatia (2009:52) also classifies travel motivation as destination related and non-destination-related where the former allows tourists to select destination and activities and attraction to visit while the latter is not directly related to a destination but the cause of travelling such as business, education, VFR, health and pilgrimage. Bhatia (2009:54) notes that examination of motivations leads to the identification of two different groups of travellers, namely business travellers and common interest travellers (including VFR) and leisure tourists. Leisure tourists have the autonomy to choose to partake in tourism during their leisure time and decide where to go – an opportunity that the business and common interest groups do not have (Bhatia 2009:54; Morrison 2013:402). Morrison (2013:402), however, delineates that business travellers are motivated to travel by organisational needs and priorities while leisure travellers are moved by personal needs and wants. Business and common interest groups of tourists have a very limited (if at all) control over whether or not they should travel, when and where to go, how much to spend; hence their demand for travel is price and distance inelastic. The demand for leisure tourists to travel, on the other hand, may be price and distance sensitive (Bhatia 2009:54). Bhatia (2009:54) postulates that travel motivations for business travellers and common interest travellers are clear, unlike for pleasure tourists who are varied and not always clear.

Cooper (2012:275) asserts that the traditional approach to motivation outlines that travellers are motivated to travel by physical motives (recreation and refreshment of body and spirit by engaging in physical activity such as sea, sun and sand), cultural motives (curiosity to see new places, understanding foreign cultures and gastronomy), interpersonal motives(meeting new people, VFR, escaping from people interacted with on daily basis), status and prestige motives (recognition through travel). According to Bennet *et al.* (2012:81) people travel for more than one reason and these reasons can be for: physical activities (refreshment of body, mind and soul), cultural interests (festivals, theatre, music, museum, personal interest such as intellectual, craft, culture and natural heritage), social/interpersonal interests (interaction with others, desire to make new friends, to meet business associates at conferences, VFR, escape from everyday routine or make new friends), status and prestige (personal development and ego needs, the desire for recognition, attention, appreciation, knowledge and good reputation), romance and relaxation, entertainment, business and work interests.

Dann (1981) as cited in Fletcher *et al.* (2013:43) identified seven elements within the overall approach to motivation. The first approach views tourism as a "response to what is lacking yet desired"; thus, tourists are motivated to experience the unusual phenomenon rather than the one available home. The second approach according to Dann (1981) is "destination pull in response to motivation push" and this well-known theory of travel motivation will be discussed separately under its own heading later. The third approach regards motivation as a "fantasy" considering tourists travelling to partake in behaviour that may not be acceptable culturally in their home setting: free-er and liberal). Fletcher *et al.* (2013:43) maintains that motivation is also viewed as a "classified purpose" that is the main purpose of the trip as a motivator for travel (pleasure, novelty, VFR, leisure, study, health reasons). The fifth element within the overall travel motivation approaches is the motivational typologies (Fletcher *et al.* 2013:43) which are shaped by individual tourists' personalities.

The sixth element within the overall approach to motivation according to Dann (1981) is "motivation and tourist experiences". This approach hinges on interpretation of tourist behaviour such as how tourists search for authentic tourism products. Authenticity as a travel motivation will also be discussed later under its own heading. The final element of motivation focuses on how tourists interact with and draw conclusions regarding the host communities. The way in which tourists define their situation provides a greater comprehension of tourist motivation to travel than simply observing their conduct (Fletcher *et al.* 2013:43).

2.5.2   Analysis of well-known travel motivation theories

- **Push and pull motivational factors: Dann 1977**

Dann's (1977) push and pull theory is labelled one of the most widely used and accepted specific explanations to tourist motivation to travel (Fluker & Richardson 2004:67; Morrison 2013:403).The push and pull motivations theory holds that travellers are pushed (motivated) to travel by own internal personality characteristics or individual needs and wants and at the same time they are pulled (motivated) to travel by attractive qualities of tourist destinations (Cook *et al.* 2014:36/7). Tourists match destination attributes (pull) and what is pushing them to leave their usual environments, and the destination that best satisfy their need for escape is most likely to be chosen (Cook *et al.* 2014:37).

According to Morrison (2013:403), push factors (internal drives) stir up an individual to want to travel and the pull factors enable or direct specific destination selections; hence the two-work hand-in-glove. Lee *et al.* (2002) as cited in Morrison (2013:403) and Hudson (2008:43) proposed that push factors dictate whether or not one is to travel while pull factors guide where

to go on holiday. Fluker & Richardson (2004:67) explain that push factors dominate the decision to travel but are vague about places to visit. Pull factors (destination's positive image, safety, attractions, and climate) on the other hand draw tourists towards a tourist destination. According to Cook *et al.* (2014:36) push motivations usefully explain the desire to travel while pull motivations explain the actual choice of destination to visit. Forms of tourism according to Fluker & Richardson (2004:67) are among pull factors (destination offerings to tourists) luring tourists to travel to specific destinations.

Klenosky (2002) as cited in Morrison (2013:403) maintains that push factors are associated with the needs and wants of tourists such as "the need for escape, rest and relaxation, adventure, prestige, health and fitness, social interaction" and many more. Fluker & Richardson (2004:67) and Lee *et al.* (2002) as cited by Morrison (2013:403), describe push factors as "all economic, social, demographic, technological and political forces that stimulate a demand for tourism activity by propelling consumers away from their usual environments". Boniface *et al.* (2016:10) postulate that push factors are mainly concerned with the stage of economic development in the tourist-generating region and include such factors as levels of affluence, mobility and holiday entitlement. Push factors may also include factors which give the population of a place the urge to get away from it all and these include pressures of city life, unfavourable climate. Push factors according to Ryan (1991) as cited in Fluker & Richardson (2004:67) include "escape, relaxation (wish for recuperation), play, strengthening family bonds, prestige (lifestyle statements), social interaction of the like-minded, romance, educational opportunity and self-fulfilment and wish fulfilment (answer to a dream)".

Cook *et al.* (2014:37) describe some push factors as being personality traits (novelty seeking) and one of the most appropriate personality trait theories related to tourism is the optimal arousal theory which holds that people have some optimal level of arousal at which they feel most comfortable. People with a low optimal arousal level lead to a relaxed, less fast lifestyle, while tourists with a high optimal arousal level are driven to constantly seek demanding and unexplored activities (Cook *et al.* 2014:37). Cook *et al.* (2014:37) list "desire for escape, rest and relaxation, health and fitness, adventure, prestige, social interaction, novelty seeking, exploration, enhancement of relationships, self-evaluation, regression, learning new things, desire for pampering or comfort, being entertained and hobbies" as factors that may push travellers to travel.

Boniface *et al.* (2016:10) list pull factors such as "accessibility, the attractions and the amenities of the destination area". The cost of visiting the destination, especially the more affordable it is to visit, and the attractiveness of marketing communication by the destination

marketers is also included as pull factors (Boniface *et al*. 2016:10). "Beaches, recreation facilities, historic sites, reasonable prices, cultural resources, undisturbed/pristine nature, ease of access, cosmopolitan environments, climate, safety and security, shopping facilities, celebrity sighting opportunities, popular attractions, scenery and landscape and quality accommodation" were listed as pull factors motivating (enticing) tourists to visit destinations (Cook *et al*. 2014:37). Page (2009:95) further adds fashion and taste which bears influence on people's destination choices. Crompton as cited by Hudson (2008:43) further listed novelty and education as pull factors.

Yoon & Uysal (2005) as cited in Uysal *et al*. (2012:143) argue that loyalty to a destination increases the motivation of the individual to travel to the specific destination and this motivation is push factor rather than pull factor related. Lee *et al*. (2002) also indicated that there is an interaction between push and pull factors as individuals are making decisions to travel (Morrison 2013:403). Dann (1981) as cited in Uysal *et al*. (2012:142) points out that tourists are moved to travel by internal push factors (more affective component) or they can be enticed by the tourism destination properties (external factors) to visit. Destinations are chosen on the basis of the nature of the push force where destinations that address the push force adequately within the travellers' capacity (money, time, energy, health) will be chosen as opposed to those which do not (Cook *et al*. 2014:37). In addition to push and pull, in promoting the desire-to-travel factors such as unavailability of money, time, energy, good health, safety and security concerns inhibit travelling as well as family situations (new baby, caring for an elderly. Seth (2008:11) also concurs with Cook *et al*. (2014:37) that while people may be stimulated to travel, they can be retarded by cost (monitory restraints), time, health (especially the elderly, and physically challenged), family (especially parents with young children are restricted to travel) and ignorance and lack of information about holiday destinations.

Sharpely (1994:99) as cited by Page (2014:56) states that the motivation to travel combined with personal choices drives the tourists into considering several holiday destinations and the final booking is highly influenced by the strength of pull forces of the chosen holiday destination vis-a-vis alternative destinations. Gilbert (1991) as cited by Page (2014:56) fully supports the effects of push and pull factors and proposes four stages, namely "energisers of demand", "effectors of demand" (factors which may enhance or reduce the likelihood of the visit), "role and decision-making" and lastly the "filters of demand".

- **Maslow's hierarchy of needs**

Below is a pictorial illustration of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (see Figure 2.2). This illustration shows that humans are motivated by "physiological needs, safety and security needs,

belonging needs, ego needs, and self-actualisation needs" as proposed by Abraham Maslow cited in Cook *et al.* (2014:38).

Figure 2.2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs
Source: Cook et al. (2014:38)

Maslow's (1947) hierarchy of needs is another useful theory of motivation which guided further development of tourist motivation theories such as Pearce's travel career ladder and the subsequent travel career pattern. According to Maslow as cited by Fletcher *et al.* (2013:42) there are two motives types, which are "deficiency or tension-reducing motives and inductive or arousal-seeking motives". Cook *et al.* (2014:37) maintain that, though the theory explains human behaviour and motivation in general, it can also be applied to tourists. Maslow as cited in Cook *et al.* (2014:38) explains that in most developed societies most consumers' lower-order needs, which are physiological (food, water, clothing, shelter and sleep) and safety (protection, security and comfort sought from familiar environments) have been met and have ceased to be motivators. What now motivates these people is the higher-order needs such as belongingness (the need to love or to be loved, establish or consolidate friendship, affiliate and to be accepted by groups one desires to belong to), esteem needs (one's desire to be recognised in society, respect for one-self and success) and the self-actualisation or the desire for self-fulfilment. Travellers believe that by travelling they can satisfy many of these higher-level needs (Cook *et al.* 2014:38).

Lower-order needs are however also met during travel. Physiological needs according to Cook *et al.* (2014:38) are met through "tour packages that offer frequent rest stops, easily accessible food outlets in theme parks, sleeping shelters (motels) strategically located along motorways and hiking trails". Reservation services, medical facilities and doctors on cruise ships, travel insurance, tour guiding in unfamiliar locations, staying in well-known international accommodation brands, flying with well reputable airlines, all address the need for safety and security. Tours by groups of people with shared interests, speaking one language, recognition gained by customers belonging to frequent-user programmes provided by airlines (frequent flyers), hotels and restaurants (frequent guests), car rental companies (frequent driver), trips undertaken to visit places where one's ancestors once lived are all meant to satisfy the need for belongingness/social needs (Cook *et al.* 2014:38).

Cook *et al.* (2014:38) assert that frequent-user programmes such as diamond, gold or silver membership, first class air travel, travelling to certain destinations, travel awards offered to employees who performed top and any other form of recognition at special occasions to guests, tourists or employees are meant to meet the esteem needs. Educational tours and cruises, trekking and hiking, challenging heights such as Mount Everest and Mount Kilimanjaro, learning language and culture before travelling to another country and then practising to use it on arrival all enable tourists, motivated by self-actualisation, to be satiated (Cook *et al* 2014:38-9).

- **Travel Career Ladder (TCL): Pearce 1988**

The travel career ladder (TCL) was designed by Pearce (1998) (See Figure 2.3). Pearce's (1988) travel needs model as cited by Goeldner & Ritchie (2009:261) argues that "people have a lifecycle in their travel behaviour which reflects a hierarchy of their travel motives. People may start at different levels and they are likely to change their levels during their lifecycle and their travel needs can be frustrated by financial constraints, health and other people". The travel career larder (TCL) motivation model, adapted from Maslow's hierarchy of needs, is described by Pearce and Lee as having 5 levels of needs, namely relaxation, safety/security, relationship, self-esteem and lastly development/fulfilment needs (Cooper 2012:276). One or more needs motivate people to travel each trip but in most cases one need dominates. According to the TCL, travellers' needs would be expected to change with the acquisition of travel experience; thus, depicting a "career" in travelling (Cooper 2012:277). The TCL holds that though travellers migrate up the career ladder as they grow and gain travel experience, some may remain static at any of the levels, meaning that they will continue to be motivated by the same things and are most likely to visit the same destinations.

FULFILMENT NEEDS
Self-actualisation
Flow experiences

Higher-level motives
include lower level motives

SELF-ESTEEM/DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

Other-directed	Self-directed
Status, respect and	Self-development
Recognition	Growth
Achievement	Curiosity and mental stimulation
Mastery, control and competence	Self-efficacy
	Repeat intrinsically satisfying behaviours
	Self-evaluation

Lower-level motives
must be satisfied
before tourists can
ascend to next level

Tourists ascend as
they become more
Experienced
travellers

RELATIONSHIPSHIP NEEDS

Other-directed	Self-directed
Reduce anxiety	Give love and attention
about others	Social interaction
Affiliate	

Tourists may descent the
ladder because they are at
different stages in their
travel life cycle

SAFETY/SECURITY NEEDS

Other-directed	Self-directed
Security	Reduce anxiety
	Predict and explain the world

PHYSIOLOGICAL

External	Internal
Escape, excitement and curiosity	Eating, drinking, sex
Arousal, external, excitement and stimulation	Relaxation
Exploration	

Figure 2.3: Travel Career Ladder
Source: Lubbe (2003:33) as adapted from McIntosh et al. (1995)

- **Travel Career Pattern (TCP): Pearce and Lee 2005**

Pearce & Lee (2005), in their classic paper, empirically discovered the simplistic shortcoming of the TCL and developed it further in travel career patterns (TCPs) of multiple motivation instead of one direction movement up the ladder over a person's travel career (Cooper 2012:277; Page 2014:60). The Travel career approach by Pearce (2005) as cited in Morrison

(2013:404-5); Cooper (2012:277) and Cook *et al.* (2014:39) state that motivation to travel changes the more individual tourists' travels the older they become. Pearce & Lee (2005) concluded that the desire for cultural indulgence and being close to nature were highly regarded factors motivating seasoned travellers while "stimulation, personal development, relationship (security), self-actualisation, nostalgia, romance and recognition" have been prioritised by less experienced travellers as important travel motives (Morrison 2013:405). However, Morrison (2013:405) points out a core set of four motivational factors for all tourists, namely "escape, relaxation, relationship enhancement and self-development".

Pearce (2005) as cited by Page (2014:60) and Cook *et al.* (2014:39) conceptualised the travel career patterns as three layers of travel motivation which are: "the core layer, the moderate layer and the outer layer". According to the TCP as cited in Cook *et al.* (2014:39) and Page (2014:60), the most important common travel motives such as "novelty, escape/relaxation, enhancing kinship relationships" fall under the core layer. Surrounding the core layer are travel motives of moderate valence such as self-actualisation, romance, belonging and autonomy(internally oriented) and also externally derived motives such as nature-seeking and desire for interaction with the locals within the destination (Page 2014:60; Cook *et al.* 2014:39).The outer layer consists of the commonly cited and less stable motives and considered of less importance such as "nostalgia and the pursuit of isolation" which are solitude or social status (Cook *et al.* 2014:39).

Outer Layer (Less important)

Middle layer (Moderately important)

Higher Travel Career Level

Core Motives (Very Important) e.g. novelty, escape/relax, and kinship or relationship

Externally oriented. *self-development through host-site involvement and seeking nature*

Internally oriented. *self-enhancement, romance, kinship (belonging) and autonomy*
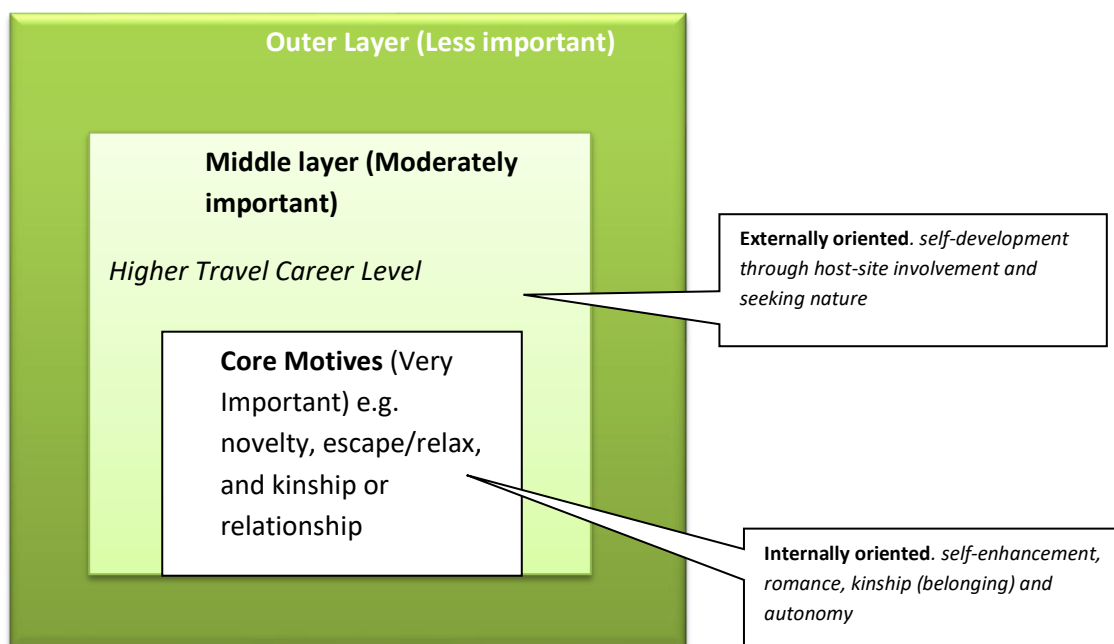
Figure 2.4: Travel Career Pattern (TCP)
Source: Cook et al. (2014:39)

Pearce (2005) as cited by Page (2014:60) points out that as tourists become more experienced at travelling their motives, which are of moderate importance, migrate from inward- towards outward-oriented needs such as experiencing nature and involvement with local communities. According to Pearce (2005) as cited by Page (2014:60) tourists travelling for pleasure are influenced by the core and most vital travel motives as well as by less important motives at all stages of the Travel Career Pattern. According to the Travel Career Pattern theory as referenced by Page (2014:60) as tourists gain more experience in travelling, pleasure travellers' moderately important motives changes from internally focused to externally oriented needs. Below is a diagrammatic illustration of the Travel Career Pattern.

- **Leisure motivational Scale: Beard and Ragheb 1983**

Beard & Ragheb (1983) developed the leisure motivation scale consisting of types of motives derived from Maslow's hierarchy of needs, namely "intellectual, social, complete mastery and stimulus avoidance" (Morrison 2013:405). Intellectual motives involve participating in activities which challenge one's mind such as learning, exploring, discovery, thinking and imagining while travelling. Social motives entail looking for friendship and recognition from others through travelling. Complete mastery involves ability to finish skilfully and successfully activities, usually of a physical nature or competition, while stimulus avoidance covers aspects such as getting away from over-stimulating life situations, for example getting away from the hustle and bustle of city life (Beard & Ragheb 1983 as cited in Morrison 2013:405).

- **Authenticity as a travel motivation**

According to Bowen & Clarke (2009:68) tourists are motivated towards authenticity but the industry, convincing as it is, gives them a too sanitised experience instead of genuine, unadulterated cultural and   heritage experiences (a sociologist and anthropologist's contribution to tourist behaviour). Some tourists may search for luxury, glamour and name brands rather than for authenticity, while others may be motivated by authenticity (genuine experience, reliable and unspoilt experience instead of "virtual imitation of reality") (Fluker & Richardson 2004:81), especially with heritage products (Robinson 2012:15). Authenticity can be achieved in the following areas: souvenirs, buildings and facilities, atmosphere, service and cuisine and this can pull tourists in search of such experiences.

Galloway (2008) as cited in Uysal *et al.* (2012:145) postulates that tourism service consumption provides opportunities for socialisation for tourists both among themselves and with other cultural communities. As cultural tourism has increased, the need for authenticity has also heightened as a motivator, as evidenced by Yeoman *et al. (*2007) as cited in Uysal *et al.* (2012:145). Sharpely (2008) as cited in Lew *et al.* (2014:184) generally describe

authenticity as "an experience or object that is genuine or real". Hitchcock & Teague (2000) as cited in Lew *et al.* (2014:184) purchasing of souvenirs by tourists is perceived as a search for authentic experiences; hence if a travel experience is to be authentic; trip material reminder objects should be genuine triggers of memory.

However, authenticity definitions and who declares authenticity of souvenirs has been met with controversies. Setiyati & Indrayanto (2011) as cited in Lew *et al.* (2014:184) point out that tourists associate souvenirs as being authentic if they represent a traditional culture of the visited destination and are locally made. Souvenirs are regarded as authentic when they reflect the perceived values of the destination visited (Schouten 2006 as cited in Lew *et al.* 2014:184). Lacher & Nepal (2011) as referenced in Lew *et al.* (2014:184) state that souvenirs can be genuinely real but other times they can be polished or sanitised just to make tourists feel they are genuine, yet in reality they were made solely for the tourists. Though there are controversies as to who authenticate the souvenir products, Revilla & Dodd (2003) and Swanson & Horridge (2006) state that knowledge of the souvenirs as authentic is an important characteristic and consideration when buying a souvenir (Lew *et al.* 2014:184). Tourists in most cases cannot authenticate souvenirs as genuine as they lack adequate knowledge of these products, but as long as these products offer emotional connection to the tourist's travel experiences, they buy them.

- **Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation: Iso-Ahola 1980**

Iso-Ahola's (1980, 1982, 1983, 1989) model of travel motivation has also been accepted as an explanation to travel motivation (cited by Morrison 2013:403; Page 2009:90). Iso-Ahola suggests that tourists are motivated to travel by the need for intrinsic rewards and the need to escape the everyday environment where the two motives can exist simultaneously (Morrison 2013:404). The two motives indicated by Iso-Ahola are also claimed to have both personal (psychological) and interpersonal (social) dimensions (Snepenger *et al.* 2006 as cited in Morrison 2013:404). Iso-Ahola therefore proposed four dimensions to travel motivation, namely "personal seeking, personal escape, interpersonal seeking and lastly interpersonal escape". According to Iso-Ahola as quoted by McIntosh *et al.* (1995:174) and Goeldner & Ritchie (2009:259), while tourists look for different levels of stimulation, they try to avoid either overstimulation (mental and physical exhaustion) or boredom (too little stimulation).

Page (2009:90) in agreement with Iso-Ahola postulates that, tourists can be motivated, both intrinsically and extrinsically, to travel. Intrinsic motivation views an individual as having unique personal needs that stimulate or arouse them to travel, of which some of these needs are from within a person, for example touring for self-improvement (self-realisation) so as to achieve a

state of happiness. Travelling may also be undertaken to boost one's self-esteem as travelling can enhance personal confidence, which is an intrinsic reward (Page 2009:90). Extrinsic motivational factors shape individuals' attitudes, choices and perceptions and are determined by the environment, for example culture, family, society with its standards and behavioural expectations and pressure from social communities. Page (2009:91) argues that tourism affords individuals the opportunity of escaping the usual surrounding and activities and engaging in activities that refresh both the physical and spiritual being as well as enjoying the company of family or friends.

- **Mill & Morrison (2012)**

Mill & Morrison (2012) as cited in Morrison (2013:405-6) with reference to tourism research literature, compiled a model, underpinned by Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The model equals relaxation to physiological need. Relaxation includes motives such as "escape, relaxation, relief of tension, sun-lust, physical and mental relaxation of tension". According to Morrison (2013:406) people desire health, recreation, keeping oneself active and healthy for the future and the motive behind this action or desire is security. Spending time with family, desire to know one's origin or roots and strengthening family bonds are the desires of travellers where the motive behind it is love (Morrison 2013:406).

"Convincing oneself of one's achievements, status, prestige, social recognition" according to Mill & Morrison (2012) as cited in Morrison (2013:406) are desires that are driven by the achievement motive in the direction of satisfying esteem needs while "exploration and evaluation of nature, self-discovery, satisfaction of inner desires" are driven by the motive of being true to oneself; thus satisfying the self-actualisation need. Learning other people's cultures, wanderlust and wanting to visit foreign destinations are actions or desires driven by the knowledge motive which seeks to satisfy the need to know and understand while the desire for the environment and the scenery are driven by appreciation of beauty in the direction of gratifying need of aesthetics (Mills & Morrison 2012 as cited in Morrison 2013:406).

- **Horner & Swarbrooke (2016)**

Horner & Swarbrooke (2016:58) proposed 6 categories of travel motives, excluding business travel, and these are "emotional, physical, status, personal, cultural and personal development". Physical factors include "relaxation, suntan, exercise and health and sex" while exclusivity, desire to explore fashion or destinations that are trending and obtaining good deals were regarded as status factors (Swarbrooke & Horner 2016). Emotional factors entail "nostalgia, romance, adventure, escapism, fantasy, spiritual fulfilment" while personal development factor includes desire for knowledge and learning new skills (Horner &

Swarbrooke 2016:58). Cultural motives according to Swarbrooke & Horner (2016) and George (2019:233) respectively, include sightseeing touristic spots and learning cultures of other people. Personal motives cover visiting friends and relatives, desire for new friendships and searching for new economic fortunes (Swarbrooke & Horner 1989).

2.5.3 Travel motivation to South Africa

With specific reference to travel motivations of inbound tourists to South Africa, Hermann & du Plessis (2016:59) concluded that tourists visit South Africa to experience nature, participate in activities, to experience the attractions, for nostalgic purposes, to experience something new, to escape from routine, to bond with a group, for escape, to explore culture(s), for group socialisation, to relax, for personal attachment, for photography, for shopping, for financial reasons and for education and learning (as sourced from Saayman, Slabbert & Van der Merwe 2009; Van der Merwe, Slabbert & Saayman 2011; Viviers, Botha & Perl 2013; Hermann & du Plessis 2014.

2.6 TOTAL TOURISM PRODUCT

Since destination products play a very critical role in enticing tourist to visit and are at the centre of tourist experience and ultimate satisfaction, it is worthy at this juncture that destination attributes be reviewed in depth. When tourists are choosing destinations to their trip, they gather as much information on these destinations as possible and then they evaluate, based on the attributes, to select the best one considering their situational background. Kozak & Decrop (2009:67) dealt in detail with how tourists evaluate alternative destination products when selecting places to visit (categorically or attribute by attribute). For a destination to offer great and memorable holiday experience to prospective travellers, it must be all-encompassing and should be designed from a total product's point of view. The total tourism product should live up to customer expectations for customer satisfaction to be registered. What then, makes up the total tourism product?

According to Fluker & Richardson (2004:50) a total tourism product is an aggregate of all productive activities and services which satisfy the needs of tourists. Included in this aggregate tourism product are attractions, amenities, accessibility, images and price. Fluker & Richardson (2004:50) define facilities as elements within the destination or are linked to it, which makes it possible for tourists to stay, enjoy and consume the attractions (accommodation, restaurants, cafes and bars, transport at the destination, shops, saloons and visitor infrastructure). Rana (2013:136) defines a tourism product as "the sum of the physical and psychological satisfaction it provides to tourists during their travelling en-route to the

destination". It is a total product which includes tourist attractions, accommodation, transport, nightlife and entertainment, which results in tourists being delighted. Murphy, Pritchard & Smith (2000:44) as cited by McCabe (2014:262) defined the tourism destination as "an amalgam of individual products and experiences, opportunities that combine to form a total experience of the visited area".

Having paid tribute to several destination product definitions and descriptions, Morrison (2013:156) then defines product as an "interdependent mixture of tangible and intangible components made up of physical products, people, packages and programmes where the importance of tourists/host interaction is emphasised". According to Morrison (2013:168) the physical products of the destination include attractions, facilities, infrastructure, transportation and other supportive facilities and amenities. In most cases but not always, facilities support the attractions and events and they come in three major categories, namely accommodation, food and drinks, retail outlets and are mostly built and private sector operated (Morrison 2013:168). Other facilities which support the destination product are visitor information centres, venue for conventions, exhibitions and meeting (MICE), interpretive and directional signage and displays (Morrison 2013:168). Infrastructure includes transport facilities, water facilities, sewerage and basic physical systems expected in the destination and the community, while transportation is access to and within a destination. Both these infrastructure aspects require massive capital outlays, and, in most cases, it is the government's prerogative (Morrison 2013:168).

Ritchie & Crouch (2003) as cited in Morrison (2013:156) viewed destination product as made up of two levels, namely "core resources and attractions" and "supporting factors and resources". Core resources and attractions according to Ritchie & Crouch (2003) include "natural physical attractions and climate, culture and history, mix of activities, special events, entertainment, superstructure and market ties" while supporting factors and resources include "infrastructure, accessibility, facility resources, hospitality, enterprise, and political will".

Murphy *et al.* (2000) discovered environment and infrastructure as two aspects of the destination product which affect tourists' perceptions of the quality and value of destinations with particular reference to destination Victoria-Australia (cited by Morrison 2013:156). According to Murphy *et al.* (2000) as cited in Morrison (2013:156), "pleasant climate, attractive scenery, clean city, heritage, ambience and friendly people" were included under environment while "good food, interesting attractions and good hotels" were considered to be infrastructure. Mill & Morrison (2012) label the destination product as a destination mix (a blending of

interdependent elements) which all needs to be present for tourists to have an unforgettable experience and hospitality resources.

From the definitions presented above and descriptions of product, one can tell that a product is made up of many components and these components have been placed into different categories termed "levels of the total product". There is no universally consented number of levels that form a product, as evidenced by literature on product levels. The number of levels however ranges from two to five. Although there is no agreement by scholars on the number of product levels, the knowledge that the product appears at multiple levels is useful for marketers and product developers in striving to meet and exceed customer needs and wants.

Sharma (2007:27) postulates that within a product of any kind, three aspects are present, namely core benefit, tangible product (physical attributes and features that lead to benefits and usability) and the intangible aspect (service). Thus Sharma (2007:27) finds three product levels to exist. Jooste, Klopper, Berndt & du Plessis (2010:2) advise marketers to look at a product at five levels, namely "core product, basic product, expected product, augmented product and potential product".

George (2014:280; 2019:288) sees a tourism offering as appearing at 3 levels, which are "the core level, the expected level and the augmented level" and marketers should attend to all the elements (both tangible and intangible) to ensure that the offering lives up to consumers' expectations and leads to repeat purchases. Instead of three levels, Kotler *et al.* (2017:258) look at destination product as comprising four levels, namely "the core product, facilitating product, supporting product and augmented product".

Evan, Campbell & Stonehouse (2011:136) in making reference to Kotler (1997) postulate that the tourism product is the sum total of all aspects that make an enjoyable tourism experience; hence it should be seen at five levels, namely "the core product, the generic product" (basic product according to Jooste *et al.*2010:2), "the expected product, the augmented product and the potential product". Citing Kotler (2004), Cooper and Hall (2008:28) state that a total tourism product should rather be seen at 3 levels, which are core product (attractions, especially first-order ones), facilitating product (accommodation and transport) and augmented product.

Fletcher *et al.* (2013:550) and Kotler *et al.* (2017:254) also consider a tourism product to be complicated in that it is made up of multiple layers, namely "core product, the facilitating product, the supporting product and the augmented product" (four levels). Smith (1994) as referenced in Morrison (2013:155) includes the "physical plant, service, hospitality, freedom

of choice and involvement" as five elements that make up a generic tourism product. Smith (1994) highlights that tourists choose among the available products/destinations and are involved personally in the experiences purchased. Smith (1994) as cited in Morrison (2013:155) labels destination resources as primary inputs; facilities at the destination as intermediate inputs; services as intermediate output and lastly tourists' experiences as the final outputs.

The diagram below (Figure 2.5) shows a total product at five levels, which are "the core product, the generic product, the expected product, the augmented product and the potential product" as derived from Jooste *et al.* (2010:3). These product levels are therefore discussed in detail below the diagram.

The core product

The generic product

The expected product

The augmented product

The potential product
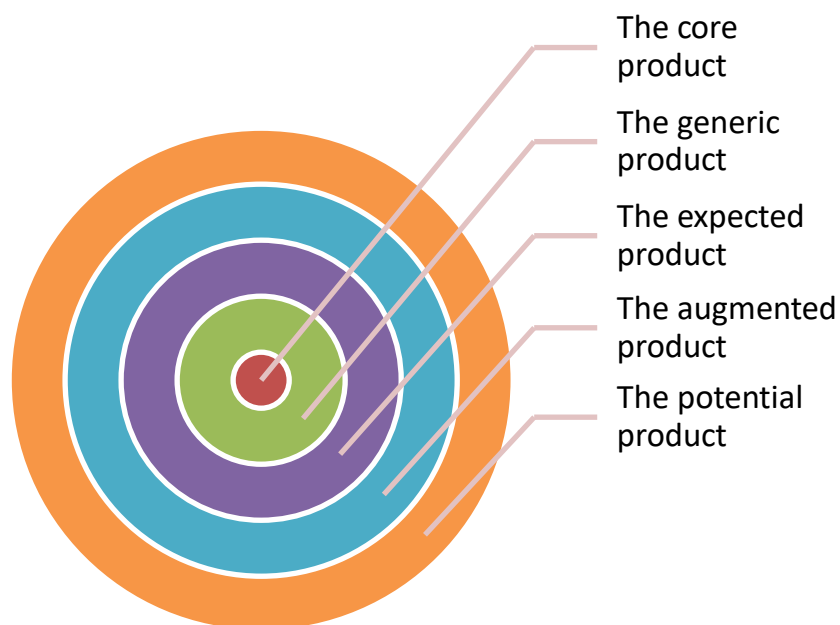
Figure 2.5: A diagrammatic illustration of the product levels
Source: Adapted from Jooste et al. (2010:3)

- **The Core Product level**

The Core Product level, which is the nucleus of the tourism total product, is made up of the main benefits that customers seek to satisfy their needs and wants (Fletcher *et al.* 2013:550; George 2014:280; 2019:288; Kotler *et al.* 2017:255). Kotler *et al.* (2003) as cited in Boniface *et al.* (2016:57) agree with George (2014:280; 2019:288) that core products are the essential benefits sought (e.g. winter sports experience). The core product according to Sharma (2007:27) is made up of "in-use benefits, psychological benefits (self-image enhancement, hope and status, self-worth), problem-solving benefits (safety, convenience)". The core

product refers to the main or the necessary benefits to be obtained by the customer after the purchase such as rest and relaxation, adrenaline pumping experience (adventure) for a tourist destination (Evan *et al.* 2011:136). The benefits can be obtained from very important features that customers will use to satisfy their needs (Fletcher *et al.* 2013:550). Core products are called so because they are at the centre of customers' hearts (Fletcher *et al.* 2013:550). Kotler *et al.* (2017:255) regard the core product as the problem-solving abilities of a product.

For a hotel, the core offering is rest and relaxation while the main feature that makes tourists to visit the destination (primary attractions) is the core product for that destination. Attractions of the destination offers the prime reason for visiting a destination; hence they should be well-managed (Cooper 2012:35). George (2014:502) agrees with Cooper (2012:35) on the cornerstone role that events, and attractions play in enticing travellers to visit the destination (pull factors). Attractions influence tourists' motivation as well as tourists' selection of the destination to visit as it is the core product. These attractions can be God-made (climate, scenic beauty, coastlines, waterfalls, wildlife, landscapes, spas), human-made (resorts, shopping malls, canal ways, theme parks, sports and recreational facilities, picturesque buildings), cultural attractions (historical, archaeological and cultural sites), social attractions (lifestyles of hosts communities (George 2014:502). According to George (2014:502) visitor attractions can be categorised into "primary and secondary attractions" where the former entice tourists to visit the destination while the later are not sufficiently intense to lure tourists to the destination but could compliment the prime attractions by providing more activities and features which encourage tourists to extend the duration of their stay (Inskeep 1991:94) and sensibly to spent more in the destination visited. George (2014:281) concurs with Jooste *et al.* (2010:3) that at the core offering level, attaining competitive advantage is infeasible as most destinations offer similar core benefits. Differentiation is therefore impossible at core benefit level but indeed at expected and augmented level (George 2014:281).

- **The generic product level**

The generic product level is the basic product with features that are important to the target market and the features enable the tourists to enjoy the core benefits (Evan *et al.* 2011:136; Jooste *et al.* 2010:3). Jooste *et al.* (2010:3) regard this level as a basic product, while Evan *et al.* (2011:136) calls it the generic product. The generic product merely is the necessary benefits being turned into a real product; therefore, making it a mere basic product for example a room with a bed, cupboard. This room can enable a guest to rest or sleep, which is the main or core benefit sought.

- **The expected product level**

The expected offering level is made up of all the features that need to be present in a destination or product in general to enable the customers to buy the core offering, and these elements can be both physical and intangible (George 2014:281; Jooste *et al.* 2010:3). The expected product level consists of attributes and consents that customers usually anticipate and accept when buying a product such as clean rooms, bed linen, towels and many more (Evan *et al.* 2011:136; Jooste *et al.* 2010:3). This level entails features that customers usually look forward to experience from a product. The expected offering makes the visit enjoyable but on its own will not motivate tourists to visit. However, their absence leads to consumers being dissatisfied with the trip (George 2014:281). The expected product is also referred to as hygiene product, borrowing from Hertzberg's two factor theory as the above explanation showed (Jooste *et al.* 2010:3). Souvenirs, tours, restaurants, accommodation, transport are regarded as expected destination features (George 2014:283). Fletcher *et al.* (2013:551) assert that the facilitating destination product enables the customers to enjoy the core benefits such as easy access around the destination and clear signage; hence they must be present. Facilitating products can be equated to the expected product because, if not there, tourists will be dissatisfied. When tourists are at a destination, they need several amenities, support services and facilities which include lodging, dining facilities, retailing, security services, banks, hairdressing, Bureau de Changes and insurance (Cooper 2012:35). Accessibility is another expectation of tourists in destinations visited both in terms of being close to the market and availability of transport facilities to and within the destination (Cooper 2012:35). According to Kotler *et al.* (2017:255) facilitating products are the goods or services which must be present in the destination for tourists to use the core product.

- **The augmented product level**

The augmented offering level also involves both tangible and intangible aspects of an offering and it is here where most organisations or destinations compete. Kotler (1997) as cited by Evan *et al.* (2011:137) labels the augmented level as a level where competition thrives; hence companies should continuously review their products to ensure superior products to those of competition. George (2014:281) defines augmented offering as "add-ons that are extrinsic to the product offering itself but may influence the decision to purchase". The augmented product level according to Evan *et al.* (2011:137) offers something extra and desirable which exceeds customer expectations. These added aspects set apart the destination/company's own products from the competing brands and makes it more appealing to the consumers (tourists) (Fletcher *et al.* 2013:551). For a destination, the augmented level would be the physical environment (the ambience, the atmosphere) of the destination (Boniface *et al.* 2012:51; 2016:57; Kotler *et al.* 2017:258). Destination's tangible and intangible features give it an

atmosphere, mood or ambience; hence some could be described as vibrant, lively, laidback, sleepy, romantic, enchanting /charming, exotic (George 2014:504). George (2014:504) explains that "the friendliness and the way of life of the locals, the history and folklore of the destination area and the way tourists' products and services are delivered to visitors" constitute the destination's ambience, which is an augmented component of the destination product.

According to Kotler *et al.* (2017:258/9) the augmented product level is made up of "the physical environment (atmosphere), customer interaction with the service delivery system (at initial inquiry, during consumption and at departure), customer interaction with other customers, customer co-production, and these together with core, facilitating and supporting products form the augmented product". Kotler *et al.* (2017:258) state that the physical elements/atmosphere includes four dimensions, which are: **visual (**the dimension of colour, brightness, size, shape), **aural** (volume and pitch of music), olfactory (scent and freshness) and **tactile** (softness, smoothness and temperature).Tourists' interactions with the service delivery system as stated by Kotler *et al.* (2017:258), must be made special for the tourists for memorable experiences to be enhanced. At the augmented product level, customers can interact with other customers and this interaction can either enhance the travel experience or make horrible memories. Kotler *et al.* (2017:260) presented an example of an airline of which the economy class was full but there was space in the premium class and the airline had to place a contractor who was dirty after a day's work into the premium class along with customers who were up-market; thus ending up spoiling the holiday experience of these customers.

According to George (2014:282) the augmented offering includes all the extra features and benefits that consumers receive. At times these add-ons can be trivial such as a welcome drink upon arrival at the hotel while others are more significant like a complimentary game drive. Some of the augmented features could be intangible like service quality, friendliness of staff and locals and the ambience created while others could be tangible. According to George (2014:282) marketers should understand what consumers want from the purchasing experience and what atmospheric elements consumers are seeking or escaping.

Augmented features are vast and may include plenty easy and safe parking, extended opening times and ancillary services such as catering and retailing (George 2014:282). Fletcher *et al.* (2013:551) include free parking for cars, airport pick-up service, express check-in and out at hotels, study bedrooms and free tickets to touristic spots or theatre, free Wi-Fi as value additions to be incorporated into tourism offerings. Table Mountain Cable Car Company in

conjunction with My Citi Bus Company offers free shuttle service from the main road to the lower cable car station. Buildings, friendliness of locals, safety and security and the ambience were labelled augmented features (George 2014:283).

Evan *et al.* (2011:137) and George (2014:282) however argue that augmented benefits end up becoming expected in a product and what is included in the expected product in one market may be an augmented product in another market, for example air-conditioning is expected in tropical climates but augmented in temporal climates (Evan *et al.* 2011:137); internet is considered an augmented feature for leisure tourists while it is a feature expected by business travellers (George 2014:282). Free WIFI in developed countries may be expected but in developing countries it is regarded as a product augmentation. Companies should therefore on an ongoing basis search for new ways of adding extra benefits to add on to their product to set them apart from competitive forces (George 2014:282; Evan *et al.* 2011:137). Product augmentation costs the organisations and destinations at large the time and money, and decisions need to be made as to whether or not the customer will pay enough to cover the extra costs (Evan *et al.* 2011:137).

- **The Potential Product level**

The Potential Product level includes all the augmentation and transformation that the product might experience in the future (Jooste *et al.* 2010:3), whereas the augmented product describes product features in today's product, the potential product represents possible evolution of the product; thus long-sighted organisations and destination countries expend more effort and time into research and development, since a potential product is the product that is likely to be successful in tomorrow's market (Jooste *et al.* 2010:3). The organisation must not only consider the present time situation, since changing consumer tastes can change tourist destinations (Evan *et al.* 2011:137). Fletcher *et al.* (2013:551) also highlight the importance of constantly scouting for avenues of overall product improvement to keep wowing customers. George (2014:283) points out that successful destinations review their offerings on an ongoing basis to always have products of quality superior to those of competition (potential product). However, they argue that this potential product is not another level of the total product but merely renewal of existing levels. This view is however in contradiction to that of authors such as Evan *et al.* (2011:137 and Jooste *et al.* (2010:3) who see a "potential product" as another level of the total product.

From the fore-going discussion it is clear that destinations should live up to tourist expectations, since a product is a cornerstone for customer satisfaction, repeat business and loyal customers. If not, customers may register dissatisfaction (Evans *et al.* 2011:136) and

their future purchase behaviour is negatively affected. A country being a product should meet or exceed the needs of tourists. If destinations make promises to tourists during marketing, they must honour them, otherwise tourists will be disappointed (Wilson *et al.* 2016:21). The promises made during marketing develops expectations and these expectations created during the tourist's anticipation stage (when customers are searching for information that they will use to help in the evaluation of destination alternatives) will be compared with reality during the actual visit or after the visit, and future destination visits will be affected (Boniface *et al.* 2016:19). For a country to achieve customer satisfaction and loyalty it must deeply understand the customer's (tourist's) needs and wants, especially their buying behaviour so as to develop products that are in line with their expectations and to adjust their marketing strategies accordingly. Designing and offering destination products that appeal to tourists' needs and wants is possible if destination managers and marketers have an in-depth understanding of tourists' purchasing behaviour. Hence tourist travel behaviour knowledge is very critical if customer satisfaction or more specifically tourist memorable experiences, are to be guaranteed.

2.7 CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter was to analyse tourist travel behaviour regarding travel motivations in general and travel motivations to South Africa specifically, tourists' decision-making process, types of holiday decisions tourists make, and the factors that influence these tourists' decisions. The elements of the tourism product were also discussed as it has an influence on tourist travel behaviour and is the heart to tourist satisfaction and need gratification. This was achieved by in-depth theoretical reviewing of literature by past researchers and authors on the subject matter using the key words: Tourist travel behaviour, travel motivations, theories of travel motivation, tourist decision-making process, types of holiday decisions, determinants of tourist travel behaviour and total tourism product.

From the above literature exploration regarding tourists travel behaviour many conclusions can be deduced and are hereby highlighted. Tourism is a very important industry, creating several benefits and these benefits have not yet been fully unleashed by many countries in the world; hence it still remains on the global agenda as an industry full of potential. To realise the full benefits of tourism, destination marketers and managers need a thorough understanding of tourists' travel behaviour to be able to create a tourism offering that is congruent to their needs, wants and desires. Tourist travel behaviour is the behaviour tourists display when they are making decisions to undertake holidays and is deemed complex due to the sophistication of the tourism product. Comprehension of tourists' travel behaviour is therefore important since it guides the development of tourism products and policies thereof,

facilitates informed decision-making by tourists, guides development of marketing plans and strategies, enhances visitor experiences and contributes to the ultimate satisfaction of the tourists. This should then lead to return visitation.

Tourists are faced with multiple decisions when planning to travel, and all these decisions are not taken concurrently but in successive phases these are crafted around: need recognition (motivation), information search, alternative evaluation, actual purchase and finally the post-purchase stage. The length of the holiday decision-making process may vary due to the nature of the need to be satisfied: extended problem solving, limited problem-solving and habitual problem solving (this is determined by the level of consumer involvement (highly, moderately or lowly involved), the length of time a buyer takes to make a decision, the cost of the product or service, the level of perceived risk involved, the level of interest in the purchase, the purchase situation, the degree of information search the buyer does and the number of alternatives the buyer considers before the actual buying, how important the decision is to others around us, past experience and many more. Clearly this is a complex process that warrants investigation. The tourist decision-making process is influenced by many factors at any phase of the process and these factors include a variety of political, economic and socio-demographic factors which influence the buyer's internal/individual factors (needs/motives, personality, perception, learning, attitudes and lifestyle) and the external factors (culture, social influences, reference groups and family).

Understanding travel motivation provides insights for tourism planning, development and marketing People can be motivated to travel by: physical motives, cultural motives, interpersonal motives, status and prestige motives For destinations to be appealing and marketable to the target market, destination marketers must look at it from the total product's point of view, which is the destination appearing at many levels: core product, facilitating product, support product level and the augmented product level.

There is undoubtably a strong link between the elements of tourists travel behaviour that is the decision tourists make before travelling, how they make the decisions and their travel motivations have an influence on how long they stay, how much they spend and how they spend their money in the destination visited. This link will further be discussed in the chapter that follows which is the anchor of this entire study.

CHAPTER 3
ANALYSING LENGTH OF STAY AND SPENDING BEHAVIOUR OF TOURISTS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism has become one of the largest and fastest growing industries in the whole world both in terms of numbers and expenditure thus signifying the importance of the industry (Nicolau & Mas 2005:271). The tourism sector has thus been considered as driving power for economic growth of most countries in the world (Brida, Lanzilotta, and Moreno & Santiñaque 2018:62) more specifically in employment creation and income generation (Ferrari, Jimènez & Secondi 2018:1437).However, for the tourism industry to grow and prosper it is important to optimise the aspects that can directly contribute to growth. The future behaviour of the tourists needs to be influenced such that it serves to the benefit of the industry. Receiving huge tourists' numbers is a very good indication of the tourism vibe of any tourist destination but it does not necessarily mean that huge economic benefits are being derived. Furthermore, huge tourist volumes come with a plethora of negatives which include pressure on the environment, health, roads and other facilities that are usually shared with the host communities; psychological carrying capacity overload for both the hosts and the visitors thus the economic benefits may not be proportionate with the negatives (Sheng 2012). The most ideal scenario would be to attract few tourists who will spend more without overburdening the resources of the host destination.

Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:122) regard expenditure as a segmentation variable with great economic returns practically but has not been fully exploited especially by destination marketing bodies. Understanding tourist expenditure and its composition is therefore a key element in the analysis of benefits from tourism in any destination, South Africa included and in the drafting of destination marketing policies and strategies (Nicolau& Mas 2005:271). Length of stay of tourists features alongside tourist expenditure as a variable of great marketing importance because of its positive relationship with expenditure (Ganzone & Fillone 2015:238). South African Tourism (2016/17:48) states that "*Increasing the length of stay of tourist arrivals should be one of the key targets to increase the contribution of tourism to the economy of any country because, the longer tourists stay in a country, the more they are likely to spend*".The focus should therefore not necessarily be on increasing the number of visitors to South Africa but to increase their length of stay and their spending behaviour. In this way,

the benefits of tourism to the South African economy will be fully harnessed and this will increase the industry's competitiveness. Comprehension of the underlying influences to these two variables (length of stay and spending behaviour) goes a long way in improving tourism value of the destination concerned as these factors are destination specific (Barros & Machado 2010:693) and according to Solera, Gemara & Correiab 2018:56) for a destination to understand length of stay patterns, research particular to that destination has to be conducted due to the destinations heterogeneity thus congruing with Barros & Machado 2010:693). Wong, Fong & Law (2016:957) postulate that for destinations to gain and consolidate competitive advantage during these times of intense competition for tourists' money, they need have great comprehension of trip expenditure patterns, drivers for length of stay and repeat visitation motives and behaviour.

The purpose of this chapter is therefore to review literature on two important variables that form the backbone of this entire study. These two variables are tourists' length of stay and spending behaviour. These two variables had been highlighted in the previous chapter as part of the decisions that tourists need to make when they are planning to undertake a holiday, which impact seriously on the economy of the destination being visited; hence their importance.

Length of stay of tourists is discussed first, with reference to what it means, its importance and lastly the factors which influence this variable. This is followed by an in-depth analysis of spending behaviour of tourists. Here, spending behaviour will be defined, its importance unearthed and the factors that determine this variable will be unpacked from previous literature.

3.2   UNDERSTANDING LENGTH OF STAY

The term *length of stay* literally means how long a tourist remains in the destination visited – that is from the time he/she arrives up until he or she departs from the destination. The unit of measurement of this variable can be days or nights spent in the destination visited. According to Adongo, Badu-Baiden1 & Boakye (2017:66) length of stay is the duration of an individual's leisure consumption and any other services or activities whose demand is prompted by virtue of visiting the destination. Šergo *et al.* (2014:521) define average length of stay as the average number of nights that visitors spend in a destination visited, which is an indication of how long tourists remain in the destination from the time they arrive up until the time they depart. According to Prebensen *et al.* (2015:28) length of stay of tourists in a destination can alter the morphology and architecture of destinations, businesses and policies.This variable is one of the statistical variables that most Destination Marketing Organisations including South African

Tourism gathers during surveys, especially when tourists are departing from the destination at the international gateways; hence it is considered to be of utmost importance. Length of stay is therefore according to Wang, Fong, Law & Fang (2018:472) a critical aspect of destination research because of its economic importance and the complexity of tourist behaviour.

3.2.1 Importance of length of stay in tourism

Length of stay has become a crucial variable for tourism management as it is one of the most important indicators when monitoring tourism activity (Montañoa, Rossellób & Sansób 2019:112; Jacobsen, Gössling, Dybedal & Skogheim 2018:29; Jackman, Lorde, Naitram & Greenaway 2020:2). Length of stay of tourists at destinations visited is considered important as it is one of the variables decided on when tourists are planning to go on holiday (Decrop & Snelders 2004 Martínez-Garcia & Raya 2008; Menezes *et al.* 2008; Zhou & Grumbine 2011 as cited in Wang *et al.* 2012:67; Grigolon *et al.* 2014:158). According to Šergo *et al.* (2014:519) tourists first decide whether or not to travel to (to arrive at) the destination and then decide how many days to stay there. Arrivals as well as length of stay are decided on when planning holidays (Šergo *et al.* 2014:519). Alegre & Pou (2004) as quoted by Celidoni *et al.* (2010:47) postulate that tourists compare the benefits of different destination options available and evaluate costs and the length of stay, taking into account their monetary and time constraints. Thrane (2016:183) studying student tourism ascertained that trip duration decisions tend not to be taken during the trip but before the trip begins and its part of holiday planning process signifying that convincing the tourists to stay longer at the destination in order for them to spend more in most cases might be waste of resources. Adongo, Badu-Baiden1 & Boakye (2017:66) however argues that depending on the type of tourists and circumstances at the destination, it is possible that a tourist can cut short or extend his or her duration of stay.

Length of stay is also regarded a significant variable as it is positively related to total tourism spending; thus tourism's contribution to state economies is positively enhanced as long-staying tourists spend more on transport, accommodation and food and beverages(Wang, Fong, Law & Fang 2018:472, Barros *et al.* 2010:13; Wang *et al.* 2012:67; Peypoch *et al.* 2012:1230 and Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia 2011:168). Antōnio & José (2009); Barros, Correia & Crouch (2008); Barros & Machado (2010) and Kozak (2001) also agree on the contribution of length of stay to tourists' spending and further state that even the tourists' experiences can be enhanced if tourists stay longer in a destination. It therefore pays dividend to the destination if tourists stay longer. Campos-Soria, Inchausti-Sintes, and Eugenio-Martin (2015) as cited in Adongo, Badu-Baiden1 & Boakye (2017:72) considers reduced length of stay as a phenomenon that adversely affect destinations, especially those with economies too

much dependent on tourism thus measures must be in place to ensure that tourists stay longer at destinations.

In Wang *et al.* (2012:67) it was stated that extended stay duration of tourists in a destination enhances tourists experiences as they partake in more activities and visit more places; therefore, increasing their spending, sense of affiliation and overall satisfaction. Length of stay may be used as a quantitative measure in estimating tourism performance as it means more and enhanced experiences at the destination and thus tourists' spending is upped (Kozak 2004). Tourists who stay for longer periods of time in destinations end up having knowledge exposure to tourism products in areas of proximity to their place of stay including neighbourhood locations. Tourists who stay for longer in destinations visited sightsee more attractions and partake in extra activities; hence their overall spending is affected positively (Ganson & Fillone 2014:24; Alen *et al.*2014:19). NZTD (1991) and Pearce (1990) as cited in Opperman (1994:835) note that number of places visited in a destination closely relates to how long they stay in the respective destination, meaning that the more areas visited in a destination the longer they would have stayed. As tourists stay for longer, the more the tourists' activities are spread out of the main cities and major tourism hubs to peripheral destinations and regions (Opperman 1994:835).

Researchers such as Kastenholtz (2005); Cannon & Ford (2002); Downward & Lumsdon, (2000; 2003) as cited by Celidoni *et al.* (2010:47) have found a positive relationship between stay duration and total tourists' spending. However, they also argue that shorter stays should not be underestimated as they record higher daily expenditure per capita. Opperman (1994:835) also agrees that shorter-staying tourists spend more per night than long stayers. Spotts & Mahoney (1991) as referenced in Opperman (1994:835) argue that appealing to tourists who spend more in a destination is of more economic sense than luring long stayers who spend less but Opperman (1994:835) reinforces that heavy spenders are most likely to consist of larger travel groups which tend to stay for longer periods in destinations visited.

Identifying and formulating a length of stay management policy as part of the broader tourism policy is significant in any destination if the tourism industry is to benefit more and make a noticeable contribution towards state economies (Peypoch *et al.* 2012:1230; Gómez-Déniza & Pérez-Rodríguezb 2019:13). According to Barros & Machado (2010) as cited in Grigolon *et al.* (2014:158) the length of stay variable is an important and relevant one as longer stay durations means more positive benefits socially, economically and environmentally while shorter stay durations may be associated with increased costs administrative wise for some tourism service providers (Martínez-Garcia & Raya 2008). The tourism industries would

therefore prefer tourists who reside in the destination for longer before returning to their places of origin as this reduces administration costs and possibly results in higher daily tourist spending (Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia 2011:168; Martinéz-Garcia & Raya 2008:1064).

Since length of stay is an important aspect to be considered in tourist decision-making and its strategic positive link with tourism revenue generated within a destination, understanding this variable therefore is very important for tourism marketers and policy makers as it aids in destination management and development (Celidoni *et al.* 2010:47; Martínez-Garcia & Raya 2008; Alen *et al.* 2014:30; Alegre & Pou 2006; Salmasi, Celidoni & Procidano 2012). Understanding factors influencing length of stay of visitors in destinations visited provides necessary information to destination marketers to attract tourists who are most likely to stay longer (Alen *et al.* 2014:20; Martinéz-Garcia & Raya 2008:1064; Barros & Machado 2010:692). Tourism policies that extend tourists' length of stay and promote high lodging and dining yields can therefore be designed if variables influencing length of stay of tourists are well understood (Gómez-Déniza & Pérez-Rodríguezb 2019:131). Though tourist numbers may be increasing, Wang *et al.* (2012:67) fear that tourism revenue might be falling in many destinations as tourists' length of stay is shortening.

It was stated in Wang *et al.* (2012:67) that length of stay plays a role in the carrying capacities of destinations. Understanding factors that influence length of stay is rampant as it aids in predicting the time that tourist will spend within the destination and the pressure they will put on local resources (Wang *et al.* 2012:68). According to Gokovali *et al.* (2006) as cited in Barros & Machado (2010:692), to achieve profit optimisation, destinations should therefore attempt to attract longer-staying tourists including repeat visitors as length of stay is modelled by past visits, particularly during off-peak seasons. Attracting longer-staying tourists involves identifying and understanding the factors that influence this variable in specific destinations (Gokovali *et al.* 2006) as length of stay determinants are specific to destinations concerned (Barros *et al.* 2008 as referenced in Barros & Machado 2010:692).

According to Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia (2011:168) destination product should be adapted to the length of time the tourist is staying at a destination; hence the importance of understanding length of stay determinants. According to Ritchie & Crouch (2003) as cited in Martinéz-Garcia & Raya (2008:1064) marketing campaigns must also be adjusted according to how long tourists stay at a destination; thus, further highlighting the importance of length of stay variable in the tourism equation. This assertion is further cemented by de Oliveira Santos, Ramos & Rey-Maquieira (2015:789) when they stated that better marketing strategies can be implemented if length of stay determinants are fully understood.

Davies & Mangan (1992); Legoherel (1998); Mak, Moncur & Yanomine (1977) as cited in Gokovali *et al.*(2007:737) and Wang *et al.* (2012:68) concluded that length of stay has a critical role in total tourist spending while on vacation, despite the fact that the findings are contradictory. The length of stay could signify the profile of tourists visiting a destination and their likelihood of spending while on vacation (Gokovali et *al.* 2007:737). Thus, tourism authorities design products responding to these profiles. This shows that the length of stay variable can be used as a way of segmenting tourists' markets, targeting and positioning of tourist destinations in the minds of the market.

Most researchers such as Celidoni *et al.* (2010:47); Alen *et al.* (2014:20); Alegre & Pou (2006:1343-1350); Gokovali *et al.* (2007:745), Salmasi *et al.* (2012:516); Šergo, Poropat & Ružić (2014:518); Grigolon *et al.* (2014:158) agree that though the subject of *length of stay* is very important, it has not been adequately researched. Thus, there is less literature on it. According to Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:114) length of stay has long attracted the interest of researchers but it is only from 2008 that this area has experienced an increase in the number of studies. The few studies that dealt with the length of stay variable according to Alen *et al.* (2014:20) include those conducted by Alegre & Pou (2006); Alegre, Mateo & Pou (2011); Barros & Machado (2010); Barros *et al.* (2010); Ferrer-Rosell *et al.* (2014); Gokovali *et al.*(2007); Grigolon *et al.* (2004); Martínez-Garcia & Raya (2008); Meng & Uysal (2008); Nicolau & Mas (2006, 2009); Peypoch *et al.* (2012); Salmasi *et al.* (2012); Wu & Carson (2008). According to Salmasi *et al.* (2012:516) the few studies that focused on length of stay include those by Mak *et al.* (1977); Mak & Nishimura (1979); Bell & Leeworthy (1990); Fleischer & Pizam (2002).

Even if the factors that influence length of stay are now known as evidenced by the outcomes of the influx of studies on the subject as evidenced above, Barros *et al.* (2008) as referenced in Barros & Machado (2010:692) and Solera *et al.* (2018:56) argue that they cannot be universally applied to all destinations as these factors are specific to respective destinations; hence this study on South African destinations. The length of stay variable has escalated in its importance now especially, as a decline in the variable has been registered at most destinations with tourists undertaking more shorter trips throughout the year than one long vacation once a year (Alegre & Pou 2006:1345; Martínez-Garcia & Raya 2008; Barros & Machado 2010; Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* 2014; Gokovali *et al.* 2007; Salmasi *et al.* 2012; Aguiló Perez *et al.* 2005 as cited in Barros & Machado 2010:694).

Alegre & Pou (2006:1352) in their study emphasised the influence of tourists' socio-demographic characteristics on length of stay and showed the elasticity of length of stay to

variations in prices of holidays. Increases in the price of a holiday might not necessarily put tourists off from travelling but instead induce them to shorten their stay duration in destinations visited. Alegre & Pou (2006:1352) argue that when estimating price elasticity based on tourists' numbers, the final effect of price changes on the demand is under-estimated as length of stay might have been ignored. Borrowing the concept from Morgan (1991), another possible explanation for shorter average stay durations could be that tourists might decide to choose a better-quality destination or type of holiday if they can compensate for its higher cost by reducing their length of stay (Alegre & Pou 2006:1346). It is evident from Alegre & Pou's (2006) analysis that holidays are becoming shorter in length as the price per day rises; thus, highlighting the trade-off effect or opportunity costs principle. Alegre & Pou (2006:1346) concluded that the higher the price per day, the less the length of stay.

Celidoni *et al. (*2010:48) and Salmasi *et al.* (2012:516) point out an increasing trend in the number of short stays and the decreasing average duration of holidays displaying a shift in preferences for short stays instead of a few longer ones. This shift of tourists' preferences in favour of shorter stays, however, presents an economic window which could be exploited as these short stays record a higher daily expenditure per capita (Celidoni *et al.* 2010:48). ISTAT as cited in Celidoni *et al.* (2010:49) defines short stays as holidays that last up to three nights. Gokovali *et al.* (2006) as cited in Barros & Machado (2010:692) labels length of stay a key demand variable requiring research attention.

3.2.2 Factors that influence length of stay of tourists in destinations visited

The factors that influence length of stay of tourists in a destination according to Barros *et al.* (2008) as cited in Barros & Machado (2010:695) and Barros *et al.* (2010:14) and supported by Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1234) and Solera *et al.* (2018:56) are not universal across all destinations. Instead they are specific to respective destinations. Though some factors may be common across destinations, others may not be determinants of this important variable in other destinations as evidenced by the findings of several studies conducted on the length of stay variable. Therefore, recommendations to manipulate the length of stay variable for destinations should rather be destination specific as supported by Barros *et al.* (2008) Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1234); Kruger & Saayman (2014:9) and Solera *et al.* (2018:56).This means that prescription to extend visitors' length of stay in a destination depends on the factors applicable to influence the length of stay of tourists in the respective destinations. What may work in one destination, may not work equally in another destination. Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1234) also concur with Barros *et al.* (2008) that although determinants of length of stay at a specific destination may be known, it is not possible to control all the elements, but to concentrate on the key ones (those of significant effect). In the case of Madagascar, they

recommended that concentrating on marketing and promoting destination attributes and the physical appearance would have a substantial effect on extending length of stay and so does targeting older, male, affluent, educated tourists (Peypoch *et al.* 2012:1234).

Several researches on length of stay have been undertaken in different destinations using multiple methodologies (descriptive analysis, cross-classification of variables, regression analysis and survival analysis) as cited in Ganson & Fillone (2014:238), and varying tourists market segments (senior tourists, golf tourists, travelling on low cost airlines, female tourists, varying nationalities and many more). Although these studies agree on some influencing factors on length of stay, they also disagree on other factors or they don't conclusively comment on some factors, as these variables were not included in such studies.

Most studies concur that length of stay is influenced by **socio-demographic and economic factors** (Antōnio & José 2009; Bargeman & Poel 2006 as referenced in Wang *et al.* 2012:67; Nicolau & Mas 2004; Alegre & Pou 2006:1352 & Martínez-Garcia & Raya 2008; Peypoch *et al.* 2012:1231; Gokovali *et al.* 2007:736; Aguiló Perez, Alegre & Sard 2005; Menezes *et al.* 2008 as cited in Peypoch *et al.* 2012:1231), **the characteristics of the trip** (Alegre & Pou 2007 and Martínez-Garcia & Raya 2008 as referenced in Alegre *et al.* 2011:559; Allen *et al.* 2014:21; Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* 2014:115, Peypoch *et al.* 2012:123; Gössling, Scott & Michael 2018:2088) and **destination attributes** (Alegre & Pou 2007 and Martínez-Garcia & Raya 2008 as referenced in Alegre *et al.* 2011:559; Peypoch *et al.* 2012:1231, Kruger & Saayman 2014:9 and Gössling *et al.* 2018:2088). The factors influencing variable length of stay will be discussed below under the headings: Socio-demographic factors, Economic factors, Trip and stay characteristics and Destination attributes

3.2.2.1 Socio-demographic factors

Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:115) highlights the past studies that concluded socio-demographic factors as influencers of length of stay of tourists in destinations visited and these were conducted by researchers such as Opperman (1995; 1997); Seaton & Palmer (1997); Sung *et al. (*2001); Alegre & Pou (2006; 2007); Alegre *et al.* (2011); Martínez-Garcia & Raya (2008); Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia (2011); Barros *et al.* (2008); Gokovali *et al.* (2007); Machado (2010); Menezes *et al.* (2008); Wang *et al.* (2012); Peypoch *et al.* (2012); Salmasi *et al.* (2012); Thrane & Farstad (2011); Jacobsen *et al.* (2018:33). Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:115) point out that the socio-demographic variables commonly used and found to influence tourist length of stay are age, income, education and nationality as they are easily obtainable and are of importance to destination managers and marketers. According to Alegre & Pou (2006:1343) and Grigolon *et al.* (2014:159), the stay duration of tourists in the destination

visited is affected by socio-demographic factors related with family and personal characteristics of the tourists and then economic factors such as income and price of the holiday product. Personal and family-related characteristics with an effect on length of stay determination include tourists' age, number of children, family status, profession and level of education (Alegre & Pou 2006:1343; Grigolon *et al.* 2014:159). Some of these factors as pointed out by Alegre & Pou (2006:1343) may affect length of stay directly (couple's desire to make their holiday coincide might limit the length of the holiday while the existence of children with regulated holidays might lead to a longer holiday period) while other (age or level of education) have an indirect influence as they condition tourists' preferences, values and travel motivations. The variables to be discussed below include age, civil status, gender, nationality, education, occupation, individual's life cycle stage.

- **Age**

Alegre *et al.* (2011:562) and Santos *et al.* (2015:796) determined that age has a significant influence on tourists' preference for shorter or long stay duration. Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1234) and various other researchers including Alegre & Pou (2003); Barros & Machado (2010); Barros *et al.* (2010); Blazey (1992); Fleischer & Pizam (2002); Fleischer & Seiler (2002); Nicolau & Mas (2009); Romsa & Blenman (1989); Salmasi *et al.* (2012) as cited in Alen *et al.* (2014:27) and Solera et al. (2018:58) empirically found a positive association between age and length of stay. Fleischer & Pizam (2002) and Fleischer & Seiler (2002) as referenced in Alen *et al.* (2014:21) however argue that although there is a positive co-relationship between the two variables (age and length of stay), this relationship starts being negative at a certain age due to health conditions of the travellers. Blazey (1992); Fleischer & Pizam (2002); Fleischer & Seiler (2002); Romsa & Blenman (1989); Salmasi *et al.* (2012) as cited in Alen *et al.* (2014:21) state that individuals in the retirement category stay for longer in destinations visited as they have ample free time available compared to the economically active individuals in the job market.

Gokovali *et al.* (2007:745) disconfirmed the proposition that elderly people tend to stay longer, probably due to their research having been conducted outside holiday times for the elderly. Another reason why age was disapproved as a determinant factor on length of stay is that the destination under study (Bodrum) is best known for night life and entertainment for the young and middle-aged tourists – not the elderly. As a result of the timing of the study, Gokovali *et al.'s (*2007*)* findings are inconclusive on the effect of the age variable on the length of stay; hence they recommend that such research be carried out at different times to take into consideration various age groups. Age was found to condition length of stay, especially older tourists staying longer than young ones (Wang *et al.* 2012:70). Tourists aged 65 and above

(retired) tended to stay longer than those in other age groups (Salmasi *et al.* 2012:521). Martinéz-Garcia & Raya (2008:1072) found age to significantly influence length of stay of low-cost tourism in Spain with older tourists tending to stay longer at a destination – this being attributed to the time availability and permitting incomes.

According to Alegre & Pou (2003); Blazey (1992); Nicolau & Mas (2006); Romsa & Blenman (1989) as referenced in Alen *et al.* (2014:20), seniors tend to stay for longer at a destination as they are not tied to work or family and tend to more discretionary time and income to partake in travelling than do other travellers. Barros *et al.* (2010:13) also established that as age increased among the golf tourists in Algarve, Portugal, and so did length of stay. Older tourists were found by Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:120) to stay longer than those in other age categories, a conclusion which is supported by many previous researchers except Barros *et al.* (2008). Barros *et al.* (2008) as cited in Barros *et al.* (2010:14) found a negative association between length of stay and age. Jacobsen *et al.* (2018:33) found age to be not a significant influence of tourists' length of stay in South-Western Norway. Adongo, Badu-Baiden1 & Boakye (2017:73) found a negative relationship between age and los of backpackers in Ghana.

When elders use low-cost airlines or Legacy airlines, their stay increases compared to the 25-44-year age groups and this increase is somewhat less when they travel as part of a tour package (Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* 2014:120). Mak & Nishimura (1979) and Mak *et al.* (1977) as cited in Alegre & Pou (2006:1345) found age, particularly the young and the senior tourists, to be positively related to length of stay. The middle-aged tourists were however found to be negatively related to length of stay of tourists.

- **Civil status**

Mak *et al.* (1977) and Mak & Nishimura (1979) as referenced in Alegre & Pou (2006:1345) determined that married tourists were negatively related to length of stay. Salmasi *et al.* (2012:521) ascertained that married people stay for shorter periods than do single and widowed people, but no differences with those who were divorced and separated. Regarding civil status that is marital status, Ganson & Fillone (2014:245) established that single tourists tend to stay for in Guamaras than married tourists; hence the conclusion that civil status has' a significant influence on tourists' length of stay. Single tourists may have the luxury and autonomy to spend more time on holidays compared to married tourists. Ganson & Fillone (2014:245) note that the travel group of single tourists (that is co-workers and friends) may participate in more and specific touristic endeavours as they most likely may be of the same age and similar interests. Raya-Vilchez & Martinez-Garcia (2011:171/2) found that mixed

results were registered regarding the variable marital status on length of stay of low-cost airline tourists to Spain. Married tourists stayed longer than unmarried among the British, but not other nationalities.

- **Gender**

Gender is also another variable that was found to greatly influence length of stay where male tourists stayed longer than their female counterparts (Wang *et al*. 2012:70; Mortazavi & Cialanai 2017:886). According to studies conducted by Barros & Machado (2010) and Meng & Uysal (2008) as cited in Alen *et al*. (2014:27); Peypoch *et al*. (2012:1234) men have a tendency of staying in destinations visited longer than women. According to Wang *et al*. (2012:70) the gender finding contradicts that of Antōnio & José (2009) where female tourists were found to stay longer than male tourists in Azores, Portugal. Santos, Ramos, & Rey-Maquieira (2015:794) showed that women take part in trips of longer duration than men. Females students were also found to go on holidays for longer period that their male counterparts (Thrane 2016:182) thus jellying well with findings by Salmasi et al., 2012; Ferrer-Rossel et al 2014; Santos *et a*l., 2015. However, regarding this variable, Alen *et al*. (2014:27) found no relationship between sexual orientation and length of stay of senior tourists to Spain. Barros *et al*. (2010:13) found gender to be a negative and statistically insignificant determinant of length of stay; therefore, tallying with Gokovali *et al*. (2006). Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia (2011:170) also found gender to insignificantly influence length of stay of low-cost airline tourists for all nationalities.

- **Tourists' Nationality**

With regard to the effect of nationality on lengths of stay of tourists in a destination, Fridgen (1996); Iverson (1997); Gursoy & Chen (2000) and Sussmann & Rashcovsky (1997) as cited in Kim & Prideaux (2005:349) discovered that this variable has a significant influence on length of stay of tourists with most Europeans staying for longer periods. That is 26-27 days while Japanese stay for 11 days (shorter periods). Gokovali *et al.* (2007:736); Alegre *et al*. (2011:562), Raya-Vilchez & Martinéz-Garcia (2011:171); Wang *et al*. (2012:68) and Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1234); Adongo, Badu-Baiden1 & Boakye (2017:72)

Aguilara & Díaza (2019:1); Aguiló, Rosselló & Vila (2017:15/16) and Thrane (2016:1363) also found empirically that nationality has a significant effect on length of stay of tourists. Kim & Prideaux (2005:355) discovered that American and Australian tourists were highly motivated to visit Korea for culture and history compared to Asian tourists. Due to this, the Americans and Australians were most likely to stay for longer periods of time. This could also be explained by the greater travel distance and higher airfares paid for travelling. Martinéz-Garcia & Raya (208:1072) established that nationality (cultural effect) affects length of stay of tourists in a

destination visited as evidenced by Irish, Dutch, Belgians and French staying much longer than Italians, Germans and British in Spain.

Maumbe & Donaldson (2010:1), although they did not clearly specify nationality, determined that origin of tourists influence their stay duration in the Western Cape, South Africa. They ascertained that overseas tourists stay longer than do those in other categories. Barros *et al.* (2010:13) also found some variations on stay durations of golf tourists in Algarve, Portugal, by nationality. Divisekera (2010:631) in their analysis of the characteristics of tourists from their four major markets realised that UK tourists stay the longest of all the four market segments followed by the US market with a significantly high proportion of the VFR category. Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1234) concluded generally that "higher income, older, male and educated tourists of all nationalities are more likely to stay the longest in Madagascar". Nationality was empirically proven to influence length of stay of tourists in Madagascar as all nationalities studied stayed for longer periods (Peypoch *et al.* 2012:1234). Country of residence (nationality) was also found to explain some variations in stay durations of travellers to Spain (Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* 2014:120). Tourists from Germany travelling as part of a tour-package using low-cost airlines stay longer than UK tourists followed by tourists from Scandinavian countries using low-cost airlines and Legacy airlines (longer than UK residents). On the other hand, tourists from the Benelux countries stayed for longer where they travelled on packaged trips and behave similarly to UK travellers when they make reservations for holidays themselves (Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* 2014:120). Province of origin, an equivalent to place of origin also had an influence of length of stay of tourists to Kruger national park (Kruger & Saayman 2014:9)

- **Education**

Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1234) concluded generally that higher schooled visitors tend to stay for longer periods in Madagascar. The level of education was also found to influence length of stay with middle school through to college education tending to stay longer but post-graduate tourists and high professionals recorded shorter stay durations (Wang *et al.* 2012:71); thus cementing Antōnio and José's (2009) findings but contradicting with those of Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1234). Most-educated tourists were found to be most likely to stay for shorter periods than those with low levels of education (Salmasi *et al.* 2012:521). Martinéz-Garcia & Raya (2008:1074) found the level of education to be significantly influencing length of stay of low-cost tourism in Spain. Martinéz-Garcia & Raya (2008:1072) particularly found that tourists with lowest level of education (primary) stay longer at a destination than those with higher education but no significant differences were found between secondary and university levels. Jacobsen *et al.* (2018:33) found less educated tourists to stay longer in south western Norway

than the highly educated ones thus agreeing with de Menes *et al.* (2008) but contrasting with Barros & Machado (2010).

With regard to the level of education as a determinant of tourists' stay duration in Spain, Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:120) determined that tourists with up to secondary education stay for shorter periods than the university students; thus agreeing with Barros *et al.* (2008); Barros & Machado (2010); Machado (2010) but varies with Gokovali *et al.* (2006); Salmasi *et al.* (2012); Wang *et al.* (2012); Menezes *et al.* (2008); Martínez-Garcia & Raya (2008). Menezes *et al.* (2008) as cited in Barros *et al.* (2010:14) also found that the higher educated tourists are, the less they stay in the destination visited. Barros *et al.* (2010:13) in their study of length of stay of golfers in Algarve, Portugal, increased with the level of education, a finding which agrees with that of Peypoch *et al.* (2012: 1234). Mak *et al.* (1977) and Mak & Nishimura (1979) as cited in Alegre & Pou (2006:1345) found no significant correlation between education and length of stay. From the above literature; it is thus evident that there are inconsistencies in findings regarding the relationship between education and length of stay.

- **Occupation**

Martinéz-Garcia & Raya (2008:1072) also discovered the effect of occupation on stay duration with the low-level jobbed and those that work for themselves staying for shorter periods attributed to the time-restriction on the tourism decision. Aguilara &,Díaza (2019:10) ascertained that unemployed people, pensioners and students stayed for longer in Spain thus signifying the effect of time availability on length of stay. Tourists who are employed are more likely to stay for shorter durations than the unemployed (Ganson & Fillone 2014:245). This finding by Ganson & Fillone (2014:245) is reinforcement to Gokovali *et al.*'s (2007) findings. The length of stay on vacation for working-class tourists may only be restricted to weekends and public holidays and annual leave since they are committed to their job during the week. The type of job people perform is also closely linked to the income they earn. Tourists who have high-paying jobs are most likely to stay longer in a destination visited than the low-paid ones, especially when time and other factors permit. Raya-Vilchez & Martinéz-Garcia (2011:171/2) in their research registered mixed results regarding the influence of occupation on length of stay of low-cost airline tourists to Spain. Retired Germans stayed longer than those employed only for German tourists. Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia (2011:170) argue that although some explanatory variables may have a straight-forward effect on length of stay, some variables may have mixed effects. Having a well-paid job (higher income) does not necessarily mean that the tourists will stay longer in a destination as this may imply that the employee does not have enough time to travel as the job might be taxing. On the other hand, having enough free time to travel does not necessarily mean that tourists will stay for longer

at a destination as money may be restricted, perhaps due to a job which does not pay that much (Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia 2011:170).

- **Individual's life-cycle stage**

Grigolon *et al.* (2014); Lawson (1991), Opperman (1995); Seaton & Palmer (1997) concluded an association between the individual's life-cycle stage and the length of his/her holiday. According to Cooper *et al.* (2007) as cited by Alen *et al.* (2014:21) the individual's domestic age, that is the stage of lifecycle, explains why tourists demand different tourists' products and why others are able while others are unable to partake in tourism. The stage of an individual's life cycle or domestic age influences the availability of time and income, which in turn influences tourism demand and travel propensity. However, Alen *et al.* (2014:27) found no significant relationship between economic status and self-perceived available time and length of stay of seniors in Spain. According to Barros & Machado (2010:693) in their study on length of stay determinants in Madeira, families travelling with children also tend to stay longer in order to save money in the overall package a finding which is reinforced by Scholtz, Kruger & Saayman (2015:44).

3.2.2.2 Economic factors

Economic variables with an influence of stay duration of tourists in destinations visited as supported by the economic theory include income, price and even the economic situation an individual is exposed to (Peypoch *et al.* 2012:1231). According to Alegre & Pou (2006:1344) "a rise in income with a fixed relative price should lead to an increase in the demand for tourist services while a rise in a holiday prices with fixed income should lead to a fall in demand". Tourists thus assess holiday alternatives based on the benefits to be accrued while at the same time weigh the cost of each one and the stay duration, they can afford considering their ability financially and timewise (Alegre & Pou 2006:1344). Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1231); Eugenio-Martin (2003); Morley (1992); Morley (2009); Sakai (1988) as cited in Barros & Machado (2010:696) however criticise the economic theory of consumer behaviour (optimisation of utility given the budgetary constraints which are price and income when faced with a buying decision) for failing to acknowledge the influence of social and psychological factors on consumer decision-making. The economic variables discussed below include income and prices of tourism products in the destination.

- **Income**

Lew *et al.* (2014:41) consider money important in travelling as "it can effectively buy time or distance thus allowing tourists willing to spend more to travel further or do more things within a limited time frame. Money is considered to buy time in that it shortens transit times or for the

same amount of time it can buy distance thus opening a much wider array of destination opportunities for the tourists" (Lew *et al.* 2014:41/2). Deducing from the above, if money can reduce transit time (transport mode chosen), then it can as well increase the time to spend at the destination partaking in more activities as the tourist will have more time to spend in the destination visited. Research findings by Gokovali *et al.* (2007:744) were consistent with the findings of past research which concluded a relationship that is positive between income and length of stay where length of stay is expected to rise as the annual household income increases. Although this happens, it is not always the case that average daily spending also increases (Gokovali *et al.*, 2007:744).

Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1234) concluded generally that higher income of the tourists is associated with longer stay in Madagascar. Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1234) however could not conclusively explain the influence of travel costs on length of stay as the findings were unclear. Wang *et al.* (2012:70) discovered that length of stay is influenced by income, with higher-income earners tending to stay longer than low-income earners citeris paribus which concurs with Mak *et al.* (1977) and Mak & Nishimura (1979) as cited in Alegre & Pou (2006:1345) and Flescher & Pizam (2002) as referenced in Wang *et al.* (2012:68). Salmasi *et al.* (2012:521) also concluded that the higher the income, the longer the stay duration owing to the economic theory of utility optimisation, given the time and financial constraints. Both income increase or price decrease and income decrease, and price increase resulted in length of stay increase and decrease accordingly (Salmasi *et al.* 2012:521).

The level of income was empirically found to have an influence on the length of stay of tourists with tourists of a higher level of income significantly prolonging their visits (Aguilara & Díaza 2019:10; Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* 2014:120). High-income tourists who travelled with Legacy airline reported the greatest increase in length of stay (Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* 2014:120). Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:120) also generally determined that the type of airline used slightly influenced the length of stay as in the case of low-cost airlines staying slightly longer than those who travelled by Legacy airline. Maumbe & Donaldson (2010:15) in their study of tourists to the Western Cape province of South Africa found that as income increased, the length of stay decreased, which was surprising, as one would expect higher-income tourists to stay longer in a destination. Maumbe & Donaldson (2010:15) however argue that this finding could imply that those with high incomes have more opportunities and choices of destinations; hence they tend to stay shorter in one province on one trip. Solera *et al.* (2018:49) also found a negative relationship between income and length of stay.

Related to income is the social class. Barros *et al.* (2008) as cited in Barros *et al.* (2010:14) and Barros & Machado (2010:694) ascertained that length of stay is positively correlated with social class and level of affluence among the Portuguese tourists travelling to South America. Barros *et al.* (2010:14) however found class to be negative and statistically insignificant as a determinant of stay duration of golfing tourists in Algarve Portugal. Montañoa, Rossellób & Sansób (2019:112) argues that Age and the level of education acquired could be easy ways of finding high-income customers.

- **Prices of tourism products in the destination**

This variable will be discussed under economic factors although it may also be regarded as a destination characteristic. The higher the prices of tourism products in destinations visited the more the pressure exerted on discretionary income of the tourists. Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1231) postulate that price explain the length of stay of tourists alongside the income of tourists and other travel characteristics. Expensive destinations erode the spending power of tourists and they probably compensate for it with short stays. Salmasi *et al.* (2012:521) postulate that prices of tourism products in destination visited and the income of tourists work from opposite sides in influencing visitors' length of stay; hence either a decrease in prices or an increase in income enhances the spending power which may influence how long they stay. A favourable exchange rate may have the effect of increasing the spending power of international inbound tourists in destinations visited and may also increase their probability of staying longer holding other factors constant, and the opposite is also true. Šergo *et al.* (2014:521) state that the relationship between length of stay and relative tourist price is expected to be negative as the increase of relative tourist price in the destination can reduce the number of nights planned for holiday vacation. The length of stay model according to Šergo *et al.* (2014:532) however yielded no results due to an insignificant level of price variables. Adongo, Badu-Baiden1 & Boakye 2017:72) found prices of tourism products in destination as represented by the overcharging effect to be negatively related to length of stay of tourists.

3.2.2.3 Trip and stay characteristics

Most common variables analysed under trip and stay characteristics according to Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:115) include: travel cost, destination characteristics, trip organisation, travel motivation, repeat visits, type of lodging, travelling party, distance travelled, type of destinations visited, season of travel, time of booking, number of trips per year, experience of travelling abroad and satisfaction as influencers of length of stay of tourists. Trip and destination characteristics with effect and relevant to length of stay according to Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:115) include climate, urban and coastal resorts, destination image, prices within the destination, destination familiarity and experience. The variables to be discussed below

include tourist travel budget, number of activities performed at the destination, preferred mode of transport, type of accommodation used, size of the travel group, composition of the travel group, time the holiday is undertaken, travel motivations (purpose of travel), distance travelled, travel types, number of destination countries visited within one trip, time the reservation is done, frequency of travel in a year, health status of tourists, time availability, cultural distance between tourist and the hosts.

- **Tourist travel budget**

Aguilara & Díaza (2019:1) concluded that length of stay is affected by budgetary constraints amongst other factors meaning that how long tourists stay in a destination visited is influenced by how much money they have available for the holiday. Mak *et al.* (1977) and Mak & Nishimura (1977) as cited in Alegre & Pou (2006:1345) ascertained an inverse relationship between per capita daily expenditure and length of stay. Barros *et al.* (2010:14) discovered that length of stay is related in a positive direction to travel budget, meaning that the bigger the budget, the longer the length of stay holding other factors constant. Tourists travelling to the both northern region and the southern region of Kruger Park South Africa with a higher total average spending were found to be long stayers (Kruger & Saayman 2014:8/9) thus reinforcing the finding by Gokovali *et al.* (2007) that tourists who spend more stay longer.

Ganson & Fillone (2014:238) also unearthed that both the total travel budget and the travel budget per hour set by tourists is directly associated with their length of stay in Guamaras, Philippines. Though higher travel budgets are usually associated with longer stay durations it may be possible for even shorter stay durations to have a high budget depending on the type of accommodation, class of airline travel, type of restaurants used and many more (Ganson & Fillone 2014:238). Ganson & Fillone (2014:245) also found that the more the tourists spend on hourly rate in the destination visited, the shorter they will stay in that destination as it puts pressure on their monitory resources. Related to travel budget is the expenditure per tourists per day. According to Wang *et al.* (2012:71) the expenditure per tourists per day strongly influences length of stay as more days spent generates more expenses, which means higher travel budget needed. Ganson & Fillone's (2014:238) argument still suffices that tourists with higher expenditure per day might end up staying for shorter periods as their money will be depleted fast. Thrane (2016:181) also found trips costs per day to influence length of stay of students on vacation meaning that the higher the cost per day, the lower the stay duration in the destination visited holding everything else constant. This makes intuitive sense, especially when money is a restrictor.

- **The number of activities performed at the destination**

The more the activities undertaken at the destination, the longer the stay of respective tourists in that destination (Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* 2014:116; Lawson (1991) as cited by Alen *et al.* 2014:22; Alen *et al.* 2014:29). Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:116) point out that most studies which looked into activities partaken do not address directly how stay duration is affected and the activities are not included as variables that explain the phenomenon for trips which are not day visits. According to Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:116) only Barros & Machado (2010) included a limited number of activities at the destination as explanations for tourists' stay duration and these activities included buying wine, gambling, visiting flora and fauna and many more. Tourists participating in these activities stayed longer at the destination. Barros *et al.* (2010:13) determined that the events and activities in the destination influence the length of stay of golf tourists in Algarve, Portugal. Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:120) discovered that tourists who do some activities at the destination generally stay longer than those who do not. In fact, the more the activities tourists participate in, the longer they might stay. Adongo *et al.* (2017:72) discovered that tourists who engaged in a variety of activities significantly stayed longer in Ghana. Jacobsen *et al.* (2018:33) also concur with Ferrer-Rosell *et al.* 2014) that activities undertaken by tourists have an effect on length of stay in the destination. They specifically discovered that tourists who participated in hiking and outdoor recreation and landscape/nature sightseeing tend to stay for longer in south –western Norway. Anantamongkolkula, Butcher & Wang (2019:150) discovered that long-staying tourists were those who were more proactive and willing to interact with local community and were interested in Thai culture and its people and were more accepting of the local environment, regardless of its negative aspects.

- **Preferred mode of transport**

Santos *et al.* (2015:796) concluded that the means of transportation used by the tourists has an influence on how long they stay in the destination. Transport mode used can represent a portion of the holiday budget hence if this portion is big, it means that less money could be available for staying longer holding other factors constant. Salmasi *et al.* (2012:521), although this was mainly domestic tourism, discovered that the preferred mode of transport for those who stayed longer was plane, train, ship and rented car, not busses and camper. Menezes *et al.* (2008) as cited in Barros *et al.* (2010:14) ascertained empirically that travelling in charter flights (transport) was found to increase the length of stay of tourists in Azores. Mode of transport was also found to influence stay duration of tourists as supported by the finding that tourists who used public transport were long stayers in Santiago (Rodrígueza, Martínez-Roget & González-Muriasa 2018:17)

- **Type of accommodation used**

According to Mortazavi & Cialani (2017:886); Martínez-Garcia & Raya (2008:1074); Nicolau & Mas (2006); Salmasi *et al.* (2012) and Lawson (1991) as cited by Alen *et al.* (2014:22) the type of accommodation used by tourists at the destination determines how long they will stay. Wang *et al.* (2012:71) also agree that the type of accommodation used has a significant influence on length of stay, even though they did not include this variable in their own research of senior Israeli citizens. Barros *et al.* (2010:13) also ascertained that length of stay is greatly influenced by the type of hotel (accommodation) used by golf tourists in Algarve, Portugal; thus, concurring with Raya- Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia's (2011:171) findings. However, Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia's (2011:171) study registered mixed results with regard to type of accommodation and length of stay. British, Italian and German tourists staying in camps registered longer stays at the destination unlike French staying in camps. French tourists who stayed for long were the ones who were staying in family or friends' accommodation and rented houses (Raya- Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia 2011:172). With regard to different categories of hotels used, no significant differences were found in length of stay of any of the nationalities. Expensive accommodation such as hotels as cited by Alegre & Pou (2006) in Alen *et al.* (2014:22); Alen *et al.* (2014:27) tends to reduce the length of stay as the daily budget is increased. Concerning type of accommodation, Salmasi *et al.* (2012:520/1) established that rented houses, multi-property camping and houses for free are preferred by tourists for longer stay duration, unlike agro tourism and bed and breakfast. Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia (2011:170) argue that although the type of accommodation is used in the analysis of length of stay as an explanatory variable, it is a proxy of the cost of stay. This is logical, as staying in a hotel increases the tourist's spending per day as compared to rented apartments, free accommodation (secondary homes or friends and relatives' accommodation), tourists' campsites and other cost-effective forms of accommodation. Aguilara & Díaza (2019:10) discovered that budgetary constraints as represented by the accommodation type variable also affect length of stay a finding which construe with the findings of this study. Type of accommodation was found to have a significant impact, determined by its cost. Those choosing non-hotel lodgings, such as their own holiday house, a rented home, a campsite, or the house of family or friends tended to stay longer (Aguilara & Díaza 2019:10).

The nature of the hotel as well, has a bearing on the tourists' expenditure per day with upmarket establishments costing more than lower-end properties (Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia 2011:170). Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:119) discovered that tourists who stay at their own holiday homes at the destination stay the longest; therefore, agreeing with the findings by Barros *et al.* (2008); Martínez-Garcia & Raya (2008); Raya (2012) and Salmasi *et al.*

(2012). Visitors using Legacy Airlines and Low-cost airlines showed the main increases in duration for those who stay in second homes, stay with friends and relatives and other types of cost-effective accommodation. On the contrary, package travellers showed longer stays in other kinds of hotels (Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* 2014:119). Type of accommodation was found to have an influence on the length of stay with non-hotel accommodations such as campsites, apartments, own houses and rented homes staying longer than those in hotel accommodation; hence the price effect (Martinéz-Garcia & Raya 2008:1072). Low-price accommodation tended to be associated with higher stay duration than that of their counterparts. No significant difference was noted among different hotel categories.

- **Cultural distance between tourists and the hosts**

Maumbe & Donaldson (2010:15) ascertained a negative correlation between cultural distance and length of stay. As the cultural distance between the tourists and the hosts increase, the length of stay decreased. Tourists with greater cultural distance from the hosts tended to stay shorter, were more likely to use tour groups and were more likely to be confined in the city than tourists with smaller cultural differences. This finding is in line with Reisinger (2009) assertion that cultural differences between the visitors and the hosts impact on visitors' travel behaviour (Maumbe & Donaldson 2010:2). Jackman *et al.* (2020:9) analysed airport data of over 350,000 pleasure tourists to Barbados and found that their length of stay increases with cultural distance.

- **Availability of time**

Aguilara & Díaza (2019:1) concluded that time availability affects length of stay of tourists in destination visited together with other factors of course. According to Lew *et al.* (2014:41) holiday times are usually confined with minimum probability of extension. However, tourists do have control over how they choose to spend their resources in terms of time and money, and this depends on whether they value time as a resource to be used wisely or as a commodity that can be spent in many places. Tourists' stay durations in destinations visited depend on whether they are out-come oriented or process-oriented (Lew *et al.* 2014:41). Tourists who seek to optimise time spent at the destination by minimising transit times are regarded as outcome-oriented while those that regard the journey itself as an important component as the final experience in the destination visited are named process-oriented tourists. The outcome-oriented tourist regards time as a scarce resource which cannot be saved, archived or accumulated for future use; hence they see time spent in transit as a cost which must be compensated for by shorter stay at a destination (Truong & Henscher 1985 as cited in Lew *et al.* (2014:41). According to Chaves *et al.* (1989); Walsh *et al.* (1990) as cited in Lew *et al.* (2014:41) tourists that are process-oriented tour, sightsee and make multiple

stops. Tourists with limited time tend to be resource-oriented or outcome-oriented (travel and want to get to the destination or attraction as quickly as possible) while those with longer time budgets tend to be more commodity-oriented or process-oriented and thus engage in touring, sightseeing and exploring in transit and thus stay longer in the destination (Lew *et al.* 2014:41).

Another twist to time availability is that by Thrane (2016). Thrane (2016:183) empirically found that student tourists who go on a vacation without concluding the date of return(fully open returners not just partly) stayed for longer than those with a predetermined return date before the trip embarks and this could be intuitively be attributed to the fact that they don't want to go back home before attaining the climax of their enjoyment. This means that these students have time available were they could stay longer if need be a scenario not possible with tourists who have to be back to work by a certain time.

Availability of time is a direct factor that influences how long tourists stay in a destination visited provided other factors permit, especially finance. Some factors that have been studied by many researchers are proxies for time availability. The type of job somebody does, whether employed or self-employed is an indication of whether one has time, limited time or a lot of time at their disposal. Age is another explanatory variable (proxy for time) that has been offered as a likely reason why older tourists tend to stay longer in destinations visited as they have all the time they need. Alegre *et al.* (2011:561) considered occupation as a proxy for availability of time as they found pensioners and students to be long stayers in a destination visited. Ganzone & Fillone (2014:245) also concluded that the employed tend to spend less time in destinations visited as they are committed to their jobs thus occupation can be a proxy of time available. Alan *et al. (*2014:28), Wang et al. (2012:71) and Solera *et al.* (2018:58) also found the senior tourist market to Spain to stay for longer period than the other age groups thus representing the availability of time they have due to the fact that they don't have work commitments. The influence of time availability was also cemented by the finding that older, pensioners, unemployed people and students stayed for longer in Spain (Aguilara & Díaza 2019:10). All this evidence shows that other factors can be used as proxies for time.

- **Health status of tourists**

The health status of tourists was registered by Fleischer & Pizam (2002) as cited in Wang *et al.* (2012:68) as positively related to length of stay of tourists. That is, the healthier the tourist, the longer the stay duration in the destination visited.This makes intuitive sense as a healthy person can participate in a lot of activities in the destination visited but sickling tourists might not want to spend a lot of time away from their trusted medical practioners back home. Tourists who travel for medical purposes of course may stay longer or shorter in the destination visited depending on the nature of their medical condition.

- **Size of the travel group**

Number of people travelling as a group was found by Alegre *et al.* (2011: 562), Adongo, Badu-Baiden1 & Boakye (2017:72), Aguilara & Díaza (2019:10) and Gómez-Déniz & Pérez-Rodríguez (2019:148) to have an influence on tourists' stay duration. According to Alegre & Pou (2006); Salmasi *et al.* (2012); Lawson (1991) and Alen *et al.* (2014:29), as the size of the travelling party increases, the stay duration lowers, most probably due to economic restrictions. Salmasi *et al.* (2012:522) maintains that the longer length of stay is more sensitive to the number of participants in the trip than shorter durations. In other words, the more the participants in a holiday trip the shorter the stay duration, and the smaller the travel group, the longer the length of stay due to the budgetary autonomy. Kruger & Saayman (2014:9) also found that smaller groups of tourists to the southern region of Kruger Park in South Africa were associated with longer stays a finding which congrues with Alegre & Pou (2006). Mak *et al.* (1977) and Mak & Nishimura (1979) as cited in Alegre & Pou (2006:1345) found the link between stay duration and the size of the travelling party to be statistically insignificant and this result is supported by Raya-Vilchez & Martinéz-Garcia (2011:171) in their study on length of stay of low-cost airline tourists for all nationalities.

- **The composition of travel group/group**

Travel group (who the tourist is travelling with) was also found to have an influence on their length of stay. Tourists who travel with friends stay shorter than those who travel with a partner, which agrees with Menezes *et al.* (2008) as cited in Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:119). Travelling as a family was found not to have an influence on length of stay (Martinéz-Garcia & Raya 2008:1072). However, Aguilara & Díaza (2019:10) found that tourists traveling with family stay longer thus cementing the influence that travel group size and composition has on length of stay. Thornton *et al.* (1997) as cited in Lew *et al.* (2014:42) noted that travel group composition influences participation in certain tourism activities and how time is allocated on a daily basis between families and adult-only categories.

- **Time/season the holiday is undertaken**

Grigolon *et al.* (2014:159) point out that stay duration of tourists may vary with the months of the year in which the holiday is undertaken as travellers have time limitations (limited amount of leave days and school holidays). Travelling during high season (summer) was found to be associated with longer stays due to the time permission (more time during summer) (Martinéz-Garcia & Raya 2008:1072). The time or season in which the trips are undertaken represents the effect of time availability on the length of stay (Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia 2011:170). Trips taken during the summer (peak season) are undertaken when people have more time

for holidaying while those undertaken during spring or other times are characterised by tourists with restricted time availability or budget (Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia 2011:170). Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:119) established that tourists who visited Spain in summer stayed longer than those who visited outside the summer season and this finding is in sync with the results of Martinez-Garcia (2008); Rodriguez *et al.* (2003); and Thrane (2012).

According to Aguilara & Díaza (2019:10) length of stay also varied with the time of the holiday with longer stays witnessed in summer thus the conclusion that tourists with greater time disposal tend to stay longer in the destination. The influence of time availability was also cemented by the finding that older, pensioners, unemployed people and students stayed for longer in Spain. This finding agrees with the finding of this research that time constraints have an effect on length of stay of tourist in South Africa. Thrane (2016:182) found that the season in which the trip is taken also influenced length of stay of students thus agreeing with findings by Ferrer-Rossel et al. (2014); Grogolon et al. (2014), Martinez-Garcia & Raya (2008), Santos *et al.* (2015), Raya-Vilchez & Martinez-Garcia (2011).

- **Travel motivations/ purpose of travel**

Mc Kercher (2001) as referenced in Lew *et al.* (2014:42) found that "partly due to length of stay and the psychological investment made in the destination, the role of the place visited as a main or stopover destination also affect tourists' behaviour". According to Divisekera (2010:631), the purpose of the visit tends to be associated with the stay duration of tourists in destination visited and so is consumption behaviour. Solera *et al.* (2018:56); Boto-García *et al.*(2018:16);Thrane (2016:181) also found trip motivations to have an effect on length of stay thus agreeing with Alegre & Pou (2006), Alen *et al.* (2014) and Prebension *et al. (*2015) to mention but a few.

Fennel (1996) as cited in Lew *et al.* (2014:42) emphasise the effect of trip purpose on spatial distribution of tourists with reference to leisure tourists who are more likely to visit more places in a destination than do business travellers. Fennel (1996) also concluded that the VFR category do not engage in many activities in the destination as they tend to spend more time with relatives and tend to visit areas primarily not considered tourism hubs. According Zakrison & Zillinger (2012) as referenced by Lew *et al.* (2014:42) special interest travel tourists tend to participate in activities related to their travel motivation, while general sightseeing tourists are not restricted in terms of activities and areas to be visited.

Jang *et al.* (2003); Lawson (1991); Seaton & Palmer (1997); Wang (2005); Wang *et al.* (2008) as cited in Alen *et al.* (2014:27) agree that there is an association between the main motive or

reason for travel (push factors) and stay duration of the visitors at the destination. This finding is confirmed by Ganson and Fillone (2014:238) in their research in Guamaras, Philippines. Trips made to visit friends and relatives (VFR) have been found to have a higher average length of stay. The reason behind it being that, they spend less on lodging if at all, which allows the stay at the destination to be prolonged with the same available budget (Alen *et al*. 2014:27). Although the purpose of visit did not influence the length of stay in their study, Martinéz-Garcia & Raya (2008:1072) point out that the findings from descriptive studies seem to differ as leisure tourists and study tourists stay longer than those that undertake trips for cultural reasons, shopping and visiting friends and relatives. Tourists who visit Santiago for business or congress tend to stay longer cementing the fact that purpose of visit has a significant influence on length of stay of tourists (Rodrígueza, Martínez-Roget & González-Muriasa 2018:17). Aguilara & Díaza (2019:10) Travel purpose /motivations affected length of stay with business relates travellers staying for fewer days while holiday and sports tourists staying for longer in Spain.

Kruger & Saayman (2014:9) concluded that the motivation to travel to the destination influences their length of stay as evidenced by those who were keen to see lion and leopard (northern region of Kruger Park) and those who were motivated by the need to escape (southern region of Kruger Park), staying longer .Anantamongkolkula *et al.* (2019:150) also found length of stay to be affected by travel motivations. They specifically found that tourists who were more proactive and willing to immerse themselves in the local community, interested in Thai culture and its people tended to stay longer.

Mak *et al.* (1977) and Mak & Nishimura (1979) as cited in Alegre & Pou (2006:1345) ascertain that visiting Hawaii for pleasure was positively associated with length of stay. However, Raya-Vilchez & Martinéz-Garcia (2011:171) found the reason for travelling to be statistically insignificant as a determinant of length of stay of low-cost airline tourists to Spain for all nationalities. According to Albaity & Melhem (2017:34) while staying for long in a destination is associated positively with spending, for novelty seekers, it has a negative impact as it diminishes the novelty and destination loyalty. This is an expected scenario as novelty seekers are always driven by their motive for something new and if they get to know the destination more by staying and visiting more places, they tend not to be motivated any more. From this, one can see clearly that those motivated by novelty tend to stay for longer in destinations they consider to be novel. While most researchers above agree that travel motivations influence length of stay of tourists, Adongo *et al.* (2017:72) argues that travel experiences predict length of stay better than trip motivations.

- **Distance travelled**

Among the factors that influence tourist behaviour, travel distance has been found to be a critical one that is directly related to tourists' choice to visit a destination and their behavioural patterns after they arrive (Xuea & Zhang 2020:1).The greater the distance between tourist-generating regions and tourist destination regions, the less the demand for activities, as more resources (money, time and effort) expended to reach the destination erodes the capacity in terms of time, money and effort to partake in more activities than when the distance was short (distance decay) (Lew *et al*. 2014:39). A close look at the distance decay theory reveals that it is not only demand for activities that is affected, but also tourism consumption behaviour. According to Pearce (1989) as referenced in Lew *et al*. (2014:39), though the total tourists' movements between tourist-generating regions and tourist destination regions decline as the distance increases, the pattern of movement will vary depending on the product type. Some intervening opportunities close to tourist generating regions may not be visited that much (due to poor market access) while tourist destinations very far away may be visited due to strong market access (the products on offer are on demand). According to Lew *et al*. (2014:40) destinations with strong market access draw tourists who stay for shorter periods in the destination while those with poor market access tend to attract repeat visitors and those who stay for longer periods (Lew *et al*. 2014:40). Related to distance decay is the influence of effective exclusion zone (ETEZ) on stay duration. According to Mc Kercher and Lew (2003) as cited in Lew *et al*. (2014:41) ETEZ is a geographic zone where little or no tourism activity occurs that is relevant to the market under consideration. According to Lew *et al*. (2014:41), "trips undertaken before encountering the ETEZ are typically short-break, short-duration, single-destination trips while those that occur beyond the ETEZ's out-bounding tend to be longer-duration, multiple-destination, touring-oriented trips".

Gronau (1970) as cited in Alegre & Pou (2006:1345) and Nicolau & Mas (2009) state that tourists travel longer journeys if they stay at the destination for a minimum number of days to compensate for the extra effort made in the journey and to balance off the costs of travel. This indicates that longer stays in destinations visited are related to the distance travelled with longer-distance travellers staying for longer. This finding is further confirmed by Wang *et al*. (2012:71); Nicolau, Zach & Tussyadiah, 2018:1034); Aguilara & Díaza (2019:10). According to Aguilara & Díaza (2019:10), travel distance modulates the length of stay as longer visits were recorded by individuals with residence in non-European countries, such as Latin America, the USA and Asia. Jackman *et al*. (2020:9) discovered a positive relationship between geographic distance and length of stay; that is, the further the source market is from Barbados, the longer pleasure tourists stayed. Having to travel longer distances, that is incurring larger travel costs, to reach their destination may induce pleasure tourists to stay

longer to feel as if they are maximising value for money (costs). Alen *et al.* (2014:27) however found no effect of distance travelled on the length of stay, which could mean that seniors are less sensitive to the distance to their destination than other groups when it comes to length of stay.

- **Travel types**

Travel types were found to be influential to the length of stay of tourists at a destination. Patterson (2006) as quoted by Alen *et al.* (2014:22) states that travel types may be classified "as organised trips, escorted or guided tours and individual or fully independent travel". Yang *et al.* (2011) as cited in Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:115) found that there were differences in factors affecting length of stay of tourists in visited destinations depending on how the trip was booked. Bai *et al.* (2001) as cited in Alen *et al.* (2014:22) found that senior tourists who travel independently stay longer at the destination than those who choose a packaged holiday. Alen *et al.'s* (2014:22) findings did however not support this, as senior tourists who used IMSERCO (travel agent) for their trips stayed longer at the destination than did independent travellers. Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Gracia (2011:171) and Martinéz-Garcia & Raya (2008:1072) found the effect on length of stay of low-cost airline tourists for all nationals of type of visit (organised trip or not) to be statistically insignificant. Mak *et al.* (1977) and Mak & Nishimura (1979) as cited in Alegre & Pou (2006:1345) found that visitors on prepaid package tours or organised group tours to be negatively related to length of stay. Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:116) found that tourists who book holidays and travel individually only stayed longer when they travel for VFR, which is not the case when they visit for sight-seeing.

- **Frequency of travel in a year**

Alegre *et al.* (2011:562) ascertained the number of trips taken during the past year to influence length of stay of tourists in a destination in a great way while more trips per year by tourists result in them staying for shorter periods in the destinations visited. Ganson & Fillone (2014:238) also found the frequency of vacation in a year to significantly influence length of stay of tourists in Guamaras, Philippine. This makes sense as tourists end up splitting their one long annual holiday into various short holiday throughout the year. Tourists may split their annual holiday in order to make their holidays coincide with their children's school holidays and to have multiple rests throughout the year.

- T**ime the reservation is made**

Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:120) found no significant effect or a small negative main effect of booking shortly before travelling (last-minute booking) on length of stay. This finding is in line

with the findings of the study by Thrane (2012). Barros *et al.* (2008) as referenced in Barros *et al.* (2010:14) concluded that stay duration is positively associated with the extent of advance booking; therefore, the longer the advance booking, the longer the length of stay. Thrane (2016:181) found booking time to be positively influencing length of stay implying that trips booked long in advance tend to be of longer duration than those booked closer to the date of departure thus agreeing with findings by Barros et al., 2008, 2010; Ferrer-Rossell *et al.*, 2014; Thrane, 2012. Kruger & Saayman (2014:8/9) also found that tourists who made their decisions to visit Kruger National Park in South Africa well in advance stayed longer both in the northern and southern region, a finding which agrees with Thrane(2016) and Barros *et al.* (2008, 2010).

- **Number of destination countries visited within one trip**

According to Weaver & Lawton (2006:190) countries can be labelled primary, secondary or incidental in the tourists' overall itinerary. In the event that tourists visit multiple destinations in one trip, not all destinations included in the itinerary will enjoy an equal share of length of stay. Primary destinations will in most cases get a lion's share of both time and money to be expended (Weaver & Lawton 2006:190).Deducing from the above, there are greater chances that tourists will stay longer in a destination if they visit only that particular destination than when they include other destinations during the same trip. Inbound tourists from long-haul markets tend to visit more than one country in their itinerary and this influence other decisions, especially how much to spend and how long to stay in each country (Opperman, Tideswell & Faulkner 1999 as cited in Weaver & Lawton 2006:190) with tourists most likely to stay longer in primary destination countries. According to Gössling *et al.* (2018:2097) tourist desire to visit other regions or places affect the length of stay of tourist within an area together with limited number of vacation days (time). Visiting more islands was also found to be associated with longer stay durations (Menezes *et al. 2008* as cited in Barros *et al.* 2010:14). Visiting more islands in this case can be equated to visiting more places within a destination country. Santos *et al.* (2015:796) in their study discovered that both business and leisure tourists in Brazil who visit multiple destinations during one vacation are associated with short stays in each place visited.

3.2.2.4 Destination-related factors

Destination-related variables to be discussed below include the nature of the destination, destination appeal, destination image and sustainability practices and familiarity with the destination.

- **Nature of the destination**

Salmasi *et al.* (2012:521) also discovered that some destinations attract more long-staying tourists than do others, especially the coastal destinations as compared to others in Italy. The nature of the destination (be it city destination or coastal resorts) may also influence the length of stay of the visitors as this pull variable influences the type and number of activities as well as the form of holiday experience (Raya-Vilchez & Martínez-Garcia 2011:170). Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:119) also agree with Martínez-Garcia & Raya's (2008) findings that the type of destination influences the length of stay of tourists with those visiting cities staying for shorter periods than do coastal towns. The stay duration was found to be even shorter for tourists who visited cities on a package tour, especially Madrid, followed by Barcelona (Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* 2014:119). Destination type visited had an influence on the stay duration with city destinations recording shorter duration than coastal destinations (Martinéz-Garcia & Raya 2008:1072) resulting in the conclusion that urban destinations attract short-break tourism.

- **Destination appeal**

According to Barros & Machado (2010) as referenced in Alen *et al.* (2014:22) the more the destination appeals in terms of natural and man-made attractions endowment and accessibility, the more the activities to do, the longer the tourists would stay in that destination. Destination characteristics was also found to influence length of stay of visitors to Kruger national park in South Africa (Kruger & Saayman 2014:9). Adongo, Badu-Baiden1 & Boakye (2017:72) revealed that tourism experience significantly conditions tourists' stay duration with self-development, recreational engagements, hospitality, weather and sanitation identified as specific determinants. Positive holiday experience was found to influence tourists' length of stay positively while negative experiences were found to lessen stay duration of tourists in Ghana (Adongo, Badu-Baiden1 & Boakye 2017:72). Solera *et al.* (2018:56) empirically ascertained that stay duration of international tourists was conditioned by the level of satisfaction in the destination, a factor related to the appeal of the destination thus agreeing with Adongo, Badu-Baiden1 & Boakye (2017:72).

According to Lam-González, León, de León (2019:1) climate is one of the elements of tourist destinations which influence tourist travel behaviour especially destination choice and how long tourists stay within destination visited. According to Jackman *et al.* (2020:9)'s empirical findings the greater the climate distance between source countries and Barbados, the longer tourists stay.Alegre & Pou (2003); Barros *et al.* (2010) and Nicolau & Mas (2009) as cited in Alen *et al.* (2014:27) empirically found that climate affects the length of stay of tourists in a destination visited in a positive fashion.

Alen *et al.* (2014:27) however found no significant relationship between other destination attributes (except climate) and length of stay of seniors in Spain. Nicolau & Mas (2009) as referenced to in Alen *et al.* (2009) found that preferences for economical destinations tend to promote longer stays. Alen *et al.* (2014:28) explain that the destination characteristics include hygiene and cleanliness of the place, security, ease of transport, medical coverage or shopping precincts and nature-based resources, leisure events and attractions, places of history and natural landscape, the distance between the destination and original place of residence and even the total cost of the trip. Gokovali *et al.* (2007:744) found that destination factors with an influence on length of stay include aspects such as night life and entertainment available, general beauty and image of the destination, attractiveness of the destination, natural and cultural attractions of which some are objective while others are subjective variables. If these attributes are promoted, length of stay will increase, and more benefits will be realised as spending increases (Gokovali *et al.* 2007:744).

Gokovali *et al.* (2007:744) however found the relationship between the local hospitality and length of stay of tourists to be inverse – a finding which contradicts earlier studies. In other words, a better perception of hospitality leads to taking a shorter vacation and this finding could be used as a marketing gimmick to attract those visitors with the intention of staying for a shorter period (Gokovali *et al.* 2007: 745). In terms of aspects such as quality of services, accommodation facilities available, safety and security level, quality of sea and beach, distance between destination and home country, effectiveness of destination marketing, and the word-of-mouth recommendation of friends and relatives Gokovali *et al.* (2007: 745) found no significant association between these factors and relative length of stay. Mill & Morrison (1992); Sirakaya & Woodside (2005) as cited in Gokovali *et al.* (2007:745) established that recommendations of friends and relatives, although it contributes significantly to destination choice, it has no impact on the length of stay. Barros *et al.* (2008) as cited in Barros *et al.* (2010:14) ascertained that marketing communication, particularly brochures and advertising, was positively related to length of stay of tourists. Destination attributes such as cuisine, nature, sea and especially security and physical attributes were empirically found to influence length of stay in Madagascar, while climate did not (Peypoch *et al.* 2012:1234).

Barros *et al.* (2008) as cited in Barros *et al.* (2010:14) and Barros & Machado (2010:694) determined that the more appealing the destination is, especially with respect to climate, culture, nature and gastronomy, the longer the length of stay. Barros *et al.* (2010:13) also established that climate and the quality of hospitality experienced influenced the length of stay of golfing tourists in Algarve Portugal. Anantamongkolkula *et al.* (2019:152) concluded that

long staying tourists in Thailand were those who appreciated the hospitality of the hosts thus they recommended that this variable should be taken seriously by destination and tourism and hospitality industry to attract the long staying tourists market segment. Hudson, So, Li, Meng & Cárdenas (2019:111) concluded that tourists can be convinced to buy retiring homes in a destination and not only stay for longer but forever especially if the destination is attractive in terms of climate, accessibility, medical facilities, recreational activities, leisure opportunities, amenities, connectivity, culinary attractions and educational opportunities. Wang *et al.* (2012:71) postulate that even though they did not include destination characteristics in their own study, these factors model length of stay of tourists. However, Barros *et al.* (2008) as referenced in Barros *et al.* (2010:14) ascertained that stay duration of tourists in destination visited was inversely associated with security within the destination.

- **Destination Image and sustainability practices**

Stephens (1992) as cited by Gokovali *et al.* (2007:73) points out length of stay of tourists in the destination as one of the factors that is influenced by consumer perception. Menezes *et al.* (2008) as cited in Barros *et al.* (2010:14) and Barros & Machado (2010:695) in their analysis of length of stay of tourists in Azores Islands concluded that the image of the destination and sustainability practices in the destination affect stay duration of tourists in a positive manner, particularly the repeat visitors.

- **Familiarity with the destination**

Another factor that influences length of stay of tourists at a destination is familiarity with the destination (Alegre *et al.* 2011:562). According to Bargeman & Van der Poel (2006); Court & Lupton (1997) as cited in Gokovali *et al.* (2007:744) familiarity with the destination positively influences a tourist's propensity to visit the destination while Kozak & Rimmington (2000) state that it increases tourists' overall trip satisfaction. Mak *et al.* (1977) and Mak & Nishimura (1979) as cited in Alegre & Pou (2006:1345) and Barros *et al.* (2008) as cited in Barros *et al.* (2010:14) found that length of stay is positively related to previous visitation. Perez & Sampol (2000) found that familiarity with the destination increases tourists' level of spending, and Lehto *et al.* (2002) note that it influences activity participation positively (Gokovali *et al.* 2007:744). Repeat visitors were found to stay longer than first-time visitors to Dalian, China (Wang *et al.* 2012:71). Interesting, repeat-visit behaviour has been regarded by researchers such as Kozak (2001) and Lehto *et al.* (2002) as that it relates to future visiting behaviour (destination loyalty) and word of mouth recommendations (Wang *et al.* 2012:71). Repeat visits signify the familiarity with the destination being visited. Jacobsen, Gössling, Dybedal & Skogheim (2018:33) found repeat visitors to stay for longer than first time visitors thus agreeing with research findings by

Santos *et al.* (2015), Gokovali *et al.* (2007), Thrane & Farstad (2012) and des Menezes *et al.*, 2008). Wild Card holders were found to be longer stayers both in the northern and southern region of Kruger Park in South Africa (Kruger & Saayman 2014:9). Wild card holders are loyal travellers to the park, and they signify repeat visitors.

Satisfied tourists may respond in any of the two ways that is either extend the trip duration if possible or may be induced to visit the destination again in the future with a likelihood of staying even longer than the first time visit that is if the trip duration has been prefixed (Thrane 2016:183). It is thus of importance to invest in value for money offerings on the destination for either inducement of repeat visitation or length of stay extension during the current trip (Thrane 2016:183). Boto-García *et al.* (2018:16) state that tourists visiting a destination for the first time are more likely to belong to stay for shorter period, while those with a high repeat visit rate are more likely to stay for longer. Therefore, familiarity with the destination is associated with a greater length of tourist stay.

Regarding previous visit, Ferrer-Rossel *et al.* (2014:120) found a small negative main effect of loyalty on length of stay which is a contradiction to findings made by Alegre & Pou (2006); Alegre *et al.* (2011); Barros *et al.* (2008); Gokovali *et al.* (2007); Menezes *et al.* (2008); Thrane & Farstad (2011); Wang *et al.* (2012); Yang *et al.* (2011).

3.3   TOURISTS' SPENDING BEHAVIOUR

United Nations Department for Economic and Social Information and Policy Analysis and World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (1994) as cited in Anderson (2010:7) and Amir *et al.* (2015:391) defines tourism expenditure as "the total money spending made by a visitor or on behalf of a visitor for and during the trip and stay at the destination". Engström & Kipperberg (2015:132) look at tourism expenditure as "the amount of money spent related to tourism travel, which can be measured in its total or for specific commodity categories". According to WTO (1991), this is a basic concept of measuring tourism activities and is also referred to as tourism demand (total consumption of a visitor). Malaysia TSA (2005-2011) as cited in Amir *et al.* (2015:391) with regard to visitor expenditure as the total paid by visitors to a destination for their consumption of goods and services before and during the trip. If this total is spent by a non-resident visitor within the destination country, then it is referred to as inbound tourism expenditure. The average spending was defined by Divisekera (2010:631) as "the total value of various goods and services consumed by tourists while travelling and these include key elements/components namely accommodation, food, transport, shopping and entertainment".

Rudkina & Sharm (2017:188) state that most state governments target to increase spending by inbound tourists but this can only be possible through proper and accurate statistical analysis which precisely identifies the important drivers of tourist expenditure.

3.3.1   Importance of understanding spending behaviour of tourists

Tourism expenditure is regarded an important variable as it is a quantitative measure of the tourism industry's contribution to economic growth of many states and regions in the world (Mules 1998:267; Mihalic 2002; 2006; Vanhove 2005 and Mihalic 2002 as cited in Anderson (2010:7); Wu, Zhang & Fujiwara (2013:3); Marrocu *et al*. (2015:13); Divisekera (2010:629). According to Zhang *et al*. (2012:1563) tourism expenditure is a useful avenue through which tourism polices and marketing efforts by destination concerned can be measured. Tourist spending patterns are considered by Aguiló, Rosselló & Vila (2017:15) as important for destination planners and marketers as knowledge of such patterns is useful in the expansion of market share revenue wise instead of tourist volumes.

Tourism expenditure is regarded as an indicator of the extent of consumption of tourism offerings by tourists (Divisekera 2010:631, Statistics South Africa: 2017:48). Understanding tourism expenditures according to Engström & Kipperberg (2015:132) is considered very important as it is the ultimate outcome of the traveller's total decision-making process and a commonly used measure of tourism demand.

Gudding & Klipperberg (2012) as cited in Engström & Kipperberg (2015:131) state that a balance must be struck between economic gains and social and environmental costs and this is possible if tourism industry investment, marketing campaigns and tourism policy are designed with in-depth knowledge of spending patterns on international tourists. Anderson (2010:4/5) highlights the importance of knowledge of tourism expenditure patterns for tourism companies and marketers, especially during destination planning and development as positive benefits can be derived fully if they focus on factors with positive effect on spending by visitors.

According to Aguilo & Juaneda (2000:634) tourist expenditure is a "key variable in the economic analysis of the costs and profits associated with the tourism industry". They cement the idea that developing destinations in line with the level of expenditure capacities makes business sense. At public stakeholder level, targeting tourists with high expenditure levels is more beneficial; hence the importance of analysing expenditure patterns as it helps in effective market segmentation, targeting and positioning (STP) (Aguilo & Juaneda 2000:635). Wu *et al*. (2013:15) maintain that accurate information on tourism spending patterns can provide a more accurate assessment of possible tourism revenue to be generated; therefore, guiding effective designing and policy implementation for better economic benefits from tourism. Amir, Osman,

Bachok & Ibrahim (2015:390-394) in their research examined expenditure patterns and linkages among domestic and inbound international tourists to Melaka Malaysia. They argue that host destinations need to ascertain the heavy spenders and tourism sectors with the most tourism expenditures as this will guide in designing marketing strategies and destination management (Amir *et al.* 2015:394).

Total tourist expenditure can be used alongside tourism arrivals to define seasonality in the tourism industry (Koc & Altinay 2007:228) and if this variable is well-understood it will guide effective tourism policy development, planning and investment decision-making (Lim & McAleer 2000, 2001 as cited in Koc & Altinay 2007:228). Resources will be effectively and efficiently allocated across all fields once per capita tourist spending and its seasonal variations are comprehended (Krakover 2000 as cited in Koc & Altinay 2007:228).

Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:122) and Alegre & Cladera (2012:224) also consider tourism expenditure a very useful segmentation variable. Tourists can be sub-grouped according to their spending levels (heavy, medium and light spenders) in the destination visited, and this can be used in effective targeting and positioning (Pizam & Reichel 1979; Spotts & Mahoney 1991; Mok & Iverson 2000; Moufakkir *et al.* 2004; Craggs & Schofield 2009; Shani *et al.* 2009; Spenser 2010; Botha *et al.* 2010 and Lima *et al.* 2012 as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:129). Twedt (1964); Cook & Mindak (1984) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:122) point out that categorising tourist markets based on spending behaviour emanated from the research findings that a small number of customers typically make up a lion's share on consumption of goods and services. From this finding, it therefore makes great sense to target market segments that spend more (Svensson *et al.* 2011 as referenced in Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:122). This will enable destination marketing organisations to focus their scarce resources on market segment(s) with better return on investment with minimum negative tourism impacts, which is more sustainable (Botha *et al.* 2011 as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:123). According to Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:123), identifying and profiling big spending tourists facilitates better tourism product planning, development and effective execution of marketing strategies by destination tourism authorities.

Koc & Altinay (2007:228) argue that to develop and sustain a competitive advantage in globally competitive tourism markets, destinations need to understand customers in relationship to who they are and what they buy, and when, why, where and how they purchase tourism products and services. If the profile of tourists is understood in terms of their variables such as needs, spending patterns, lifestyles and many more the elements of the marketing mix can be tailored to suit the specific market segment being targeted; hence resources will be

optimally used (Koc & Altinay 2007:228). From the above statement, tourist expenditure (spending behaviour/patterns) can be used as a tourist market segmentation variable, hence the importance of understanding it.

Studies such as those conducted by Pizam & Reichel (1979); Spotts & Mahoney (1991); Mok & Iverson (2000); Moufakkir *et al.* (2004); Craggs & Schofield (2009); Shani *et al.* (2009); Spenser (2010); Botha *et al.* (2010) and Lima *et al.* (2012) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:129) discovered that high spenders are associated with socio-demographic, trip-related and sources of information characteristics (Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:130). Spotts & Mahoney (1991) and Mok & Iverson (2000) as cited in Koc & Altinay (2007:228/9) argue that segmenting tourist markets based on their spending behaviour is the most valuable segmentation strategy as it satisfies all the segmentation criteria or characteristics of measurability, accessibility, substantiality and actionability.

Mules (1998:269/70) also highlights the importance of analysing tourist spending by purpose of visit (holiday, VFR, business etc) if factors that influence spending are known, destination marketing and management organisations and the tourism private sector will be able to come up with better policies and strategies to attain sustainable growth in these market segments. Important is also to analyse total expenditure according to country of origin. This is important as one can see which countries contribute to total tourist spending either through numbers, length of stay or yield per night spending (Mules 1998:270). This helps in target marketing strategies and destination positioning. South African Tourism in their annual tourism reports performance highlights they also analyse tourist spending according to the purpose of visit to get a better understanding of which market segment spend more in South Africa (South African Tourism 2016:70-72)

3.3.2 Measuring tourism expenditure

Tourism spending can be measured in various ways such as expenditure per day, expenditure per trip (Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:126), total spending for the entire trip per party and household as influenced by the number of people and length of stay, spending per person per day, expenditure per day and expenditure per person (Brida & Scuderi 2013:32). World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (1995, 2000) on the other hand as cited in Anderson (2010:7) categorises tourism spending into three categories based on the time of occurrence, being pre-trip, on-trip and post-trip expenditure. WTO (2004) as cited in Anderson (2010:7) proposes total expenditure, average expenditure per tourist at the destination and the average daily expenditure per tourist at the destination as aspects to be included when measuring tourism spending. Kozak *et al.* (2008) as cited in Anderson (2010:7) also proposes four ways of

measuring tourists spending, and these are total vacation spending, daily spending per group, daily spending per person and total spending per person. According to Lima *et al.* (2012) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:126), the choice of the variable to measure tourist spending depends on the goals of the destination itself for example optimisation of spending from tourists who spend less time at the destination visited. It is also important to distinguish between group and individual spending as one person may be paying for him/herself and other members of the travel group thus group expenditure may be the preferable variable (Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:126).This calls for researchers to make sure that questions are clearly structured so that individuals responding to these questions do not confuse their own spending with that of a group, or vice versa (Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:126).

3.3.3 Gathering tourism expenditure data

According to Chhabra *et al.* (2003); Daniels *et al.* (2004); Crompton *et al.* (2001) as referenced in Anderson (2010:7), tourist expenditure is gathered through various ways, one of which is visitor surveys conducted on arrival (entry), on-site (while in the destination), on departure (exit-survey), en-route surveys (while travelling) and after visitors get back home (post-trip survey).

3.3.4 Tourism expenditure composition

Tourists can spend their money in different ways, which can be on accommodation, transportation to, within and from the destination, food and drinks, shopping of souvenirs and other products, entertainment (Amir *et al.* 2015:394). Aguiló, Rosselló & Vila (2017:11) in their study categorized spending into accommodation, entertainment, restaurants, transport, excursions, gifts and souvenirs, and food & drink in supermarkets. Divisekera (2010:629-636) examined consumption behaviour of landed international tourists in Australia from the four major tourist source markets (New Zealand, UK, USA and Japan) on accommodation, food, transport and shopping. They attempted to shed light on how tourists allocate their expenditure on various goods and services consumed while visiting a destination. How many tourists spend on each category of expenditure seems to be influenced by several factors including nationality, length of stay, and type of tourists/purpose of visit (business or leisure or VFR; domestic or international tourists), repeat visitation and others.

Variations are evident on the expenditure categories according to nationalities where certain nationalities tended to spend more on one category while other nationalities spend less on that same category. Telfer *et al.* (2002) supported by Ashly (2000) and Meyer (2000) as referenced in Amir *et al.* (2015:391) argue that of the tourism expenditure components, food and beverages makes up one third of total tourism expenditure. This empirical finding

contradicts research by Anyango *et al.* (2013) who found that Dutch tourists spent more (18%) on accommodation and 10.5% on personal expenses, 7.5% on local transportation, 3.5% on optional excursions, 2% on gratuities and 1.5% on visas. Japanese tourists were found to be heavier spenders on shopping than on other components of tourists' expenditure. From the above discussion, different nationalities can spend differently on the tourism expenditure components. Engström & Kipperberg (2015:139) discovered that length of stay as a variable, influences total spending (both in total and per person) but also determines significantly the composition of expenditure. Tourist spending increases as the tourists stay longer in the destination especially accommodation and food expenditure. Tourists who stay longer in the destination visited pay extra night accommodation, food and activities thus the composition of expenditure is influenced.

Regarding travel group size, this variable was found not to affect relative budget allocation. Engström & Kipperberg (2015:139) established that travel group size impacts both total tourism spending (aggregate expenditure) and personal tourism expenditure but not necessarily the spending composition. Engström & Kipperberg (2015:139) however recommend that more research should be undertaken to further test the finding.

Engström & Kipperberg (2015:139) empirically found that business travellers tended to spend less on eating out, shopping and activities but more on groceries bought from supermarkets or convenient shops. Although total tourist spending seems not to be affected by purpose of visit, this trip characteristic does appear to impact the expenditure composition (Engström & Kipperberg 2015:139). Tourists who pay as they go without or with lower degree of pre-planning and budgeting tend to spend more on lodging and less on activities. Those tourists who visited Norway before (repeat visitors) appear to be spending more on shopping and this could be due to increased knowledge of shopping opportunities in the country (Engström & Kipperberg 2015:139). Amir *et al.* (2015:395) agree that the level of spending varies with the spending category with more spending on category and less on the other. They especially also ascertained that international tourists spend more on accommodation and food and drinks than domestic due to the length of stay (longer stays) and preferences of these products (luxury hotels and restaurants).Retail shopping features as one of the expenditure categories of tourists at the destination with this activity ranging from being the main motive for travelling in some instances to just being part of the travel experiences (Alegre & Cladera (2012:224). Jansen-Verbe (1990; 1991); Timothy & Butler (1995); Hobson (1998); Heung & Cheng (2000); Cai *et al.* (2001) as cited in Alegre & Cladera (2012:224) established that shopping is an activity tourists often perform while travelling, and according to Grattan & Taylor (1997) and Littrell *et al.* (1994) as cited in Alegre & Cladera (2012:224) travellers spend approximately a

third of the travel budget on retail shopping. This makes shopping a popular common tourist activity and a significant source of revenue for tourist destinations.

3.3.5   Factors influencing tourists' spending

According to Brida & Scuderi (2013:32) explanatory variables to tourists' expenditure can be categorised into economic, socio-demographic, trip-related and psychographic variables. Wang, Rompf, Severt & Peerapatdit (2006) as cited by Marrocu *et al.* (2015:14) just like Brida & Scuderi (2013:32), categorised tourist expenditure influencing variables into four main groups, namely: economic constraints, socio-economic characteristics, trip-related features and lastly psychographic characteristics. The factors that influence tourist spending are therefore hereby discussed below according to Brida & Scuderi (2013) and Wang, Rompf, Severt and Peerapatdit (2006) as cited by Marrocu *et al.* (2015:14) 's categorisation in detail highlighting how they condition tourist expenditure. Relationships between these factors and the tourist expenditure variable are also highlighted as they were concluded by past researchers on the subject.

3.3.5.1 Economic factors

Economic factors were labelled tourists spending determinants in destinations visited by researchers such as Brida & Scuderi (2013:34); Lee *et al.* (1996) as cited in Anderson (2010:8); Engström & Kipperberg (2015:131-141); Thrane & Farstad (2011:49) and Marrocu, Paci & Zara (2015:13). Brida & Scuderi (2013:34) highlights some economic constraints that impact tourists' expenditure as "assets owned, financial difficulties, duty-free import limits, licences and loyalty cards, health status, income and income sources". Anderson (2010:8); Thrane & Farstad (2011:49) and Marrocu, Paci & Zara (2015:13) included income (an economic variable) as a conditioner of tourist spending while Lee *et al.* (1996) as cited in Anderson (2010:8) listed real per capita income and prices at the destination (exchange rates, costs of living and transportation costs) as factors influencing tourism spending. The economic variables to be discussed below are according to Brida & Scuderi (2013:34) assets owned, financial difficulties, duty-free import limits, licences and loyalty cards, health status, income and income sources.

- **Assets owned**

Assets owned by tourists significantly and positively influence how much they spend during a holiday (Brida & Scuderi 2013:34). Assets owned by tourists are basically a proxy for their ability to participate in tourism and a measure of their income. The more assets they have the more the income they have and the greater the likelihood of spending more in the destination visited as they can afford it.

- **Financial difficulties**

Financial difficulties inhibit the tourists from partaking in tourism as well as how much they spend (Brida & Scuderi 2013:34 citing Alegre *et al.* 2010). This factor is related to income. Although tourists with financial difficulty may participate in tourism they may not spend as flexibly as those with a big financial muscle.

- **Absence or lower duty-free imports**

An absence of or lower duty-free import is significantly and directly related to tourist spending (Davila, Asgay, de los Santos & Vincent, 1999 as cited in Brida & Scuderi, 2013:34). This can be attributed to the tourists being encouraged to purchase more products to take back home without having to pay extra in the form of duty. Bilgic *et al.* (2008) as referenced in Brida & Scuderi (2013:34) found that tourists possessing fishing and hunting licences tend to spend more on tourism than those without, while Saayman & Saayman (2009) registered no significant effect of owning loyalty card on spending (Brida & Scuderi 2013:34).

- **Physical challenges (health status)**

Alegre *et al.* (2010) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:34) discovered that tourists with chronic physical or mental health challenges participate less if at all in tourism; hence their expenditure is impacted negatively. Murray & Sproats (1990) as cited by Page (2014:64) identified financial considerations as the major issue for physically challenged tourists. This market is however growing with better finances to spend than expected; thus the current development focus to make tourism facilities paraplegic accessible (Ray & Ryder 2003) even if the effective demand for the disabled is still very minimal (Shi, Cole & Chancellor 2012 as cited by Page 2014:64). Disabled tourists are often labelled loyal to destinations that are receptive to their needs. Gladewich & Bedini (2004) as cited by Page (2014:65) state that the care givers of the disabled suffer from "holiday deficiency" as they are on holiday. However, some tour operators offer personal relieves to the carer so that they can also holiday while other carers take holidays alone while the patient takes respite care.

- **Income**

According to UNWTO (2011a, 2011b, 2011c) as cited in Wang (2014:9), international tourism flows, and expenditure has been on the rise due to rising disposable income. This is especially true in emerging and advanced tourist source markets. Alegre, Mateo & Pou (2010); Mc Aleer & Min (2009) as referenced in Wang (2014:9) argue that tourism participation and therefore spending is reduced by budget constraints. According to Brida & Scuderi (2013:34) income is

one of the most frequently investigated factors as a determinant of tourist spending as it shapes purchasing behaviour. Most of the studies that looked into this variable found a positive and significant effect while few registered negative and significant correlation between income and tourist expenditure (Brida & Scuderi 2013:34). Alegre *et al.* (2009) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:34) determined a significant and negative correlation between number of income earners in the household and tourists' expenditure. Fredman (2008); Nicolau & Mas (2005a, 2005b) and Wang, Rompf, Severt & Peerapatdit (2006) as referenced in Wang (2014:12) considered income as a proxy variable for budgetary limitations in their study on budgetary constraints on travel participation and they concluded a positive correlation between income and tourism expenditure.

Researchers such as Agarwal & Yochum (1999); Cai (1999); Canon & Ford (2002); Downward & Lumsdon (2003); Fredman (2008); Jang *et al.* (2004,2005); Lee (2001); Wang *et al.* (2006) as referenced by Thrane & Farstad (2011:48) found a positive relationship between income and visitors' spending while few studies referenced by Alegre, Cladera & Sard (2011) in Marrocu *et al.* (2015:16) indicate a negative correlation. Thrane & Farstad's (2011:49) findings support other researchers' findings that a positive association exists between household income and tourism spending, but this link was however inelastic, which means that a large increase in household income resulted in small increase in tourism expenditure. Several researchers found a positive relationship between income and tourism expenditure. Pizam & Reichel (1979); Moufakkir *et al.* (2004); Spenser (2010) and Botha *et al.* (2011) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:130) and Legohérel (1998); Legohérel & Wong (2006); Mehmetoglu (2007) and Fredman (2008) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:128;133) suggest that tourists who spend more are more affluent, which also makes intuitive sense. Regarding household income, tourists earning high levels of income tended to spend more both in the country of origin and at the destination visited (Majorca) (Anderson 2010:10).

Cai, Hong & Morrison (1995) and Dardis *et al.* (1981) as cited in Wu *et al.* (2013:5) concluded that income influences tourism consumption pattern positively. Wu *et al.* (2013:14) confirmed findings by Cai *et al.* (1995) and Dardis *et al.* (1981) that married tourists and higher-income tourists spend more on tourism. Wang (2014:10) examined the effects of budgetary constraints on international tourism expenditure and argue that international tourism expenditure is associated with the tourist source markets' state of economy and budget allocation. This is true as tourism participation is affected by budgetary limitations represented by household income levels and saving abilities (Wang 2014:10). Wang (2009) as cited in Wang (2014:12) empirically discovered that income and exchange rates significantly influenced inbound tourism spending to Taiwan. Chang, Chen & Meyer (2013) as cited in

Wang (2014:12) suggest that regardless of past travelling experience to the destination, tourists cut back most of their tourism expenditure when prices increase.

Wang (2014:11) points out that literature holds that income is positively and in a linear fashion related to tourism expenditure, but in his own empirical findings differs. Wang's (2014:17) study revealed non-linear pattern considering the saving regimes they belong to (high savings regime or low saving regime). According to Wang (2014:16), the saving regime a tourist source market falls under (savings rate) is influenced by ethnic characteristics, cultures and traditions, and demographic structures and this in turn affect the effect of income on their spending in destinations visited. Countries in the high saving regime are more disciplined and they save a lot as they are more long-term future-oriented than the low-saving regime which have a high propensity to consume and tend to quickly exhaust their earnings (short-term future oriented) (Wang 2014:16). Tourists from countries that save more regard tourism as a luxury; thus their spending is done with caution and although their tourism spending rises with growth in GDP per capita, it does so at a decreasing rate (once the savings rate reaches a certain level, the effect of GDP per capita on international tourism spending loses its strength (Wang 2014:17). According to Wang (2014:17), the effect of economic growth/ increase in GDP per capita on international tourism spending is only visible when the rate of saving is low compared to when the savings rate is high. Thus, these saving regimes guide destination marketers to design appropriate marketing strategies.

Divisekera (2010:634) analysed the sensitivity of each expenditure category to income and price. On price elasticity, Divisekera (2010:634) investigated the sensitivity of each expenditure category to changes in own price (own price elasticity) as well as price of other spending categories (cross-product price elasticity). Regarding own price elasticity, he looked at how the change in price of for example accommodation would affect the demand of that product (accommodation). With cross-product price elasticity, Divisekera (2010:634) looked at how changes in the price of one expenditure category, for instance food and beverages, would affect demand of another expenditure category such as entertainment. Understanding price and income elasticity of source markets aids in explaining how tourists would react to variations in price and income. Divisekera (2010:634) unveiled that different nationalities vary in terms of sensitivity to prices of various tourism products with New Zealanders being more price sensitive than tourists from other countries while UK tourists were least price sensitive. New Zealanders were more sensitive to food prices while US tourists were more reactive to lodging prices. Japanese visitors were found to be more sensitive to shopping prices while UK tourists were elastic to entertainment prices. Divisekera (2010:634) also unearthed that accommodation is the only income-sensitive expense category while other categories are

unitary. If demand increases due to increases in income, a significant impact will be felt in the accommodation sector, while for other expenditure categories the impact is the same in magnitude as the change in income (unitary).

Regarding income elasticity, Japanese and New Zealand tourists were found by Divisekera (2010:634) to be more sensitive in the food category than USA and UK tourists, while the last-mentioned were more sensitive to accommodation. Divisekera (2010:635) discovered positive income elasticity meaning that an increase in income of tourists triggers a huge rise in the demand for all goods and services. Divisekera (2010:635) concluded that demand for holiday products is more elastic to income than it is sensitive to prices. Thus, tourists' spending decisions are very much conditioned by their income, with increase in income transcending into a rise in spending on tourism products at the destination as stay duration increases. Divisekera (2010:635) on the other hand also concluded that tourist spending is less impacted by prices of commodities, as tourists are affected by limited income. Hence; they tend to consume available goods and services at the destination regardless of their prices.

Song, Seetaramb & Yec (2019:37) analysed the effect of Air Passenger Duty (APD) on budget allocation and made interesting findings. They discovered that APD has an effect of spending in the destination visited by tourists as it makes tourists spend more on transportation. "A higher APD (Air passenger duty) can force tourists to pay for the increased transport costs by reducing their basic at-destination spending (including on accommodation and food)" (Song, Seetaramb & Yec 2019:37). Empirical findings by Song, Seetaramb & Yec (2019:37 reinforce that the components of tourist expenditure are interdependent and that changes in one component may affect the makeup of expenditure categories.

3.3.5.2 Socio-demographic factors

Brida & Scuderi (2013:34); Anderson (2010:8); Jang *et al.* (2004) as cited in Anderson (2010:8); Aquilo & Juanada (2000) as cited in Anderson (2010:8); Engström & Kipperberg (2015:131-141); Wu *et al.* (2013:5) and Thrane & Farstad (2011:48) found socio-demographic variables to explain variation in tourism expenditure. To be discussed below is nationality, gender, age, marital status, education, occupation, size and composition of household and ethnicity, as these are the most commonly cited variables under socio-demographic factors (Brida & Scuderi 2013:34).

- **Nationality**

Alegre & Cladera (2012:233) discovered that tourists' nationality influences shopping behaviour, including how much is spent on shopping. Nationality of tourists was found to have

an influence on tourists' expenditure either at country of origin or at the destination or on both with different nationalities spending differently from other nationalities (Anderson 2010:9). The However, British tourists who participated in shopping tended to be greater spenders than German shoppers. Germans were empirically found to be spending more than British and Italians while Scandinavian tourists were spending more in the destination than Germans (Aguilo & Juaneda (2000:633). Tourists from countries that are economically advanced with strong currencies to the destination being visited are most likely to spend more as the exchange rate is very favourable for them provided the tourism products in the destination are not overpriced/too expensive compared to similar products elsewhere. Place of origin of spectators/tourists was found to significantly influence spending by Salgado-Barandela, Barajas & Sánchez-Fernández (2018:174) Aguiló, Rosselló & Vila (2017:15/16) empirically discovered that different nationalities also displayed spending capacity per expenditure category as evidenced by British tourists who spend low both on daily and aggregate expenditure on entertainment and transport but more on dining than any other nationalities.

According to Divisekera (2010:631) per capita tourism spending is to a greater extent affected by length of stay (Divisekera 2010:631). Thus, as certain nationalities stay for longer in destinations visited, they tend to spend more than those nationalities that stay for relatively short periods. Divisekera (2010:631) identified significant differences in overall consumption patterns among the four major source markets with one market segment consuming more of one expenditure category than the other source market. While in Australia, US tourists allocated a high budget on accommodation followed by food while Japanese spend more on shopping followed by entertainment. Likewise, New Zealanders also spend more on shopping but less on entertainment while those from the UK spend more of their travel budget on food as they tend to stay longer, whereas Japanese spend less on food as they stay for relatively short period of time (Divisekera 2010:631). According to South African Tourism (2016:61) high spenders to South Africa on average are tourists from Spain (R26 700), Denmark (R25 600), UAE (R20 900), USA (R20 400), Singapore (R20 100), Chile (R19 900), Switzerland (R19 800), Australia (19 500), Belgium (R19 500), New Zealand (R18 900), Russian Fed (R18 600), Netherlands (18 600), UK (R18 500), Portugal (R18 000), South Korea (R17 700) and Canada (R16 900). Air-bound markets according to Stats SA (2017:49) show a much higher average spend per trip, with the Americas spending an average of R22 700, Europe R19 800, African air markets spending on average of R19 100 and Asia and Australia R17 200; while the Africa land market only spend R4 300 per trip on average. Though some countries like Switzerland, Singapore, Denmark, UAE tend to be high spenders in South Africa, their arrival numbers are very small making countries like UK, Germany, France, Netherlands, Australia, USA prime contributors to the total tourism receipts to South Africa. Countries like China (Hong Kong

included) though they receive high volumes compared to other countries within the Asian region, their spending on average is amongst the least (R9600) (South African Tourism 2016:61). Other countries with significant spending from the African air markets are Angola (R26 000), Democratic Republic of Congo (R31 000) and Nigeria (R19 600) though also their numbers are also minimal (South African Tourism 2016:61).

- **Gender**

According to Brida & Scuderi (2013:35), tourist expenditure was found to be insignificantly affected by gender as evident in most studies, including those conducted by Salgado-Barandela, Barajas & Sánchez-Fernández (2018:173) Marrocu *et al.* (2015:17); Engström & Kipperberg (2015:137) and Wang *et al.* (2006). However, Crags & Scofield (2009) as cited in Marrocu *et al.* (2015:17) found that females tend to spend more than their male counterparts. On the contrary, Fredman (2008) and Svensson *et al.* (2011) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:128,133) associate high spending with male tourists, a finding which is supported by Sato *et al* (2014:768).

- **Age**

The effect of age on visitors' spending is considered highly sophisticated as it depends on the age category and type of expenditure (Marrocu *et al.* 2015:28). Tourists between ages 26 and 40 years were found to be great spenders on food (Marrocu *et al.* 2015:20). Although Crags & Scofield (2009) and Perez & Sampol (2000) as cited in Marrocu *et al.* (2015:17) found that younger tourists spend less than older ones, it is difficult to generalise, owing to variations in measuring the variable making comparisons a challenge. Brida & Scuderi (2013:35) as cited in Marrocu *et al.* (2015:17) note that few studies find an inverse correlation between age and tourist expenditure. Thrane & Farstad (2011) discovered that the relationship starts becoming inverse after reaching a certain threshold, for instance 52 years or negative with certain age classes (Marrocu *et al.* 2015:17).

Concerning age, Perez & Sampol (2000) found that youngest tourist segments spend less than older counterparts, but Mok & Iverson (2000) discovered the opposite, being that the younger age groups tended to spend more than the older counterparts (Thrane & Farstad 2011:48). Jang *et al.* (2004) and Kastenholz (2005) as cited in Thrane & Farstad (2011:48) found a linear positive relationship between age and tourism expenditure, being that, as the age of tourists increase, the more they spend on tourism, which is completely opposite to the findings of Wang *et al.* (2006). Age was found by Salgado-Barandela *et al.* (2018:174) to significantly influence spending at a sporting event that is as age increased spectators spend more which concurs with Saayman & Saayman (2012) and Sato *et al.* (2014).

Thrane & Farstad (2011:49) found a positive relationship between age and tourism spending for tourists above the age of 52 years but on the extreme age segments (youngest and the oldest age segments), spending is the least signifying a curvilinear age-expenditure relationship. Dardis *et al.* (1981) as cited by Wu *et al.* (2013:5) found through research that tourism expenditure decreases with age. Mok & Iverson (2000); Moufakkir *et al.* (2004) and Lima *et al.* (2012) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:128;133) established that big spenders are younger which contradicts research findings by Craggs & Schofield (2009); Botha *et al.* (2011) and Lima *et al.* (2012) who found that big-spending tourists are older. Regarding age, tourists younger than 25 years were found to spend less in the country of residence than those aged between 45 and 64 years (Anderson 2010:9). Tourists aged younger than 30 years were found by Aguilo & Juaneda (2000:633) to be spending less both in their country of residence and the destination (Balearic Islands). Age and education were also empirically found to be positively and significantly associated with tourists' expenditure but with the two jointly considered, the evidence is weak that the older and more educated people spend more in Norway *citeris paribus* (Engström & Kipperberg 2015:137).

- **Marital status**

Cai *et al.* (1995) and Dardis *et al.* (1998) discovered a positive correlation between tourism expenditures and marital status, which concurs with Wu *et al.*'s (2013:14) conclusion that married tourists tended to spend more money when travelling than the unmarried tourists.

- **Education**

Aguilo & Juaneda (2000:633) discovered a positive relationship between professional classification (education and occupation) and tourism expenditure both at place of origin and destination visited. Post-graduate, executives and the middle-manager levels were found to spend more in the country of origin and destination visited (Aguilo & Juaneda 2000:633). Low education levels were also found to be negatively associated with tourist spending (Abbruzzo *et al.* 2014:58). Pizam & Reichel (1979) and Lima *et al.* (2012) as referenced in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:128; 133) determined that high spenders are more educated. Alegre *et al.* (2010) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:35) found a significant and direct relationship between education levels except for the illiterate.

Hung *et al.* (2012:496) postulate that highly educated people can communicate better and are more knowledgeable than the less educated ones; hence they are willing to spend more on travel. Marrocu *et al.* (2015:17) argue that although education is expected to have a positive impact on holiday expenditure for the heavy-spender groups as found in Hung *et al.* (2012).

Brida & Scuderi (2013) however register the effect of this variable as rarely significant. Marrocu *et al*. (2015:20) found that tourist expenditure per day is not greatly affected by level of education, as the effects of education are channelled through income. Education can be used as a proxy for the level of income, since income data are not easily obtained, as reported in Hung *et al*. (2012) and Saayman & Saayman (2012). Marrocu *et al*. (2015:20) put forth another possible explanation as to why level of education is not a significant determinant of tourist expenditure. More educated people take advantage of saving opportunities as they plan their holidays well in advance or process the information available from different sources more rapidly and effectively (Marrocu *et al*. 2015:21).

- **Occupation**

Jang *et al*. (2002); Diaz-Perez *et al*. (2005) and Lew & Ng (2012) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:128;133) positively associate high spending with higher occupational levels. Regarding occupation, Marrocu *et al*. (2015:20) discovered that students and the unemployed spend less than tourists from the employed category and that tourists on retirement spend more than people still employed, particularly on food, probably due to special dietary needs at old age or preferences for high-quality dining establishments (Marrocu *et al*. 2015:20). Zhang *et al*.'s (2012:1571) findings also reveal that the respondents with jobs tend to visit more attractions; hence spend more money. Abbruzzo *et al*. (2014:58) state that conclusions concerning purchasing behaviour is affected by incompleteness of information on wealth levels, and to overcome this drawback, they used occupation as a proxy of income. Employers were found to slightly positively relate to spending, whereas students and retired persons were found to be negatively associated with spending.

- **Number of household members and household composition**

The majority of the studies that analysed number of household members (either adults or dependents) as a determinant of tourists' expenditure found an insignificant correlation while few found a negative and significant association (Brida & Scuderi, 2013:35). Related to household number is household composition. That is the structure or make-up of the household in terms of number of children, single-headed families or couple with or without children. Slightly more than half of the studies that looked into this variable discovered that a significant relationship exists between household composition and tourists' expenditure while slightly less than half registered no significant relationship (Brida & Scuderi 2013:35). Regarding the size of the household, Nicolau & Mas (2005a) as referenced in Wu *et al*. (2013:5) argue that although large households may be a constraint to participation in tourism, once the choice to travel is made, these households tend to spend more on tourism offerings. Nicolau & Mas (2005a) as cited in Wu *et al*. (2013:5) ascertained a negative association

between number of children in the household and tourism spend (personal constraint). An increase in the number of children in the household was found to decrease tourism expenditure, which is intuitively expected. Thus, tourists from larger households will spend less on tourism (Wu *et al*. 2013:14).

- **Race-ethnic group and family origins**

Regarding race-ethnic group and family origins, Chhabra *et al*. (2002) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:35) found that being Scottish or having Scottish forefathers significantly and negatively influenced expenditure at the Scottish festival. According to Brida & Scuderi (2013:35), more than half of the studies that analysed race/family origin found it significantly related to tourists' expenditure.

3.3.5.3 Trip-related characteristics

Trip characteristics were found by researchers such as Brida & Scuderi (2013:34); Anderson (2010:8); Jang *et al*.(2004) as cited in Anderson (2010:8); Aguilo & Juenada (2000:631); Engström & Kipperberg (2015:131-141); Thrane & Farstad (2011:48); Alegre & Cladera (2012:223-237); Thrane (2015:65-71) and Marrocu *et al*. (2015:13) to be great influencers of tourist expenditure. Abbruzzo *et al*. (2014); Kastenholz (2005) and Thrane (2014) as cited in Thrane (2015:65) concluded that trip characteristics tend to greatly influence tourism expenditure variations at a micro scale. Trip characteristics commonly found to influence spending of tourists include accommodation type used, mode of transport, activities undertaken, better information on the destination, absence or presence of spending opportunities in the destination visited, characteristics of places visited (type, number and size of visited places and their locations), single/multi-country trip, the main place of stay in the destination, destination characteristics, travel information sources, length of stay, travel group size and composition, time reservation was done before travelling, travel motivations (purpose of travel), travel types(booking through travel intermediaries or self-organised), time the holiday is undertaken and finally travel distance. These variables are discussed below in the order given above.

- **Accommodation type**

The type of accommodation used also influences the spending patterns of tourists in a destination as some accommodation facilities are associated with high spending while others are linked to low expenditure. Brida & Scuderi (2013:35) discovered that most of the studies that analysed accommodation as a determinant of tourist expenditure were significant. They further postulate that although this variable is found to be significantly associated with

expenditure in the bulk of the studies, it is not investigated frequently (Brida & Scuderi 2013:35).

Abbruzzo *et al*. (2014:57) discovered that accommodation type used by tourists in the destination influences individual tourist expenditure, with those staying in 4- and 5-star hotels spending more, as this is more expensive per day than any other type of accommodation type. Tourists staying in second-owned houses and in apartments were also found to be positively and significantly related to spending. Staying with friends and relatives as well as camping and 2-star hotels were found to be negatively impacting spending. Staying in second-owned homes was found to be positively related to spending due to relatively higher income of the owners and the higher maintenance costs for such accommodation (Abbruzzo *et al*. 2014:57). Regarding accommodation, tourists staying in hotels followed by rental houses, campgrounds and B and Bs tended to spend more than those residing with friends and relatives or own private houses (Marrocu *et al*. 2015:22). Tourists staying in hotels tend to compensate for high spending on accommodation by reducing on food and beverages spending (Marrocu *et al*. 2015:21).

Agarwal & Yochum (1999); Alegre, Cladera & Sard (2011); Fredman (2008); Garcia Sanchez *et al*. (2013); Jones, Wood, Catlin & Norman (2009), Kozak *et al*. (2008); Laesser & Cronch (2006); Marcussen (2011a); Perez & Sampol (2000); Santos & Viera (2011); Thrane (2014) and van Loon & Rouwendal (2013) as cited in Thrane (2015:66) found variations in the relationship between types of accommodation used and tourist spending, but Brida & Scuderi (2013) generally concluded that staying in hotels and other types of commercial accommodation accounts for greater spending than in less commercial accommodation facilities such as camping, cottages and staying with friends and relatives. Moufakkir *et al*. (2004); Legohérel (1998); Diaz-Perez *et al*. (2006); Laesser & Crouch (2006), Fredman (2008); Svensson *et al*. (2011) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:128;133) assert that high spenders stay in hotels or motels while Spencer (2010) associates high spending with fixed roof accommodation and Shani *et al*. (2009) rented condominiums or apartments (Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:131). Regarding the type of accommodation used, Engström & Kipperberg (2015:137) concluded that tourists who stay in hotels or cabins spend more than those who used other accommodation facilities but when the above two are compared, hotel-staying guests spent more than cabin tourists.

- **Mode of transport**

Means of transport was found to be significantly related to tourist expenditure in most studies reviewed by Brida & Scuderi (2013:36). Thrane & Farstad's (2011:49) findings support that

travelling by airplane results in higher tourism spending as it signifies a higher travel budget from the onset. Travelling by bus, train or by boat resulted in higher expenditure than by car, but marginal differences were recorded between bus, boat and train. This finding is in line with Downward & Lumsdon (2004); Fredman (2008); Kim *et al.*'s (2008) conclusions that mode of transportation importantly determines the personal tourism expenditure. About Concerning transport mode used, air transport was found to be associated with higher spending on accommodation and reduction on food and beverage expenditure and other activities (Marrocu *et al.* (2015:21).Engström & Kipperberg (2015:137) discovered that tourists who use airline, vehicle either by ferry or land, and train spend more money than cruise ships and bus transport. Those who used bus transport also tended to spend more than cruise ship tourists *citeris paribus*.

- **Activities undertaken by the tourists during the trip**

Activities undertaken by the tourists during the trip can be classified as either a psychographic factor (travel motivation) or trip-related characteristic. Brida & Scuderi (2013:35) regard activities offered by destinations as travel motivations (psychographic) as tourists may be motivated to visit a place by the activities offered by the respective destinations. In this study, activities undertaken during the trip is discussed as a trip-related characteristic. Mehmetoglu (2007) as cited by Brida & Scuderi (2013:36) discovered that activities such as visiting places of historic/cultural significance, relaxing nature-based, pleasure-based and challenging nature-based activities were not significantly related to tourist spending. Of the studies reviewed by Brida & Scuderi (2013:36), slightly less than half found significant associations while slightly above half found no significant correlation between activities undertaken and tourists' expenditure. Abbruzzo *et al*. (2014:58) also unearthed that certain activities such as casinos and shopping are associated with more spending while others are related to less spending (conference attending). Spots & Mahoney (1991) and Spenser (2010) found that high spenders are those who engaged in a range of activities while other researchers found that high spenders partake in a specific activity such as fishing and visiting open spaces (Wilton & Nickerson 2006), challenging activities (Mehmetoglu 2007), downhill skiing (Fredman, 2008) and mountain biking (Spenser, 2010) (Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:126).

Regarding activity participation, Engström & Kipperberg (2015:140) ascertained that pursuit of market-related activities by tourists significantly increases tourism expenditure, whereas engagement in nature-based or public-access activities does not, as most of the activities are almost if not 100% enjoyed free of charge. Marcussen (2011) as cited in Engström & Kipperberg (2015:140) concur with this finding that a significant and positive relationship exists between dining out and total tourism expenditure. Thrane & Farstad (2012) as cited in

Engström & Kipperberg (2015:138) found that holding all else constant; tourist spending increases if more places are visited during a trip in a destination. Thrane & Farstad (2011) as cited in Engström & Kipperberg (2015:140) basing on analysis of domestic tourists, empirically associated visiting smaller cities/towns/communities, rural areas and mountains/wilderness with lower expenditure.

- **Better information on the destination**

Related to the activities undertaken in the destination is how informed tourists are about places within the destination and activities in which to participate. According to Shani *et al*. (2009) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:130), tourists who spend more participate in golfing, visit more golf courses, but also engage more in the destination's other product offerings such as gaming and other entertainment. The higher the engagement of big spenders is supported by their higher propensity to be well-informed as to the destination's offerings before arrival at the destination visited. In short, the more the tourists are engaged in the destination product offerings, the more they spend (Spotts & Mahoney1991; Moufakkir *et al*. 2004; Shani *et al*. 2009; Spencer, 2010 and Lima *et al*. 2012 as referenced in Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:131). March & Woodside (2005:71) empirically concluded that high-information users (tourists) differ in their decisions and behaviours from low-information users. High-information search tourists partake in several activities, spend more money, have a high-quality trip experience and have greater intend to return to the destination than the low-information search leisure tourists. With this finding, March & Woodside (2005:71) conclude that training some leisure travellers in the usefulness of information will help them increase the quality and enjoyment of their trips.

- **Absence /presence of spending opportunities**

Vulconic (1986:59-78) conducted a survey in Yugoslavia with the intention of determining why tourists visit the destination and how they spend the vacation as well as the structure of tourist spending. He unveiled that one-third of foreign tourists to Yugoslavia leave without having spent all the money set aside for their vacation (Vulconic 1986:1971). He ascertained that some source markets spend as planned while others spend less than planned or spend more than planned. The reasons for tourists leaving the destination without spending all their budget could be absence of spending opportunities (goods and services not meeting tourists' expectations) (Vulconic 1986:1971). One can deduct from Vulconic's (986:73) findings that if tourists are unfamiliar with the range of products offered and the terms under which they can be purchased, they don't buy the products. From Vulconic's (1986:71) findings in Yugoslavia, one can see that tourists plan to spend money on certain items before they even embark on the trip, but the majority of tourists purchase products by chance. Planning is possible on certain categories of products while other products are merely purchased by chance.

Destinations should therefore create as many spending opportunities as possible and these opportunities must be communicated to the potential tourists so that they can spend more. Littrell 1996 as cited in Alegre & Cladera (2012:225) states that tourists' involvement in shopping in the destination visited depends of the cultural background of the travellers and the range and nature of opportunities for shopping at the destination; thus if tourists perceive the destination to have shopping opportunities or they are informed fully about places and products to shop, they are most likely to participate in this activity.

- **Type, number and size of visited places and their location**

Leones *et al.* (1998) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:36) analysed number of sites visited during the trip (destination-related variable) and ascertained a significant and positive correlation with tourist expenditure. The type of places visited during a trip, number of areas visited and size of visited places and their location, visited country or destination and ownership of the visited area, indicated by Brida & Scuderi (2013:36), were found in most studies to influence tourist spending in a notable way. The more the locations visited in the same destination country during the same trip, the higher the expenditure due to food and beverages and other activities partaken in, while spending on accommodation tends to decrease (Marrocu *et al.* 2015:23). Spending more money on food and beverages by tourists while visiting many locations is attributed to eating out in restaurants more frequently as this allows them to explore a variety of local cuisine (Marrocu *et al.* 2015:23).

- **Multi-country trip**

Multi-country trip is also another factor analysed and the conclusion drawn was that tourists who visit other countries on the same trip spend less money while they are in Norway when all other factors are held constant (Engström & Kipperberg 2015:137).This is also intuitively sensible as the tourists who visit many countries in a single trip split their expenditure between these countries visited unlike when visiting a single country alone. The major tourist destination in the multi-country trip will enjoy the biggest share of the tourist expenditure as tourists are most likely to stay longer in that destination than in other destinations.

- **The main place of stay within the destination**

Related to above factor is the main place of stay within the destination. According to Abbruzzo *et al.* (2014:58) the main place of stay within the destination was found to impact spending with certain places (Punta del Este) spending more than others (Montevideo). This may be attributed to some areas being more expensive than others as they are touristic areas (Abbruzzo *et al.* 2014:58).

- **Destination characteristics**

With regard to destination characteristics, Thrane & Farstad (2011:49) concluded from their findings that this variable affects spending, which concurs with previous tourism research such as that of Jang *et al.* (2005); Kastenholz (2005); Kozak *et al.* (2006); Laesser & Crouch (2006); Mehmetoglu (2007); Pouta *et al.* (2006); Taylor *et al.* (1993). Anderson (2010:8) postulates that the prices of tourism products, quality standards of accommodation establishments and surroundings were found to explain tourism spending levels. Alegre & Juaneda (2006) as referenced in Anderson (2010:8) included quality of destination together with repeat visitation and destination knowledge as determinants of tourism expenditure.

- **Travel information source**

Sources of information were also found to influence tourist spending though by few studies. Brida & Scuderi (2013:36) state that the bulk of the few studies that examined travel information source as an influence of tourist spending found no significant relationship but only few did. High spenders do more planning before the actual visit (Spotts & Mahoney1991 and Moufakkir *et al.* 2004), use the region's information sources (Spotts & Mahoney 1991), more likely national tourism offices and gold magazines (Shani *et al.* 2009), and read specialist magazines or websites (Spencer, 2010 as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:131).

- **Length of stay**

Characteristics related to travelling were found to considerably affect spending by tourists within destinations visited, with several studies showing the importance of length of stay to tourism spending patterns (Alegre & Pou 2004 as cited in Wu *et al.* 2013:5). Length of stay is considered the most used variable to explain tourist spending, and according to Brida & Scuderi (2013:36), most quantitative variables investigated were found to be significantly related to tourist spending in a positive way while few were significant and correlated negatively. Of the studies that were found to be significant and positive, more than three-quarters were associated with tourist spending that was not conditioned by length of stay but by the number of days of the vacation as intuitively expected (Brida & Scuderi 2013:36).

Thrane (2015:65) realised that length of stay interacts with trip costs and spending in the destination. Brida & Scuderi (2013); Marcussen (2011a) and Thrane (2014) as referenced in Thrane (2015:65) established that length of stay is the most analysed factor to explain variations in tourist spending depending on how expenditure is measured. According to Kozak, Gokovali & Bahar (2008); Thrane & Farstard (2011) as cited in Thrane (2015:66), if tourist

spending is looked at from a total expenditure perspective, stay duration corelates with total trip expenditure in a positive manner while a negative association is registered if the variable is measured in daily trip expenditure (expenditure per day) as discovered by García-Sánchez, Fernandez-Rubio & Collado (2013); Perez & Sampol (2000) as cited in Thrane (2015:66). According to Thrane & Farstad (2011:46), length of stay is typically measured in days or nights spent in a destination and, according to regression studies as cited in Thrane & Farstad (2011:46), length of stay has been found to be positively related to tourists' spending. That is, the longer they stay, the higher the total spending.

While there is a positive relationship between length of stay and total tourism spending, this relationship is not always linear, as suggested by many regression studies (Thrane & Farstad 2011:47). Roehl & Fesenmaier (1995) as cited in Thrane & Farstad (2011:47) and Marrocu *et al.* (2015:17) argue that although per day trip spending tends to rise as the stay duration increases, this growth rate is at a declining rate; thus, depicting a u-shaped relationship. Perez & Sampol (2000:621) and Thrane & Farstad (2011:47) also agree with Roehl & Fesenmaier (1995) that the increase in expenditure as the length of stay increases is not always constant over all possible lengths of stay. Downward & Lumsdon (2003) and Fredman (2008) as referenced in Thrane & Farstad (2011:47) concluded that the influence of tourists' stay duration on spending deteriorates for longer trips. Regarding length of stay the variable (alongside travel part size) was empirically found to relate positively with total tourism expenditure but in an inelastic fashion. This means that total spending changes upwards but not as much as the length of stay increases (Engström & Kipperberg 2015:140). Engström & Kipperberg (2015:136) state that a negative relationship is more common when tourism expenditures are measured on a per day basis, normalised by length of stay; thus, resulting in total tourism expenditures to increase less than proportionately with the length of the trip. The level of total tourist spending also increased as the length of stay increased but the average daily expenditure both at the origin and in Majorca was reduced as length of stay was extended by a day (Anderson 2010:10).

Although there is a positive association between length of stay and tourism spending, this relationship according to few studies becomes weak for trips of longer duration (Thrane & Farstad 2011:47). Thrane & Farstad (2011:49) in their own research discovered a positive correlation between length of stay and personal tourism spending holding all other aspects constant and this concurs with the findings of previous researchers such as Agarwal & Yochun (1999);Anaman & Isnail (2002); Thrane (2002) and Wang *et al.* (2006). Lew & Ng (2012) as cited by Marrocu *et al.* (2015:17) found a positive influence of stay duration only on some portions of the total tourism spending. Alegre & Cladera 2012:233) empirically found a

negative effect of length of stay on shopping expenditure per person per day. Alegre *et al.* (2011) found a negative effect for the length of stay as they focused on daily expenditure per person (Marrocu *et al.* (2015:17). Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:124) analysed 20 studies to determine general patterns and possibly universal influences of high spending behaviour in destinations visited. Spotts & Mahoney(1991); Mok & Iverson (2000); Moufakkir *et al.* (2004); Shani *et al.* (2009); Spenser (2010); Botha *et al.* (2011); Fredman (2008); Legohérel & Wong (2006); Downward & Mehmetoglu (2007) found longer stays to be positively associated with bigger spending in terms of per trip spending but Legohérel (1998) & Mehmetoglu (2007) discovered that short-staying tourists are high spenders (Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:128,130,133).

The discussion below touches on many factors as they relate to tourist spending with length of stay and spending relationships analysed, especially where many destinations are included by tourists in a single trip. Zhang *et al.* (2012:1564) regard time and money as being two major scarce resources for tourists, hence there is always an opportunity costs consideration when it comes to the use of these resources. More time spent at one destination means less time available to be spent at other destinations (time-to-time interaction) and the same could be said of more money spent in one destination translates into less money available for spending in another destination (expenditure-to-expenditure interaction) especially where resources are considered scarce (Zhang *et al.* 2012:1564). Zhang *et al.* (2012:1564) also show a very important interrelationship between time and money spent. Tourists who stay longer at a destination visited (time spent) tend to spend more as they are exposed to more activities, lodging and dining and the opposite is true (time-to-expenditure interaction) (Zhang *et al.* 2012:1564).

When allocating available time and money to different destinations to be visited, tourists might not attach the same importance to different destinations; hence tourists may allocate more of these two resources depending on the level of interest and the ability of the destination to satisfy the needs of the tourists (Zhang *et al.* 2012:1564). Some tourists in search of novelty will not visit another destination with the same attraction to the one visited before in one trip. Knowledge of destination and/or experience of a destination visited determines how familiar the tourists are with the destination, which in turn might also influence relative importance of the destination and monetary as well as time budget allocated (Zhang *et al.* 2012:1564). Decision contexts such as weather conditions and foreign currency exchange rates also determine the relative importance to destination (Zhang *et al.* 2012:1564).

Zhang *et al.* (2012:1571) observed the effect of travel group size on destination visit behaviour and time allocation behaviour and they discovered that the larger the size of the group, the longer the stay duration in the destination, which contradicts findings of other researchers who found that the bigger the group size, the lesser the length of stay due to monetary constraints. Zhang *et al.* (2012:1571) also discovered that the average access time within each destination influences how much time is allocated to each destination, suggesting that longer travel time within the destination results in longer stay at that destination and therefore more spending in turn.

- **Group size and composition**

Brida & Scuderi (2013:36) and Marrocu *et al.* (2015:17) label group (party) size and composition as one commonly analysed variable in studies of tourist expenditure. In terms of this variable, the number of people in the group travelling together or for whom the respondent was paying during a trip and the number of companions travelling together and the structure of the travel group (number of adults or children or elderly) were investigated to explain tourist expenditure in studies by Thrane & Farstad (2011); Jang *et al.* (2002); Perez & Sampol (2000) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:36). Various contradictory findings were made on the relationship between the size of travel group and spending by many studies which ended up leaving Thrane & Farstad (2011:47) labelling this association ambiguous. Some researchers found a negative association between travel group size and per capita daily visitor spending or tourism expenditure in general (Mak, Moncur & Yonamine 1977; Taylor, Fletcher & Clabaugh 1993; Mok & Iverson 2000 as cited in Thrane & Farstad 2011:47). This means that the larger the travel group, the lesser they spend per person, and research such as those by Spotts & Mahoney (1991); Hsich, Lang & O' Leary (1997) as cited in Thrane & Farstad (2011:47) on the other hand concluded that larger groups travelling together spend more on average than smaller groups.

Most of the significant negative correlations were associated with per capita expenditure whilst the bulk of the significant positive correlation was related to expenditure per group or per household (Brida & Scuderi 2013:36). Brida & Scuderi (2013:36) argue that this is expected as total travel expenditure is directly influenced by the number of people, but average spending drops as the size of travel group increases. Craggs & Schofield (2009); Downward & Lumsdon (2003); Laesser & Crouch (2006); Lee (2001) and Seiler & Hsieh (2002) as cited in Marrocu *et al.* (2015:17) found a positive correlation between total expenditure and travel group size while Alegre *et al.* (2011); Mok & Iverson (2000) and Wu *et al.* (2013) discovered a negative correlation between travel group size and tourist expenditure per person. Thrane & Farstad (2011) as cited in Marrocu *et al.* (2015:17) found the relationship between travel group size

and tourist expenditure to be non-linear with per capita expenditure becoming positive beyond a certain threshold level (number of participants). Kozak *et al.* (2008) as cited in Thrane & Farstad (2011:47) discovered an association that is positive between number of people travelling together and total spending, and a negative relationship between size of travel group and spending by the individual in the group.

Anderson (2010:13) asserts that per capita per day expenditure was found to increase with the decrease in number of people travelling together. As travel group size increased by one additional unit, the daily expenditure was reduced but aggregate expenditure at both the origin and in Majorca increased (Anderson 2010:13). Engström & Kipperberg (2015:136) argue that the positive inelastic correlation between travel group size and total spending is due to the saving behaviour of larger groups travelling together. Similar to length of stay, a positive effect of group size on total tourism consumption and a negative effect on spending per person as empirically found by Engström & Kipperberg (2015:136) are in sync with findings by Brida & Scuderi (2013) and Kozak *et al.* (2008).

According to Abbruzzo *et al.* (2014:58) tourists travelling alone tended to spend more than couples and groups of more than three. Another study that supports Abbruzzo *et al.*'s (2014:58) finding is that by Mok & Iverson (2000) which ascertained that high spenders travel as individuals and are highly attracted to shopping, but contrary to this Moufakkir *et al.* (2004) beckon that big spenders travel with others rather than individuals (Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:131). Spots & Mahoney (1991); Craggs & Schofield (2009) and Lima *et al.* (2012) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:131) concluded that large party sizes are big spenders while Mok & Iverson (2000) and Lima *et al.* (2012) empirically found the opposite (Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:130). Mok & Iverson (2000) as cited by Thrane & Farstad (2011:47) found that the smaller group sizes tended to be heavy spenders.

Studies such as those by Canon & Ford (2002); Jang *et al.* (2004) and Wang *et al.* (2006) as cited in Thrane & Farstad (2011:47) found no linear relationship between travel group size and tourist spending. With regard to travel group size, Thrane & Farstad (2011:49) agree with Cannon & Ford (2002); Jang *et al.* (2004) and Wang *et al.* (2006) that there is no linear relationship between this variable and tourism expenditure. Non-linear studies such as Perez & Sampol (2000) found that smallest and biggest travel groups were big spenders; thus, assuming a u-shaped relationship. Marrocu *et al.* (2015:21) also found non-linear correlation between tourist expenditure and travel group size and length of stay, which concurs with findings by Thrane & Farstad (2011); Alegre *et al.* (2011) and Wu *et al.* (2013) (an additional day of holiday induces a saving effect on spending though to a much lower extent than the

effect of group size). Travel group size and length of stay according to Marrocu *et al.* (2015:21) reduce daily spending per person significantly but the saving effects start to lower as the number of members in the travel group or the stay duration increases.

Closely related to travel group size is travel group composition. Spots & Mahoney (1991) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:131) discovered that travelling group comprising children tend to be big spenders. What the travelling group is made up of influences the spending patterns of that group in terms of how much they spend, what they spend on and so on.

- **Time of the reservation/planning**

Time of the reservation/planning is another variable tested but, in few studies (Brida & Scuderi 2013:36). Thrane (2002) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:36) found a significant and positive relationship between length of time taken on holiday planning and tourist spending while Kozak *et al.* (2008) found no significant association. Chhabra *et al.* (2002) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:36) ascertained that trips planned well in advance (6 months) were directly and greatly associated with tourist expenditure, while Perez & Sampol (2000) discovered that trip reservation made closest to travelling are significantly and inversely related to spending (Brida & Scuderi 2013:36). Aguilo & Juaneda (2000:634) also found that the time when the reservation was made influences tourist expenditure (late reservations were associated with lesser expenditure). This means that holidays reserved well in advance influenced daily trip spending greatly and in a positive way compared to trips reserved close to the date of departure. Choe, Stienmetz & Fesenmaier (2014) and Chhabra, Sills & Rea (2002) as referenced in Thrane (2015:66) support that bookings made close to departure are associated with less spending than those made when there is still time.

- **Travel motivations/Purpose of travel**

Alegre & Cladera (2012:225) citing several past researchers state that travel motivations affect the type and amount of tourists' expenditures including activities undertaken. Travel motivation is one psychographic factor which influences tourism participation and other behavioural aspects such as where to go and how much to spend (Wu *et al.* 2013:4). Purpose of trip and trip motives have been found to explain tourism expenditure with Brida & Scuderi (2013) placing purpose of trip as a trip characteristic while trip motives have been discussed as a psychographic factor. For the purpose of this study, these two will be discussed together under trip characteristics. Thrane (2015:66) note that a significant association between trip purpose/motives and trip expenditure was found by several studies such as those by García-Sánchez *et al.* (2013) and Saayman & Saayman (2014) to name but a few.

Of the studies conducted on tourist expenditure, more than half found purpose of travel to be significantly related to tourist expenditure with some studies indicating a positive association while others show a negative link (Brida & Scuderi 2013:36). Purpose of trip (business, leisure, studying or VFR and so on) is considered related to the needs the travellers seek to gratify when choosing to travel, and at times overlap with activities (Brida & Scuderi 2013:37). Marrocu *et al.* (2015:18) point out that holiday motivations are directly linked to the specific purpose of the trip. Aguiló, Rosselló & Vila (2017:16) also concluded that daily tourist expenditure varied with travel motivations.

Alegre *et al.* (2011) as cited in Marrocu *et al.* (2015:18) established that tourists motivated by the need to experience the local and cultural environment or social attractions tend to spend more than those motivated by the 3 Ss (sea, sand and sun). Type of visitor (tourist typology) is related to tourist motivation and Leones *et al.* (1998) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:37) found the relationship between nature touring and spending to be significant in a positive manner.

Tourists visiting friends and relatives were found to spend less in the destination visited than other tourist categories, regardless of purpose, as they don't spend on accommodation. Tourists visiting second homes spend slightly more than the VFR category while the event/attraction tourist segment tends to spend more than all categories (Thrane & Farstad 2011:49). Alegre & Cladera (2012:233) however argue that tourist motivations affect the decision of participating in shopping but not how much to spend. Engström & Kipperberg in their study (2015:137) found no significant relationship between tourists' purpose of visit and their expenditure in Fjord Norway.

- **Travel types**

Travel type deals with travelling arrangements which are booking through intermediaries or self-organised trips/ tour packages/number and quality of items paid for in a package. Booking holiday through intermediaries or self-organised was also registered to be significantly related to spending according to the bulk of studies examined by Brida & Scuderi (2013:37), while few were found to be insignificant. Booking via travel agent tends not to be associated with higher spending levels in general but Marrocu *et al.* (2015:23) found that costs of accommodation are more on average while food and beverages are lower. Abbruzzo *et al.* (2014:58) however argue that purchase of a package tour leads to higher average spending due to the additional service charges that tour operators require from each tourist compared to self-organised trips.

Anderson (2010:5) argues that although all-inclusive holidays are on the increase, the fact that everything is pre-paid for in the tourists' country of origin, tourists on tour packages are less motivated to spend extra money at the destination visited. Tourists' generating regions therefore benefit more in terms of tourism expenditure than tourists' destination regions (Wong & Lau, 2001; Issa & Jayawardena, 2003; Alegre & Pou, 2006 as cited in Anderson 2010:6).

Number and quality of items paid for during reservation was found to be significantly associated with spending in most studies while few studies recorded a non-significant relationship. According to Chen & Chang (2012) as cited in Marrocu *et al.* (2015:23) tourists' expenditure can either rise or fall depending on the amount or quality of components included in the tour package or saving opportunities offered by the travel intermediary. These include a package tour with transportation, accommodation, activities or independent tours and many more (Brida & Scuderi 2013:37). Aguilo & Juaneda (2000:633) discovered that the more components (transport, accommodation, meals etc) included in the tour package, the more the tourists will spend in their original country and the less they will spend on the destination visited. If only transport is covered in the tour package, the more the tourists will spend in the destination country (Aguilo & Juaneda 2000:633).

- **Time the vacation is undertaken (seasonality)**

Brida & Scuderi (2013:37) point out that the time in which the holiday is undertaken is greatly related to tourist expenditure, with peak periods (summer) pushing spending upwards. Abbruzzo *et al.* (2014:58) also discovered that seasonality impacts on tourist expenditure as tourism stakeholders attempt to maximise the economic impact of tourism. Marrocu *et al.* (2015:22) determined that tourists taking holidays during the peak season tend to spend more as they spend more on accommodation substituting other activities.

Koc & Altinay (2007:227) in their study ascertained that monthly per person tourist spending varied with the seasons, with some months having a higher spending than others. While a positive relationship between peak season and per person tourist spending is expected, Koc & Altinay (2007:232) found that some months during off-peak season registered above average spending while most months during peak season registered lower than average spending. Koc & Altinay (2007:232) advise that such information as above could be used by tourism organisations to form different tourist target markets based on spending patterns in different months and in designing respective marketing mix strategies. Koc & Altinay (2007:232) note a highest expenditure per tourist in August and the most likely explanation to that being that tourists stay longer at the destination in August and therefore spend relatively more money. In South Africa total tourist spending also varies with the season in question with

summer seasons being the peak and winter being the least. Occupancy rate of South African accommodation facilities is high during summer as depicted by the Republic of South Africa Tourism Department (2017:65) and so is the spread of tourism expenditure from food and beverage industry (Republic of South Africa Tourism Department 2017:66)

- **Travel distance**

With regard to travel distance, the majority of studies found positive and significant effect of this variable on tourist spending while few found a non-significant association (Brida & Scuderi 2013:37). Divisekera (2010:631) established that tourists from distant countries tend to stay for longer periods of time with their friends and relatives due to the cost of travel and travel time. Leones, Colby & Crandall (1998) as referenced in Wu *et al.* (2013:5) concluded that long-distance tours result in more tourism spend, meaning that those tourists who travel long distances to the destination tend to spend more. Wu *et al.* (2013:14) also found that tourists who travel long distances were found to spend more, a finding which concurs with that of Cai *et al.* (1995); Dardis *et al.* (1981) and Leones (1998). This finding is attributed to high transport costs and longer stay durations (Wu *et al.* (2013:14). Xuea & Zhang 2020:10) find that the effects of distance on expenditure morphology with restaurant expenditure is positive related to travel distance while hotel expenditure is negatively related. Xuea & Zhang (2020:10) further discovered that hotel expenditure dropped sharply from short haul to long-haul tourists, while restaurant expenditure increased sharply from locals to non-locals. They attributed this to the fact that food tasting is a key component of tourist experience, so non-locals were willing to spend more on restaurants to enhance their overall experience, whereas long distance is associated with higher transportation/overall cost, so long-haul tourists tend to spend less on hotels to keep the total cost to a reasonable level.

3.3.5.4 Psychographic factors

Brida & Scuderi (2013:37) point out that socio-demographic and travel-related characteristics as well as income (economic constraint) are the most analysed variables by researchers with psychographic variables being infrequently investigated. Wang *et al.* (2006) and Lehto *et al.* (2002) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:37) postulate that the influence of psychographic variables on tourist spending should however never be underestimated. Brida & Scuderi (2013:34), Marrocu *et al.* (2015:13) and Wang *et al.* (2006) as cited in Marrocu *et al.* (2015:14) concluded that although psychographic variables have hardly been investigated, they are in fact influencers of tourist spending in destinations visited. The psychographic variables to be discussed below are general opinions and attitudes of tourists, opinions about the trip and repeat visitation. Travel motivations have already been discussed under trip characteristics; hence will not be repeated here.

- **General opinions and attitudes of tourists**

General opinions and attitudes of tourist about concerning the destination is one psychographic factor investigated. Asgary *et al.* (1997) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:37) discovered that Mexican tourists' perceptions of prices of products in the US did not influence spending of this market segment in Texas (USA). Fredman (2008) uncovered that the main tourism activity undertaken at the destination (mountain vacationers) did not influence spending in the respective destination but outside the destination visited. Medina-Muñoz & Medina-Muñoz (2012) as referenced by Brida & Scuderi (2013:37) uncovered that tourists who moderately or greatly valued visiting wellness centres spend more while Nicolau & Más (2005) found a significant positive relationship between tourists' willingness to holiday at least once a year and high spending. Aguilo & Juaneda (2000:631) analysed tourism expenditures in the Balearic Islands distinguishing between tourism expenditure made at the original country of residence and that made in the destination visited and concluded that expenditure was influenced by tourists' opinions and perceptions about the holiday/destination together with other socio-demographic factors.

- **Opinions concerning the trip**

Brida & Scuderi (2013:37) report that half of the studies that looked into opinions concerning the trip in relationship to tourists' spending were found significant with the majority being positive while very few were negative. Henthorne (2000) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:37) analysed local vendors' attitude and how it influenced the spending of cruise ship passengers. Alegre & Cladera (2010) as cited in Brida & Scuderi (2013:37) tested the impact of prices and quality of accommodation on spending while Perez & Sampol (2000) investigated the opinions on prices and holiday spending. Tourists declaring negative opinions about their trip were found to spend less in the destination than those who declare positive opinions while the tourists who considered the Balearic Islands as an expensive destination spent more money in the destination than those who considered it less expensive (Aguilo & Juaneda 2000:634).

- **Repeat visitation**

Few studies according to Brida & Scuderi (2013:36) discovered a positive and significant relationship between past visits/previous travel experience and tourist spending while the majority registered no significant correlation. Studies that determined that tourists who re-visit the destination spend more money on destination offerings than first-time visitors include those reported by Lew & Ng (2012); Marrocu *et al.* (2015:23); Rosenbaum & Spears (2005); Marcussen (2011) and Kozak *et al.* (2008) as cited in Engström & Kipperberg (2015:137).

Marrocu *et al.* (2015:23) attributes this to the explanation that repeat visitors who are satisfied with their previous trip would spend more during the second visit.

Brida & Scuderi (2013) as cited in Marrocu *et al.* (2015:18) established that previous travel experience, although included in most studies, does not seem to be a significant determinant of spending. Alegre & Cladera (2010) and Alegre & Juaneda (2006) as supported by studies by García-Sánchez *et al.* (2013); Lee, Jee, Funk & Jordan (2015) and Sato, Jordan, Kaplanidou & Funk (2014) ascertained that first-time visitors tend to spend money on destination products and services more than those visiting twice or more times (Thrane 2015:66). Craggs & Schofield (2009) as cited in Marrocu *et al.* (2015:18) and Lima *et al.* (2012) as cited in Vinnciombe & Sou (2014:131) hold that infrequent visitors spend more than frequent visitors.

Engström & Kipperberg (2015:137) also empirically found that previous visitation (repeat visitation) to Norway is associated with less spending (low spending). Engström & Kipperberg (2015:137) try to allude the negative relationship between expenditure and repeat visitation to the perception that international tourists have of Norway as a high-cost destination; hence the repeat visitors might try to curtail expenses in a bid to afford the trip. Another explanation for the relationship could be that better information gathered during the initial visit would inform the visitors on how expenses can be reduced (Engström & Kipperberg 2015:137). Alegre & Cladera (2010) as referenced in Engström & Kipperberg (2015:137) also argue that first-time tourists to the destination may view high prices as a symbol for quality and therefore spend more than tourists re-visiting.

Anderson (2010:10) discovered that tourists who had never visited Majorca before tended to spend more both at the original country of residence and at the destination compared to those that have been to Majorca once before. On the other hand, tourists who had visited twice spend less at the country of origin. In addition, the tourists who visited Majorca thrice on all-inclusive package had spent less, in both in the country of residence and the destination, while the one with at most two previous all-inclusive tours has spent more (Anderson 2010:10).

Repeat visitation was not found significantly related to spending in Uruguay (Abbruzzo *et al.* 2014:57). Tourists with previous personal experience of the country were however found to spend more in Uruguay. Tourists who obtained information from the internet for the trip to Uruguay tended to spend less, suggesting that direct experience of the destination leads to higher spending than that of tourists who get their information from the internet (Abbruzzo *et al.* 2014:57). Abbruzzo *et al.* (2014:57) postulate that experienced tourists make a qualitative

selection of items to purchase, rather than taking advantage of the experience just to save money.

3.4   CONCLUSIONS

From the above discussion on literature, both length of stay of tourists in a destination visited and their respective expenditure levels and patterns are very important aspects to any destination country with South Africa not being an exception. The factors that influence these two key variables are widely known, but the question is: Can these factors be applied uniformly across all destination countries? As destinations are different, the factors that affect these two variables may also differ; hence the need for an in-depth understanding of these factors in accordance with respective destinations. Understanding factors that condition length of stay of tourists in South Africa and their spending behaviour will go a long way in formulating policies, marketing and management strategies to increase visitors' length of stay and spending; thus, increasing the contribution of tourism to the country's economy. This study therefore seeks to unveil the factors that influence length of stay of tourists and their respective spending patterns while in South Africa. The findings will add to the little literature that is available on these variables regarding South Africa and will add value to the existing body of knowledge on the two variables in general.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Research plays a very central role in society as it is the mother of all discoveries, an avenue of solutions to all problems, and a road to all unanswered questions in both academic and business spheres. Research, be it from gaps realised or inconsistencies in literature (theory) (Bryman & Bell 2011: xxxiv) or lengthy observation of happenings in society in general and organisations in particular will all in the end contribute to theory. A strong relationship exists between theory, research and knowledge as highlighted by Quinlan *et al*. (2015:69).

Bryman & Bell (2011:11) state that hypotheses are created from theories (deduced) and are exposed to empirical testing (research) and their acceptance or nullification will add on to what is known. Research findings and conclusions are always knitted back into what these authors call "stock of theory" and according to Quinlan *et al*. (2015:69), this results in new theory or in an extension of existing theory. Quinlan *et al*. (2015:69) attest that every research inquiry is designed to make a contribution to the body of knowledge within which the study is situated and this is supported by Jennings (2010:12) when she highlights "construction and testing of theory" as one of the specific roles of tourism research.

Jennings (2010:7) state that the demand for tourism information has increased as tourism continues to grow both nationally and internationally and the only tool in the acquisition of such needed information is none other than research. National governments and private sector as well as world organisations are requiring information that can improve tourism practice (Jennings 2010:7). Research avails information that is used in planning and management of tourism at all levels including policy development and reviews and understanding consumer needs better to satisfy tourists' expectations continually (Jennings 2010:7).

Welman, Kruger & Mitchel (2005:2) as well as Hammond & Wellington (2013:109) define research as a process of generating knowledge through scientific procedures, methods, techniques and tools or "scientific rigour and academic acumen" as asserted by Jennings (2010:14). For informed conclusions to be drawn on any phenomenon under investigation, suitable research methodology is a prerequisite (Binsardi 2013:2). The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodological approach employed in conducting this research and to justify the reasons for selecting a specific method to address the research questions. The

methodology employed is discussed in the context of research design, the research method/strategy, the data collection techniques and statistical data analysis.

4.2   RESEARCH DESIGN

Zikmund *et al.* (2010:66) define research design as a "master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing the needed information". This provides a framework or a plan of action for the research. Yin (1994:19) regards research design as a logical sequence linking empirical data to the initial research question and to the conclusion of the research. Denzin & Lincolin (2011) as cited in Saunders *et al.* (2016:177/8) describe research design as a methodological link between the research philosophy chosen and the subsequent choice of data collection and analysis method and this includes experiment, survey, archival and documentary research, case study, ethnography, action research, grounded theory and narrative inquiry.

Cooper & Schindler (2011:139) state that, although many definitions of research design as an activity and a time-based plan exist that are always based on the research question which guide selection of sources and type of information, it is regarded as a framework for specifying the relationships among the study variables and lastly a procedural outline of every research activity. Jennings (2010:17) regards research designs as approaches to research that are based on information required.

According to Zikmund *et al.* (2010:67) there is no best single research design. There are many types of research designs, but the most appropriate one addresses the research question and objectives better than others. Hence there must be a best fit between the research objectives and the research design chosen (Zikmund 2003:65). The research design should enable at its best to answer the research question without any reasonable doubt (de Vaus 2001:9). According to Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler (2005:195); Robson (1993:16) and McDaniel and Gates (2002:63), no research design is without blemish; they all have positives and negatives. In as much as they could be the best in addressing the research objectives, they also have their limitations. From the above it is thus evident that research design highlights the research questions under investigation, the data that is relevant to the study, the type of data to be collected and how it is collected and analysed.

Based on the information above it is clear that no general consensus has been reached on the types of research designs in literature with different names and contexts that play a role. What is considered to be an appropriate research design by one author may actually be included as a sub-set of another design by another author. Saunders *et al.* (2016:174) outlined

exploratory, descriptive, explanatory, and evaluative or a combination of these as available research designs that researchers may choose from. Bryman & Bell (2011:450) include experimental, cross-sectional or social survey, longitudinal studies, case studies and comparative studies as research designs while Quinlan *et al.*'s (2015:146) list entailed case studies, phenomenology, ethnography, narrative, grounded theory, action research, archival and documentary research, experiments and many more as possible research designs.

Jennings (2010:17-20) states that there are seven research designs, namely: exploratory, descriptive, explanatory, causal, comparative, evaluative and predictive research design. Thomas, Nelson & Silverman (2011:273; 291) highlight descriptive studies as research design which stretches across many research methods such as survey (most common), developmental research (which can either be longitudinal or cross-sectional in nature), case studies, job analysis, observational research, unobtrusive research techniques and correlation research. Thomas *et al.* (2011:291) accentuates that although case studies may be descriptive in nature, they may also be interpretive and evaluative. It is also clear from the above literature that while Bryman & Bell (2011:45) regard longitudinal and cross-sectional studies as research designs, Thomas *et al.* (2011:291) consider these two designs as developmental studies, which are in turn part of descriptive designs.

Thomas *et al.* (2011:291) define developmental research as a study of changes in behaviour across years. Longitudinal studies (developmental research method) is one in which the same participants are studied over a period of years while cross-sectional studies are research in which samples of participants from say different age groups for instance are selected to assess the effects of maturation (Thomas *et al.* 2011:292). Bryman & Bell (2011:53) and Zikmund *et al.*(2010:196/7) explain that cross-sectional research design is the collection of data on more than one case and at a single point in time in order to gather measurable data in connection to two or more variables (usually more than two) which are then examined to ascertain patterns of association. Here data is collected from a sample at a single point in time and Bryman & Bell (2011:53, 68) postulate that surveys comprise a cross-sectional design.

Longitudinal research design, according to Quinlan *et al.* (2015:151) is a survey of respondents at different times over a long or relatively long period of time, thus allowing analysis of responses on an ongoing basis and changes over time. Bryman & Bell (2011:57) assert that this design is hardly used in business or management research due to time and financial constraints. Longitudinal design allows some insight into the time order of variables and therefore may be more able to allow causal inferences to be made (Bryman & Bell 2011:58). Although this is true, its applicability in academic research is limited due to time

inadequacies (Saunders *et al.* 2016:200). Saunders *et al.* (2016:200) postulate that a decision should be made on whether the research should be a snapshot taken at a particular point in time (cross-sectional) or a series of snapshots representing a series of events over a given period of time (longitudinal). According to Saunders *et al.* (2016:200), cross-sectional studies often employ the survey strategy thus they seek to describe the incidence of a phenomenon or to explain how factors are related in different organisations.

Descriptive research design and causal research design can be selected for research purposes depending on the objectives to be achieved by the researcher (Cooper & Schindler 2011:149). Thomas *et al.* (2011:273) describe descriptive research as a study of status of which the value is based on problems that can be solved and practices that can be improved through objective and thorough description. Description, as seen by Saunders *et al.* (2016:175) should be thought of as a means to an end rather than an end in itself. Description should rather be considered a precursor to explanation. Thus, these studies are labelled descripto-explanatory studies (Saunders *et al.* 2016:175). Descriptive statistics according to Zikmund *et al.* (2010:413) and McCutcheon, Aruguete, Edman & Kennison (2011:8) describe basic characteristics and summarise the data in a clear and understandable manner. Inferential statistics enable generalisations of research findings on a sample to the entire population.

Descriptive designs, according to Cooper & Schindler (2011:149), are associated with describing the phenomenon or characteristics of the target population, estimating proportions of the population that possess these characteristics and discovering relationships among different variables. Jennings (2010) concurs with Cooper & Schindler (2011:149) above and she further points out that descriptive studies do not attempt to explain the reasons for the phenomenon as they deal with the "who" and "what" questions but Neuman (2006:34-5) seems to differ by saying that it covers the "who" and "how" where the how causes the researcher to explain the phenomenon as in explanatory studies. Examples of descriptive tourism research highlighted by Jennings (2010:18) include descriptions of tourism patterns and behaviours such as socio-demographic profiles, arrivals and departures, purpose of travel, duration of stay, mode of transport, type of accommodation used, activities engaged in and patterns of expenditure. According to Jennings (2010:18) descriptive research enables profiling of tourists, typifying tourists, descriptions of travel experiences, phases in tourism decision-making processes, spatial distribution patterns of tourist flows and tourism developments, tourism inventories and baseline databases upon which to measure future changes in tourism trends and impacts and it aids in future monitoring and evaluation of tourism trends and patterns. Descriptive studies furthermore avail information that will either

support or debunk existing tourism theories and concepts or suggests modifications to the theories and concepts (Jennings 2010:18).

Causal research design aims to ascertain what factors trigger the observed behaviour, so in short it investigates relationships between variables where A can cause B to occur and these relationships could be positive or negative. According to Cooper & Schindler (2011:151) the essential element of causation studies is that "A" causes "B" or "A" forces "B" to occur. In causal research designs hypotheses are constructed from the known literature and observations and are subjected to statistical testing where they can be accepted or rejected (Jennings 2010:19; Quinlan *et al*. 2015:104; Bryman & Bell 2011:163). Relationships between variables and characteristics of the participants in the research including their composition (demographics) are made in descriptive designs (Blumberg *et al*. 2005:207). Saunders *et al*. (2016:176) explain that studies that establish causal relationships between variables may be called explanatory research. The emphasis in this type is to study a situation or a problem in order to explain the relationship between variables. The data can be captured and subjected to statistical tests such as correlation in order to get a clear view of the relationship, or data can be gathered quantitatively (Saunders *et al*. 2016:176).

Jennings (2010:18) states that in explanatory research the research practitioner is trying to ascertain the cause to explain specific tourism patterns or behaviour described by descriptive research or outlined in an exploratory study. Jennings (2010:18) however presents a clear distinction between causal and explanatory studies. She points out that causal research is totally dependent on hypothesis (purely quantitative) which is not the case with explanatory studies (can use any of the three methodological approaches, that which are qualitative, quantitative or mixed method).

According to Jennings (2010:17) exploratory studies are undertaken when very little or no information/data exists on the phenomenon being investigated, where the findings can be used to develop a more extensive research project. The concepts developed will guide further research and this research is mainly guided or informed by qualitative research methodology as it is more flexible than the quantitative approach (Jennings 2010:17). Exploratory study "is a valuable means to ask open ended questions to discover what is happening and gain insights about a topic of interest" (Saunders *et al*. 2016:175). This can be done by applying a number of methods such as in-depth literature search, interviewing experts in the subject, conducting in-depth unstructured individual interviews or focus groups. Exploratory studies are used where the researcher is unaware or not clear of the problems lying ahead in the study. In the process, concepts and priorities are developed, operational definitions are

established, and the final research design is improved (Cooper & Schindler 2011:143). The researcher enters into unknown territories where important variables may not be known or thoroughly defined. Exploratory research is flexible and adaptable to change, it can take a new direction as a result of new data appearing and new insights occurring (Saunders *et al*. 2016:175).

Evaluative research on the other hand aims at determining how well something functions, which could be software, a new programme, business strategy, policy and other initiatives. Jennings (2010:20) regards this design as applied research rather than theory building, as the researcher is concerned with establishing the outcomes of changes in strategies, practices and planning, and legislative mechanisms. Comparisons may be drawn between events, situations, groups, place and many more. Evaluative research allows performance assessment and comparison. Hence it makes a theoretical contribution with emphasis on how effective something is and why it is that effective (Saunders *et al*. 2016:176).

Some research designs are more suitable for qualitative research such as ethnography (Saunders *et al*. 2016:187), narrative inquiry (Chase 2011 as cited in Saunders *et al*. 2016:197), phenomenology (Quinlan *et al*. 2015:147) while others can be more applicable to quantitative studies such as descriptive, causal, experimental, case studies and surveys (Saunders *et al*. 2016:180). It is also possible that some designs can feature both in quantitative and qualitative research approaches, for example case studies and even surveys, explanatory, descriptive.

Based on the problems to be analysed in this study and the type of data that was needed and the design applied in previous similar international studies, the research design chosen for this study is descriptive, cross-sectional and exploratory. AS the current study involves analysis of tourist behaviours with regard to spending patterns and length of stay and the respective determinant factors, descriptive research design is suitable for the study as supported by Jennings (2010:18) above. This also allows for profiling of tourists according to their length of stay and spending capacity. Since the factors influencing length of stay and spending patterns of inbound air tourists to South Africa are not known and there is very little known about these variables, an exploratory design is appropriate for this study. Because of the fact that the survey will only be conducted once during a set period, it fits into a cross-sectional not longitudinal as discussed above.

4.3   RESEARCH METHOD

Jennings (2010:20) refers to research methods/methodology as approaches to research based on the methodology used and she states that the approach is selected once the research design(s) has been determined. Once research methodology has been selected in line with the relevant philosophical paradigms, suitable data collection and interpretation tools are chosen (Jennings 2010:20). There are two main methods by means of which research can be undertaken from which the third one emanates, and these are quantitative and qualitative research methods (Jennings 2010:20/21; Welman *et al.* 2005:9; Bryman & Bell 2011:28; Quinlan *et al.* 2015:125). A blend of these two in varying but systematic proportions is known as a mixed method (Bryman & Bell 2011:628; Jennings 2010:131-3, Quinlan *et al.* 2015:317). These will be discussed in the section below.

4.3.1   Quantitative Research Approach

Quantitative method gathers numeric data (Quinlan 2015:124; Bryman & Bell 2011:26; Stephen 2007:169; McDaniel & Gates 2002:122; Saunders *et al.* 2009:151; Saunders *et al.* 2016:165; Murray 2003:1). According to Quinlan *et al.* (2015:331); Jennings (2010:22) and Patton (2002:454), quantitative method is positivistic (one objective reality) and deductive (theories are tested). Quantitative approach is any data collection technique such as questionnaires or data analysis procedure such as graphs or statistics that generate or use measurable data (Saunders *et al.* 2016:165).

Cooper & Schindler (2011:151) describe quantitative as a precise measurement of something, especially consumer behaviour, knowledge, opinions or attitude. Bles & Higson-Smith (2000:156) assert that multiple methods can be utilised to quantify, record and investigate the phenomenon under study and to determine relationships between variables. Although quantitative research aims to achieve objectivity and enables huge populations to be studied, it dilutes the affluence of the data collected, unlike qualitative methods (Quinlan *et al.* 2015:63; Anderson & Taylor 2009:25). Anderson & Taylor (2009:25) point out that quantitative strategy also suffers from the drawback that it ignores the influence of variables excluded in the model about the phenomenon under study; hence the validity of the results.

Saunders *et al.* (2016:166) distinguish between mono-quantitative methods and multi-quantitative methods. They define mono-quantitative methods as the use of a single data collection technique such as questionnaires and a corresponding quantitative analytical procedure. Multi-quantitative method uses more than one quantitative data collection technique and corresponding analytical procedure (use of questionnaires as well-structured observations and analysing the data by employing statistical procedures).

Multi-method is the branch of multiple method research that uses more than one quantitative or qualitative method but does not mix the two (Saunders *et al.* 2016:166). The use of multiple methods has been encouraged within organisations as it overcomes limitations associated with mono or single methods (Bryman 2006 as cited in Saunders *et al.* 2016:166). Multiple methods are also encouraged as they provide scope for a research approach to data collection, analysis and interpretation. In quantitative research, a survey research strategy is normally conducted using questionnaire or structured interviewing or structured observation. Quantitative data collected empirically will be analysed through statistical tools and the data is usually described before relationships between variables can be analysed and determined (Quinlan *et al.* 2015:322).

4.3.2 Qualitative Research Approach

Qualitative approach inversely does not use measurement as its focus but language to gather and analyse data (McDaniel & Gates 2002:122, Quinlan *et al.* 2015:322; Welman *et al.* 2005:8; Saunders *et al.* 2016:165). Thus, methods used to gather non-numeric data are mainly interviews, focus groups, participant observation, photographs and the main data analysis methods are content analysis, discourse analysis, thematic analysis, textual analysis (Quinlan *et al.* 2015:335; Monoharan 2010:13; Saunders *et al.* 2016:165). Cooper & Schindler (2011:150) define qualitative research as an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and derive meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomenon in a social world.

According to Quinlan *et al.* (2015:331), Jennings (2010:21) and Patton (2002:454), qualitative strategy holds that there are multiple realities that are subjective in nature and it tends to be inductive. Denzin & Lincoln (2011) as cited by Saunders *et al.* (2016:168) describe qualitative research as often being associated with interpretive philosophy (though it can be realistic or pragmatic) as the researcher needs to make sense of the subjective and socially constructed meanings expressed regarding the phenomenon under investigation. These are often referred to as "naturalistic" as researchers need to operate in an authentic setting. This enables the researcher to gain trust, participation, access to meanings and in-depth understanding (Saunders *et al.* 2016:168). In qualitative research, data collection is not standardised so that questions and procedures may alter and emerge during research that is naturalistic and interactive. Qualitative research methods can also be mono- or multi-method (Saunders *et al.* 2016:168). Having looked at the characteristics of qualitative research methodology above; this study does not fall into this category as it involves collection and analysis of quantitative data which can be measured.

4.3.3 Mixed Method Research Approach

Mixed method combines both quantitative and qualitative research (Quinlan *et al*. 2015:340; Bryman & Bell 2011:628; Jennings 2010:22; Saunders *et al*. 2016:165). Mixed method does not entail a scrambled egg mixture but the two methodologies (quantitative and qualitative) have to be combined in a systematic manner. According to Bryman & Bell (2011:632), either the quantitative approach or the qualitative approach can be conducted first to inform the other and the weighing will either be equal or biased towards any one of them. In some mixed method, quantitative carries more weight (predominant) than qualitative, but the reverse can also be true (Jennings 2010:22). Nonetheless, both quantitative and qualitative may carry equal weight. In a questionnaire both structured and coded questions (quantitative) and open-ended questions (qualitative) may be asked. Additionally, some qualitative research data may be analysed quantitatively by codifying the responses, though in the process the richness of the data may be eroded. Qualitative findings may be used to inform the design of a subsequent questionnaire (Saunders *et al*. 2016:165).

In mixed method research, quantitative and qualitative techniques can be combined in a variety of ways ranging from simple, concurrent to more complex and sequential forms (Saunders *et al*. 2016:170). Concurrent mixed method entails the separate use of qualitative and quantitative method with a single phase of data collection and analysis. In this, both sets of results can be interpreted together to provide a richer and more comprehensive response to the research question(s) as compared to mono method designs (quantitative or qualitative only). It can be established simultaneously how these two methods and data sets support each other (Saunders *et al*. 2016:170).

Sequential mixed method research involves more than one phase of data collection and analysis. Qualitative may be followed by quantitative or the reverse in order to expand or elaborate on the initial set of findings. Where qualitative is followed by quantitative, this is regarded as sequential exploratory research (Saunders *et al*. 2016:170). In multi-phase design, mixed method research will involve multiple phases of data collection and analysis such as qualitative followed by quantitative then further qualitative. In the process one phase informs and directs the next phase of data collection and analysis (Saunders *et al*. 2016:171 with special reference to Creswell 2009; Creswell & Clark 2011; Nastasi *et al.* 2010). From the literature above of mixed research methodology, it is clear that there is no need for combining both quantitative and qualitative methods thus only quantitative research methodology is used in this study.

This research therefore pursued a two-pronged approach with reference to an in-depth literature review and an empirical investigation following a quantitative methodology, to be discussed in more detail in the following section. An in-depth literature review was conducted to explore and gain insights into the topic under investigation. According to Leedy & Ormrod (2001:101), quantitative research strategy is ideal for measuring variables and addressing questions concerning relationships among quantified variables with the aim of explaining, predicting and controlling the phenomenon under study. Making use of Saunders *et al.*'s (2016:165) research onion, this research falls within the positivism philosophy, and the approach to theory development is deduction and the choice of methodology is mono-quantitative where the research design is descriptive (correlation) and exploratory in nature as the determinant factors of length of stay and spending behaviour from a South African perspective is little known literature wise. Positivism according to Bryman & Bell (2011:15; Quinlan *et al.* (2015:20) is an "epistemological position that advocates the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond". This position state that research must be objectively conducted (value free), theory must lead to hypothesis which can be tested to prove it (deductivism), that knowledge is arrived at through gathering of facts that provide the basis for laws and that only knowledge confirmed by the senses can genuinely be regarded as knowledge (Bryman & Bell 2011:15). In this study, through review of literature (theory) regarding, travel motivations, length of stay and spending behaviour of tourists, questionnaires were designed (from theory) and administered to the target population. The quantitative data obtained was then tested statistically to prove theory. Conclusions and recommendations made are knitted back into theory (thus positivism).

4.4   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The section provides information on the process followed to gather the data and describe the analysis performed to answer the research questions. Firstly, the importance of the literature review is highlighted.

4.4.1   Literature Review

Literature review as described by Blumberg *et al.* (2005:114) is a process of scouting for information, evaluating the information gathered and synthesizing it into one comprehensive body where similar ideas can be grouped, while contrasting ones can also be outlined. Saunders *et al.* (2016:70/4) postulate that critical literature review provides the context and theoretical framework for the research (a foundation on which research is built).Critical review of literature therefore assists in the development of good understanding of and insight into relevant previous research and trends that have emerged (Saunders *et al.* 2016:74). This

should include pieces of published literature that are relevant and significant to one's own research – not simply everything (Saunders *et al.* 2016:70).

Literature review according to Bryman & Bell (2011:92) as well as Welman *et al.* (2005:39) is very important in that it enriches the researcher with what is already known about his/her area of interest to avoid reinvention of the wheel. Review of literature also enlightens the researcher on the concepts and theories that are relevant to the study area and the methods and strategies employed by previous researchers on a similar knowledge area (Struwig & Stead 2001:39; Bryman & Bell 2011:92). Controversies of significance, inconsistencies in findings as well as unanswered research questions in the research area can be unveiled through intensive review of literature. Research questions can therefore be refined by means of a literature review (Bryman & Bell 2011:92).

According to the University of Southern California (2014) as cited in Saunders *et al.* (2016:74), the most widely used types of reviewing literature are the integrative review, the theoretical review, the methodological review and the systematic review. The integrative style puts together criticisms and synthesises representative of literature on a topic to generate new frameworks and perspectives on a topic while the historic type examines the evolution of research on a particular topic over a period of time to place it in a historical context (Saunders *et al.* 2016:74). The theoretical review as explained by Saunders *et al.* (2016:74) examines the body of theory that has accumulated regarding an issue, concept, theory or phenomenon and is often used to establish a lack of suitable theories or reveal that current theories are inadequate for explaining new or emerging problems. Methodological style on the other hand focuses on research approaches, strategies, data collection techniques or analysis procedures, rather than on research findings. These are used often to provide a foundation for comprehending a method or methodology and to enable the researcher to draw on a wide body of methodological knowledge (Saunders *et al.* 2016:74). Systematic review is comprehensively pre-planned for locating, critically appraising, analysing and synthesising existing research that is pertinent to a clearly formulated research question to allow conclusions to be arrived at about what is known (Saunders *et al.* 2016:74). Saunders *et al.* (2016:74) furthermore point out that it may be possible to combine the above types of literature review, depending on the precise focus of the research project being undertaken.

For the purpose of this study an in-depth literature review was conducted on tourists' travel behaviour, including travel motivations and typologies, the decision-making process, total destination product; and visitors' length of stay and spending in a tourist destination. For effective review of literature on the above subject matter various text books, electronic

databases for journal articles and e-books (Emerald, JSTOR, Science Direct, Ebsco Host, SABINET, Lexis Nexis, Ingenta, SA e-Publication and NRF/Nexus); secondary sources (SA Tourism Reports and Statistics SA Publications); Internet and other authentic information sources were used. The key words are: Tourist Behaviour, Visitors' length of stay, Tourist spending, Tourist, and Tourist Destination.

4.4.2 Empirical study

An empirical investigation was conducted to identify and analyse the factors influencing the spending behaviour and length of stay of the international air market tourists in South Africa. Travel motivations of inbound international tourists to South Africa were also empirically ascertained. A quantitative paradigm in the form of a sample survey was used to conduct the research.

4.4.2.1 Target population

Quinlan *et al.* (2015:170) and Zikmund *et al.* (2010:390) define target population as the relevant population to be studied and this population has to be correctly identified as the inclusion of wrong population elements jeopardises the legitimacy, credibility and reliability of the research result(s). Target population is described as a list of elements from which the sample may be drawn (sample frame) (Zikmund *et al.* 2010:391). Cooper & Schindler (2011:364) define a population as the total collection of elements from which the researcher wishes to draw inferences. According to Neuman (2006:224) target population is the units in the population that the researcher wishes to investigate in the study.

Goddard & Melvile (2001:34) define population as any group that is the subject of intended research. Quinlan *et al.* (2015:170) further postulate that the target population must be carefully defined from the onset so that proper sources from which data is to be collected can be identified. Kenion (1999) as referenced by Saunders *et al.* (2016:27) describes target population as that portion of the population that has been redefined as something more manageable due to the challenges of some population elements not known or of easy access. This can be a subset of the population and is the actual focus of the research enquiry.

The target population for this study consisted of international tourists visiting South Africa by air. South Africa received 10.3 million tourists in 2017 of which 26% (2.6 million tourists) are from other countries outside Africa (SA Tourism 2017) and considered to be the spenders whilst visiting. These tourists were accessed at Table Mountain, at the Cable Way, a prime tourist attraction, which was identified as a "must see" for international tourists (TMACC2014:11). During the year 2015/16 only, Table Mountain received 1 million visitors

and its 25 millionth visitor which shows the magnitude of its popularity as a tourist's mecca (TMACC 2015/6:05).

4.4.2.2 Sampling and description of sample

Zikmund *et al.* (2010:68) postulate that sampling involves any procedure that draws conclusions based on measurements of a portion of the population. Saunders *et al.* (2016:274) describe sampling as being relevant and valid when it is not feasible to survey the entire population due to limitations in time and money. Where a sample survey is conducted, the sample should be drawn carefully from the target population highlighted in the research question and objectives. This enables conclusions to be drawn concerning the population under investigation (Saunders *et al.* 2016:27).

4.4.2.2.1   Sampling Techniques

There are two main categories of sampling techniques, namely probability and non-probability and within each category, there are many techniques which researchers can use but the method used in research should be the best to answer the research question and the objectives. According to Thomas *et al.* (2011:274) the selection of the sample should be based on the variables specified to be studied and generalisations made should be specific to the group studied.

Probability sampling, particularly random sampling, holds that each member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample (Quinlan *et al.* 2015:178; Goddard & Melville 2001:36; Saunders *et al.* 2016:275; Zikmund *et al.* 2010:395). These techniques include simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, stratified random sampling and multi-stage cluster sampling (Bryman & Bell 2011:179-82). These techniques produce accurate results while working with samples a fraction of the size of the original population of the research. According to Saunders *et al.* (2016:276) probability sampling or representative sampling is associated mostly with survey research strategies where inferences are drawn from the sample concerning the population with a view to answer research questions and meet research objectives. With probability sampling, generalisations regarding the entire population can be made at the lowest cost – contrary to working with a complete survey. Quinlan *et al.* (2015:178) and Saunders *et al.* (2016:276) state that probability sampling techniques are used when the researcher claims that the sample selected is representative of the population under study. Hence the results could be inferred or generalised to the entire study population –a scenario impossible with non-probability sampling techniques. However, generalisations will demand more effective time for ensuring that the sample is a true representative of the entire

population under investigation, designing and piloting the data collection instrument and for trying to ensure a good response rate (Saunders *et al.* 2016:82).

Quinlan *et al.* (2015:180) postulate that non-probability sampling is appropriate where it is not possible to produce a complete list of the population (sampling frame) since the total population is not known. Without a complete sampling frame, it is not feasible to engage in probability sampling as it is not possible to give assurance of equal inclusion in the study (Quinlan *et al.* 2015:180; Cooper & Schindler 2011:364). Quinlan *et al.* (2015:179) argue that in non-probability sampling, the sample is selected to represent the population, but cannot be said to be representative of the population in any statistical sense.

Non-probability sampling techniques entail convenience sampling, judgemental sampling or purposive sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling (Quinlan *et al.* 2015:180). Convenience sampling according to Struwig & Stead (2001:111) as well as Jennings (2010:139) refers to the engagement with those participants in the research who are easiest to reach and include (availability) due to their willingness to participate. The researcher knows how many people to include in the sample and then continues to engage people in the research until the sample has been filed (Quinlan *et al.* 2015:180). Saunders *et al.* (2016:304) regard convenience sampling as a haphazard sampling technique by means of which sample cases (participants) are included without any obvious principle of organisation in relation to the research question. Convenience sampling is also referred to as availability sampling as the participants are easily available and willing to participate (Saunders *et al.* 2016:304) and researchers recruit any readily available individuals as participants (Cooper & Schindler 2011:167).

Zikmund *et al.* (2010:396) explain that researchers use convenience sampling to obtain a large number of completed questionnaires quickly and economically, or when obtaining a sample through other means is impractical with the result that generalisation is impossible. Saunders *et al.* (2016:304) argue that results of convenient sampling are deficient in credibility as they are most likely to be biased as the cases are only selected on the basis of, even though they do not adequately inform the phenomenon under investigation. Patton (2002:243) and Jennings (2010:139/140) describe purposive sampling as the selection of participants based on the researcher's judgement for providing worthwhile and comprehensive data. Cooper & Schindler (2011:375) consider judgmental and quota sampling techniques as types of purposive sampling. Cooper & Schindler (2011:375) define judgemental sampling as the selection of sample members to conform to some criterion. Quinlan *et al.* (2015:180) state that in judgemental sampling, the researcher decides or makes a judgement on who to include in

the sample, and the criterion for inclusion in the research is the capacity of the participant to inform the research.

While the researcher's own judgement is applied for qualifying respondents into the research sample, quota sampling on the other hand is used to improve representativeness. Hence subgroups should be represented according to their numbers (Cooper & Schindler 2011:385). Zikmund *et al.* (2010:397) defines quota sampling as a non-probability procedure that ensures that various subgroups of a population will be represented on pertinent characteristics to the extent that the research desires. Saunders *et al.* (2016) however state that this is to be calculated according to their proportional representation of the target population. In purposive sampling, the researcher's own judgement is applied to select cases or participants that will best enable him/her to answer the research question(s) and to meet the research objectives. This technique cannot be regarded as statistically representative of the target population (Zikmund *et al.* 2010:396). The inclusion of participants is based on the data-blasting capabilities that will inform best phenomenon under study (Patton 2002 as cited in Saunders *et al.* 2016:301) while probability sampling can be used to statistically represent the entire population.

In this study, the researcher used non- probability sampling methods namely convenience and purposive sampling for the actual recruitment of participants, with particular reference to heterogeneous or maximum variation sampling. The researcher while at Table Mountain Aerial Cable way approached tourists visiting Table Mountain via the lower aerial cable car station based on their willingness to participate in the research project and their availability (convenience). As the tourists were lining to buy tickets at the ticket offices and to get into the Aerial cable car, the research had to greet the prospective respondent, introduced himself as a university student conducting research at "masters" level. This gave the potential respondent a relaxed spirit. The researcher then went on to ask a question related to which country they came from; this was meant to get to the right target population. At this point, tourists who were from South Africa and African land market were excluded from participating in the study. Those who used air as a mode of transport into South Africa were then requested further to participate in the research project and those who accepted where then given a questionnaire to complete. The researcher explained the purpose of the research in detail before asking for informed consent to participate in the survey. The researcher had about 10 clip board files, with a pen attached to it by a string and pre-printed questionnaire instruments ready for handing out as soon as all the screening questions were asked, and informed consent was obtained. To motivate the tourists into participating in the research project, the research had a wooden authentic key ring souvenir (African map) to give to the right tourist who participates in the

research as a token of appreciation. This maximised participation and quality of data obtained in the research. Visible aspects like gender and age was considered in the distribution of questionnaires to have a true representation of international tourists to South Africa. The researcher's inclusion of a wide range of nationalities in the sample as they were available, the number of respondents and the systematic distribution of questionnaires were attempts to enhance representation. The lack of a list of possible visitors to the site of distribution did not allow for probability sampling techniques.

4.4.2.2.2   Sample size

The sample size according to Onwuegbuzie & Collins (2007:281-82) is largely influenced by the research objectives, research questions, research design and whether or not statistical generalisations/inferences would be made regarding the target population. With non-probability sampling, the decision of the sample size is ambiguous and there are no hard and fast rules, unlike random sampling (Saunders *et al.* 2016:297). There should however be a logical relationship between the researcher's sample selection technique and the purpose and focus of the research. Furthermore, generalisations should be made to the theory rather than about the population (Saunders *et al.* 2016:297). Onwuegbuzie & Collins (2007) state that the size of the sample is determined by the research question(s) and the objectives, especially what the researcher aims to determine, what will be useful, what will have credibility and what can be done within the researcher's available time and financial resources. According to Thomas *et al.* (2011:274), the representativeness of the sample in a survey is more important than its size. The size of the sample is important for adequately representing a population and for practical consideration of time and cost (Thomas *et al.*2011:275).

In non-probability samples according to Cooper & Schindler (2011:374), the researcher considers a number of subgroups, own judgement and budget and time factors to choose a sample size, but in probability sampling, the size of the sample is determined by variations of the population parameters under study and the estimate of precision needed by the researcher. With regard to that, the greater the dispersion or variance within the population, the larger the sample size should be. This assertion agrees with that of Zikmund *et al.* (2010:433). Zikmund *et al.* (2010:433) explain that heterogeneity or variability of the population determines the sample size where small samples are considered appropriate if the population is homogenous and the opposite is true for heterogeneous populations. The narrower or smaller the error range, the larger the sample must be (Cooper & Schindler 2011:374).

Determining the sample size where judgemental sampling is applied calls for the researcher's own judgement. Zikmund *et al.* (2010:438) advise that novice researchers may find it helpful

to use sample sizes the same as those of previous researchers. The researcher can also apply own judgement to ensure that a sample has an adequate number of subgroups, such as gender, age groups and nationality (Zikmund *et al.* 2010:438). Patton (2002) argues that it is possible to guide the size of the sample to ensure sufficient interviews are conducted or observations are made, even though validity, understanding and insights that the researcher gather from the data will be more linked to data collection and analysis skills than to sample size (Saunders *et al.* 2016:297). With qualitative research it is recommended that data has to be collected until saturation levels are reached (Saunders *et al.* 2016:297).

Steyn *et al.* (1998) as cited by Saayman & Saayman (2006:71) regard 400 respondents adequate in providing results that are statistically significant on a 95% level for large populations. Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1232) distributed 1 000 questionnaires in the study on length of stay of tourists in Madagascar, where 900 were returned and 618 were properly completed without missing data, signifying a response rate of 61.8%. Dillman (1978) as cited in Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1232) considered this response rate an acceptable sample of respondents. Barros *et al.* (2010:16) in their study on length of stay of golf tourists in Algarve, Portugal, collected data from 1 000 golf tourists and out of this number, 610 questionnaires were returned of which 593 questionnaires were adequately completed and suitable for informing the phenomenon under investigation. This signified a response rate of 59.3% and still it was considered an acceptable sample size of respondents.

According to Bryman & Bell (2011:188), where questionnaires are distributed there is a chance that some could be returned without being properly completed; thus, they cannot be used in the research. This is known as the non-response rate. Quinlan *et al.* (2015:179) define a response rate as a count of the number of valid responses received and properly completed questionnaires in a data-gathering exercise and for research to be representative of the entire population, non-response rate should be kept low. One way of reducing the non-response rate according to Bryman & Bell (2011:188), is by distributing more research instruments than the intended sample size instead of administering the exact number.

It is generally acknowledged that for a population (N) of 1 000 000, the recommended sample (n) size should be 384 (Krejcie & Morgan 1970:608). Following, this recommendation and guidelines of previous similar studies, the sample size for this study was predetermined at 800 respondents of which 720 were completed without error, signifying a response rate of 90%.

4.4.2.2.3   Sample Inclusion Criteria

For a participant to be included in the sample he/she had to be an international tourist; therefore, all South Africans and other foreign nationals living and working in South Africa were excluded from this research.The researcher, after greeting the prospective research participant, introduced himself as a master's student conducting research and explained the purpose of research, he then asked for the nationality of the tourist before kindly asking for participation in the research. If the answer to the question of nationality was foreign national, the next question was whether the person is living or working in South Africa or visiting. This is how the most appropriate target market was identified and included in the sample.

4.4.2.3 Data collection

The data that was collected for this study is quantitative in nature and an instrument that was used to collect this valuable data is a questionnaire which was administered by the researcher in person at the point of data gathering which is Table Mountain lower cable car station.

4.4.2.3.1   Development of the measuring instrument

To achieve the aim of this research inquiry, a questionnaire (a quantitative research instrument) was designed and used to obtain detailed data on travel motivations, expenditure and length of stay of the international air tourists' market to South Africa. Quinlan *et al*. (2015:162) defines questionnaires as structured methods of gathering data. Thomas *et al.* (2011:273) point out that researchers use questionnaires to obtain information by asking participants to respond to questions rather than by observing their behaviour. Thomas *et al.*(2011:273) further point out that the drawback of questionnaires as a data gathering instrument is that the results consist of simply what respondents say they do or what they say they believe or like or dislike, but if planned properly, valid results can be obtained.

The questionnaire was developed from literature on length of stay and spending behaviour such as that of Alegre & Pou (2006:1349-51,2011:559); Celidoni *et al*. (2010:53); Ganzon & Fillone (2014:242); Alen *et al*. (2014:21-24); Wang *et al*. (2012:70/1); Martinez-Garcia & Raya (2008:1069-71); Raya-Vilchez & Martinez-Garcia (2011:171); Ferrer-Rosell *et al*. (2014:118); Barros & Machado (2010:698-700); Barros *et al*. (2010:16) and Peypoch *et al*. (2012:1233).

Alegre & Pou (2011:559) included socio-demographic characteristics such as age, profession, size of the party, number of holiday trips abroad over the last 12 months, the number of previous visits, tourists' expenditure of the party and the type of accommodation used as possible determinants of length of stay in their study. Celidoni *et al.* (2010:53) analysed education, occupation, age, marital status, number of households' components (socio-

demographic characteristics) and trip characteristics such as duration of stay, destination, location, accommodation type used and motivation in their study on tourists' length of stay. Ganzon & Fillone (2014:242) looked into gender, civil status, employment, nationality, age, travel party size, travel companion (travel party composition), purpose of visit, travel budget, length of stay in the destination in their research inquiry into length of stay.

Alen *et al.* (2014:21-24) analysed socio-demographics (age, gender, stage of family life cycle (self-perceived economic status),travel motivation (the main purpose of the trip, the appealing attributes of the destination) and travel characteristics (type of accommodation used, the mode of travel, that is travelling alone or as a group, travel type, that is whether organised trip, escorted tours or individual or fully independent travel, and the activities participated in at the destination) in their study on length of stay. Wang *et al.* (2012:70-1) included gender, age, level of education, travel distance, number of times the current destination has been visited (repeat or first time), expenditure per tourist per day, marital status, type of accommodation used, travel companies, characteristics of the tourism product (such as level of hospitality, standard of entertainment, quality of services and facilities, standard of safety and security).

Martinez-Garcia & Raya (2008:1069-71) included age, gender, level of education, level of occupation, nationality, type of destination visited(city or coastal), main reason for travel, type of accommodation chosen, how the trip was organised, the season in which the holiday was undertaken (high or low peak), family trip or others, marital status and the stay duration. Raya-Vilchez & Martinez-Garcia (2011:171) included age, gender, marital status, reason for the visit, type of accommodation used, package holiday or not, travelling as a group or not, season of visit, area visited (city or coastal). Ferrer-Rosell *et al.* (2014:118) included the number of nights stayed, travel group, previous stay, places visited, time of booking (season), type of accommodation used, gender, age, country of residence, level of education, income, activities undertaken in their analysis of tourists' length of stay determinants. Barros & Machado (2010:698-700) included age, gender, level of education, nationality, individual's expenditure, destination attributes (image, activities to be participated in), previous visits, quality of accommodation facilities, while Barros *et al.* (2010:16) covered nationality, education, age, gender, social class, travel motivations, hotel and travel facilities, information processed by the individual concerning the destination, real and perceived destination attributes (restaurant, landscape, housing, climate, facilities, price, access, proxy, information on destination, events, activities, beach, safety and hospitality). Peypoch *et al.* (2012:1233) included in their questionnaire instrument nationality, age, education, gender, income, travel cost, destination attributes (nature, climate, sun and sea, security, physical appearance of population, lifestyle

and the stay duration. Several demographic categories were also included in the current research, specifically in Section A.

The segment of spending behaviour included in the questionnaire was obtained from Brida & Scuderi (2013:36); Wu *et al.* (2013:4); Marrocu *et al.*(2015:17); Zhang *et al.* (2012:1571); Vinciombe & Sou (2014:124); Thrane & Farstad (2011:49), Anderson (2010:15); Abbruzzo *et al.* (2014:58); Vulconic (1986:1971); Engström & Kipperberg (2015:131-141); Divesekera (2010:631); Alegre & Cladera (2012:230) and Aguilo & Juananda (2000:631).

The questionnaire was structured into 4 sections, which are is sections A-D. Section A was designed to gather socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents (age, gender, nationality, occupation, education levels, and marital status). Some questions such as those on gender had two option responses while others had many category responses such as nationality, occupation, education levels, marital status, type of accommodation and the mode of transport used while in South Africa. Open-ended questions were also used, especially for the age of tourists, country of residence and the estimate of tourist spending while in South Africa, length of stay in terms of days, number in the travel party and the number of times the tourist had visited South Africa. Section B collected data on inbound tourists' travel motivations to South Africa. The questions in this section were presented as a 5-point Likert scale with response options ranging from totally agree, agree, not sure, disagree to totally disagree. The questions concerned the reasons why tourists visited South Africa. Section C dealt with the factors that influence the tourists' length of stay and their spending behaviour. This section was mainly presented as a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) agree to some extent, (4) agree and (5) strongly agree. Section D centred on travel behaviour and it addressed variables such as main purpose of visit, places and attractions visited respondents' favourite attraction, how they heard about destination South Africa and lastly their experiences in South Africa. The section was made up of both multiple-category response questions and open-ended questions.

4.4.2.3.2   Pre-testing

Zikmund *et al.* (2010:233) define a pre-test as a trial run with a group of respondents to iron out fundamental problems in the instructions or design of the questionnaires. Zikmund *et al.* (2010:233) as supported by Thomas *et al.* (2011:278/9) furthermore highlight that the process takes place in two ways, which are evaluation of the questionnaire by other research professionals and a real trial run with a group of respondents (actual), usually 20, but the results do not form part of the findings. The latter is what is usually regarded as a pilot study. A pre-test study was conducted where 10 survey questionnaires were administered to

academic experts at a University with experience of travelling abroad. This helped to detect possible flaws in the measurement procedures and unclear or ambiguous questions (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2005:148). Poor instructions or inappropriate question wording on the questionnaire and biased questions could be identified through pre-testing and corrected before the actual fieldwork took place (Zikmund 2003:457; Quinlan *et al.* 2015:281).

The following changes were made:

- The question of the age of the participant was changed from how old are you? to which year were you born? as this was considered a possible turn-off/ offense to the respondents.

- How long are you staying in South Africa? was changed to, for how many days are you staying in South Africa for this trip? The refined question specified the unit of measurement which is days unlike the initial question which was vague about the unit of measurement.

Pre-testing is also another way of increasing the response rate as all ambiguous, improperly structured questions are made easy to understand.

4.4.2.3.3 Data collection

The data gathering was done at Table Mountain Cable Way in Cape Town over a period of two weeks from 26 August to 11 September 2016. The period in which the research was undertaken was a good time for data collection as this was the beginning of spring and the season for international visitors. Table Mountain is located in Cape Town in the Western Cape province of South Africa, which is one of the most premier tourism destinations of the country receiving about 1.7 million international visitors a year and 57% of all overseas visitors including 66.3% of all European, 55.3% of all American and 48.2% of all Asian visitors to the country (South African Tourism, 2008 as cited in Maumbe & Donaldson 2010:5).

According to the University of the Western Cape (2007) as cited in Maumbe & Donaldson (2010:6), Cape Town receives over 90% of all international visitors to the Province, followed by Cape Winelands and Cape Garden Route, each receiving 67% and 48% respectively. Table Mountain is one of the main reasons why Cape Town enjoys 90% of province's share of the international visitors. Table Mountain was therefore selected as a data collection point based on it being a prime tourist attraction and a must see for international tourists and is also a renowned world heritage site. Table Mountain was selected and the Table Mountain Aerial Cable Car Company (TMACC) authorities were approached and permission to undertake the research was granted. Table Mountain was named as Africa's leading tourist attraction in the World Travel Awards 2014. In 2014, TMACC hosted a record number of 909,000 visitors which

on average translate to 75 750 visitors per month and 2 443 visitors per day (TMACC 2014:3). In year 2015 to 2016, TMACC received 1,000,000 visitors to Table Mountain meaning that on average per month the company hosted 83,333 visitors translating to 2,688 visitors on average per day (TMACC 2015:6). It is against this background and the challenges with obtaining permission to conduct research at gateway airports that the researcher chose to collect data at the lower cable car station at Table Mountain in Cape Town.

The researcher administered the research instruments at the foot of Table Mountain, meaning at the lower cable car station. This was the best location as tourists could queue up to buy cable car tickets to go up the mountain. The researcher had to be at the lower cable car station at 7am to distribute questionnaires to group tourists. These group tourists usually buy cable car tickets online via their respective ground operators and early in the morning they start queuing for the purpose of getting in the cable car. The cable car started operating at 8am and before this, there were two queues, one for those with online tickets and the other one for tourists who had no online tickets. Although group tourists also visited Table Mountain in the morning and around twelve noon, the best time to get hold of them was in the morning as they queued for the cable car but in the afternoon, they did express check-in to the cable car. Throughout the entire day, the researcher was mainly distributing questionnaires to independent tourists without online tickets.

The 800 international tourists were purposively and conveniently recruited according to their willingness to participate in the research project. The researcher had to approach every potential participant in the queue for ticket sales and apply own judgement to recruit participants based on whether or not they would be able to complete the questionnaire before reaching the ticket pay point. Where the researcher realised that a potential participant would not finish completing the instrument before reaching the pay point, he would not ask for their inclusion in the sample. It was only during quiet times that the researcher could ask prospective participants to sacrifice about 10 minutes of their time to the research. In this case, participants could continue completing the questionnaire even after they had purchased the tickets; thus, showing how cooperative most of the respondents were.

Care was also taken to ensure that a diverse range of nationalities; age and gender were included in the sample for it to be a close representation of all the visitors to South Africa as well as of the phenomenon under investigation. The researcher distributed the questionnaire to respondents in person and used his own judgement regarding the inclusion of the respondents in the sample. The researcher made sure that the gender inclusion was proportionate with the gender composition at any time of the day instead of only issuing out

questionnaires to one gender. The researcher made sure that both genders are included in the sample. Researcher's own judgement was also used to include different age groups in the sample. Just by mere looking at the respondent before asking them to participate in research, the researcher could judge the estimate age group. With nationality, it was a bit challenging to identify different nationalities especially Europeans and Americans just by mere looking but Africans, Chinese, Indians and other Asian tourists it was possible. The researcher made sure that Africans, Americans, Europeans and Asians were included in the sample as they were available depending as well on their willingness to participate. The researcher after introducing himself to the prospective research participant asked for the nationality of the would-be respondent. He then went on to ask for their willingness to participate in the research. The researcher also assured the respondents of their anonymity and that the information supplied will never be shared with anyone.

4.4.2.4 Data analysis

After the questionnaires were collected, they were numbered and captured in Microsoft Excel to facilitate the input of the data into SPSS (Version 23). The data was cleaned by correcting data capturing mistakes. Data was then processed by Statistical Services of North West University Statistical Department (Potchefstroom Campus) and analysed by the researcher. Descriptive statistics (frequency tables), exploratory statistics (factor analyses) and inferential statistics (*t*-tests, ANOVA's and correlations) were done to gain answers to specific research questions.

4.4.2.4.1   Frequency tables

Descriptive statistics according to Welman *et al.* (2005:231) are concerned with the description and/or summary of data obtained for a group of individual units of analysis. Quantitative data gathered in a research can be presented in a number of ways, including frequency tables and diagrams such as bar graphs, pie charts, line graphs, scatter grams and histograms before it is described (Bryman & Bell 2011:342/3; Quinlan *et al.* 2015:359-369). Once data is displayed in frequency tables and diagrams, it is then easy to interpret and understand. Quinlan *et al.* (2015:360) maintain that frequency distributions compact information into a simple format which will allow the reader to picture the way in which the variable is distributed. Frequency tables according to Bryman & Bell (2011:342) provide a number of people and the percentage belonging to each of the categories for the variable in question.

In this research project, descriptive analysis of variables was done making use of frequency tables. To be more specific, variables which were presented on frequency tables include demographic information (gender, age, country of residence, education, marital status and

occupation), travel behaviour (accommodation type used, transport type used, number of visits to South Africa, number of people in the travel group), travel motivations to South Africa (main motivations to travel and the specific motivations to travel to South Africa), spending behaviour (more specifically number of people paying for, spending patterns and factors influencing visitor spending), length of stay and factors influencing length of stay in South Africa, how tourists heard about South Africa, attractions visited in South Africa, favourite attraction in South Africa and lastly negative experiences while visiting South Africa. Frequency tables and the descriptive interpretation of these valuable tables is presented in detail in chapter 5.

4.4.2.4.2 Factor analysis

Descriptive analysis was followed by exploratory factor analysis. Factor analysis according to Bryman & Bell (2011:170) is used where there are many indicator measures to establish whether groups of indicators tend to bunch together to form distinct clusters (factors) and its main goal is to reduce the number of variables the researcher needs to deal with. Factor analysis is used where multiple-item measures such as Likert scales are employed to gather data to see the extent of the inherent structure to the large number of items that often make up such measures. Factor analysis can also be used to ascertain whether the dimensions of a measure that they expect to exist can be confirmed (Bryman & Bell 2011:170).

According to Cooper & Schindler (2011:546), factor analysis begins with the reduction of the number of variables in order to simplify subsequent analysis and is based on the relationships or interrelationships among the variables with the correlation matrix. The most commonly used approach is principal components analysis by means of which a set of variables are transferred into either a smaller number of variables that represent those in the original set or a completely new set of composite variables or principal components that are not correlated with one another (Cooper & Schindler 2011:546).

The linear combinations of variables (factors) account for the variances in the data as a whole. The first factor is made up of the best linear function of the original variable so as to maximise the number of the total variances that can be explained (Cooper & Schindler 2011:546). The second factor is the best linear combination of variables for explaining the variances not accounted for by the first factor. They may be third, fourth factors which will be the best linear combination of variables not accounted for by the previous factors. The process continues until all the variances are accounted for, but usually stop after all small number of factors have been extracted (Cooper & Schindler 2011:546). The quality and usefulness of the derived

factors are dependent on the types, number and conceptual basis of variables selected for inclusion during the initial research design (Cooper & Schindler 2011:546).

In this study, factor analyses were conducted on length of stay, spending patterns as well as tourists' motivation to travel to South Africa in order to group the travel motivations, the factors which influence spending and length of stay of inbound air tourists into South Africa. A more detailed application of factor analysis on the above-mentioned factors is done in chapter 5.

4.4.2.4.3   *t*-tests and ANOVA

A *t*-test according to Quinlan *et al.* (2015:362) is used to test whether the arithmetic averages (means) of two groups are statistically different from each other. Quinlan *et al.* (2015:362) postulate that *t*-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) both analyse the differences in the means of groups, but the only difference is that the former analyses the differences in means between groups while the latter is for many groups at one time. In fact, Quinlan *et al.* (2015:364) regard an independent *t*-test as a special case of ANOVA in which the independent variable has only two levels; hence its usefulness where more levels exist is limited. Analysis of variance was conducted using *t*-tests (variables with 2 categories only) and one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) for variables with multi-categories.

t-tests were done to compare travel motivation, length of stay and spending patterns with various aspects such as gender, accommodation types used and transportation types used – more specifically those who used a certain type of accommodation or transport versus those who did not use that same type of accommodation or transport (for example those who used hotels and those who did not use hotels as accommodation during their stay in South Africa). ANOVA on the other hand was used to compare travel motivations, length of stay and spending patterns by factors such as marital status and occupation. A more detailed application of these methods of analysis is discussed in chapter 5.

4.4.2.4.4   Spearman's rho

Correlation analysis is used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables and thus explore the relationship among a group of variables. According to Bryman & Bell (2011:347/349/377), either Pearson's r or Spearman's rho can be used to examine relationships between variables, depending on the nature of variables being analysed. Pearson's r is used to examine relationships between interval and ratio variables while Spearman's rho is used for analysing the relationships between two of ordinal variables or when one variable is ordinal and the other interval/ratio. Spearman's rho is designed for use with ordinal level or ranked data. In terms of the direction of the relationship a negative

correlation indicates that as one aspect increases the other decreases. In terms of the strength of the relationship it can range from -1.00 to 1.00. A correlation of 0 indicates no relationship at all, a correlation of 1.0 indicates a perfect positive correlation and a value of -1.0 a perfect negative correlation. Cohen (1988:79-81) suggests the following guidelines for interpretation:

Small: r=.10 to .29
Medium: r=.30 to .49
Large: r=.50 to 1.0

Spearman's rank order correlation was employed for non-parametric variables to check the relationship between for instance say gender and personal constraints on length of stay. In this study Spearman's rho was applied to analyse the correlation between motivational factors, length of stay and spending pattern factors by demographic characteristics (age and education), travel behaviour (days spent in South Africa, number of people in travel group, number of people paid for) and visitor spending. A more detailed application of this data analysis method is discussed in chapter 5.

4.5   CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to discuss the research design and methodology applied in the research. This was achieved by analysing the current methods available to conduct research and then decide which are the best to perform in the current study. In summary, the researcher used a two-pronged approach in this research with particular reference to an in-depth literature review on tourist travel behaviour, travel motivations, length of stay of visitors and tourist spending while in destinations and an empirical inquiry on the above-captioned variables. Literature was conducted using textbooks, articles published in online journals, seminal works, government and non-governmental publications. The empirical investigation took the form of a cross-sectional survey in which quantitative data was gathered using a questionnaire inquiry instrument which was self-administered at Table Mountain Lower Aerial Cable Car station, a hotspot for international tourists. The data gathering ground was selected based on convenience and ease of access but the inclusion of participants in sample the research was based on purpose and their willingness to participate in the research project. Care was also taken to ensure that a diverse range of nationalities were included in the sample for it to be a close representation of all the visitors to South Africa as well as of the phenomenon under investigation. With regard to data analysis, the researcher used frequency tables, factor analysis, *t*-test, one-way ANOVA and Spearman's rank order correlation to analyse the data that was processed by Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) North West University Statistical Department and interpreted by the researcher.

CHAPTER 5
EMPIRICAL ANALYSES

5.1   INTRODUCTION

Tourism can make a significant contribution to the economies of many countries and tourism's total economic contribution (both direct and indirect) measures the magnitude and importance of tourism within an economy (Cooper 2015:10). Length of stay and spending behaviour of tourists at a destination are very important variables as they positively correlate with economic growth (Wang, Little & Del Homme-Little 2012:67; Ganzon & Fillone 2015:238; Salmasi *et al.* 2012:47; Barros, Butler & Correia 2010:13; Martinez-Garcia & Raya 2008:1064). Thus, it is ideal that tourists stay for longer periods at a destination as this leads to increased levels of spending, since they engage in more tourism activities, more accommodation nights, increased exposure to marketing efforts and them visiting more places and attractions (Thrane 2012).

The purpose of this chapter is to analyse data and identify travel motivations for international tourists to visit South Africa, the factors that influence length of stay of inbound air tourists to South Africa and their respective spending. Once these factors are identified, it might be possible to create strategies to extend visitors' length of stay as well as recommending ways for these visitors to increase their spending, which will in turn increase tourism's contribution towards the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of South Africa and the growth of the tourism industry.

Data was gathered at Table Mountain National Park in Cape Town (one of the most popular tourist attractions in South Africa and a "must see" for both international and domestic tourists). The survey was done through the distribution of self-administered questionnaires. The questionnaire focused on demographic variables, travel behaviour variables including motivations, and determinants of length of stay and tourist spending. The first section of this chapter analyses the descriptive results of the study to gain an overview of the overall results.

5.2   DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSES

The most basic way to illustrate data is by creating a frequency distribution which represents how often certain scores occur (Salkind 2017:61). The results of the sample survey regarding demographic information are discussed below by means of frequency tables.

5.2.1 Descriptive analyses: Demographic information

The demographic profile of the research participants is described below with specific reference to gender, age, country of residence, education, marital status and occupation. Table 5.1 below summarises these characteristics.

Table 5.1: Demographic information

VARIABLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE	VARIABLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Gender			**Education**		
Male	396	**55%**	No School	5	0.7%
Female	324	45%	Matric	28	3.9%
Age(years)			Diploma/Degree	386	**53.6%**
18-20 years	15	2.1%	Postgraduate	284	**39.4%**
20- 30 years	158	**22%**	Other	17	2.4%
31- 40 years	228	**31.8%**	**Marital status**		
41- 50 years	147	**20.5%**	Single	132	**18.4%**
51- 60 years	89	12.4%	In a relationship	94	13.1%
61- 70 years	67	9.3%	Engaged	25	3.5%
70+ years	14	1.9%	Married	444	**61.8%**
Average age of respondents		40.75 years of age	Divorced	11	1.5%
			Widowed	11	1.5%
Country of residence			Other	1	0.2%
Australia	51	7.1%	**Occupation**		
UK	95	**13.1%**	Professional	173	**24.1%**
Germany	92	**12.7%**	Management	125	**17.4%**
Netherland	64	8.9%	Self-employed	46	6.4%
USA	123	**17%**	Technical	86	**12%**
Italy	28	3.9%	Sales	32	4.5%
India	25	3.5%	Administrative	40	5.6%
Brazil	22	3.1%	Civil service	24	3.3%
Austria	13	1.8%	Education	72	**10%**
Canada	19	2.6%	Pensioner	46	6.4%
Ireland	10	1.4%	Student	46	6.4%
Spain	9	1.3%	Other	28	3.9%
Saudi Arabia	17	2.4%			
Japan	9	1.2%			
France	8	1.1%			
Turkey	7	1%			
Hong Kong	7	1%			
Israel	7	0.9%			
China	6	0.9%			
Belgium	6	0.8%			
Switzerland	4	0.6%			
Zimbabwe	7	1%			

It is clear from Table 5.1 regarding demographic information that more males (55%) participated in the study than did females (45%), which agrees with gender profile of tourists who visit South Africa according to the results by Statistics SA (2015:20) indicating male (55.7%) and 44.3% for female tourists. Most of these respondents were between 31 and 40 years of age (31.8%), followed by those between 20 and 30 years (22%) and those between 41 and 50 years of age (20.5%). On average respondents were 41 years of age. With regard

to marital status it was found that more married people (61.8%) participated in the study followed by single respondents (18.4%) and those in a relationship (13.1%).

It is also clearly shown in Table 5.1 that most respondents were from USA (17%), UK (13.1%), Germany (12.7%), Netherlands (8.9%) and Australia (7.1%) in that descending order. A variety of nationalities participated in this research. The main profile however correlates with the typical profile of visitors to South Africa. SA Tourism (2015:13; 2016:13) listed United Kingdom (UK), United States of America (USA), Germany, France, The Netherlands, Australia, China, India, Canada and Italy as the top ten leading overseas tourist source markets in 2015 and 2016 in terms of the arrivals in their descending order. In 2017 top South Arica overseas source markets were UK, USA, Germany, France, Netherlands, Australia, India, China, Brazil and Canada in that descending order (SA Tourism 2016-17). The sample was so diverse, in that most countries which visit South Africa were included although the numbers were low. An important point to note is that China constituted 0.9% of the total respondent, even though many Chinese tourists visited Table Mountain Cable Way, the majority refused to participate in the survey due to language barriers.

With reference to the level of education, most of the respondents were holders of a degree or diploma (53.6%) followed by those with a postgraduate qualification (39.4%). Most of the visitors who participated in this research were professionals (24.1%) while17.4% indicated that they were in managerial positions, 12% in technical positions and 10% in the education sector.

5.2.2 Descriptive analyses: Travel behaviour

This section focuses on tourist travel behaviour with reference to the type of accommodation and modes of transportation visitors use to and around South Africa, the size of their travel party, the number of times they have visited South Africa, travel motivations to South Africa including the main purpose of their visit and their more specific motivations. The more specific tourists' motivations to South Africa are analysed using factor analysis while the rest of the empirical travel behaviour related data are presented by means of frequency tables.

5.2.2.1 Primary elements of travelling

Table 5.2: Primary elements of travelling

VARIABLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE	VARIABLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Type of accommodation used*			**Type of transport to and in South Africa***		
Family/friends	144	20%	Airplane	720	**100%**
Guest houses	258	35.8%	Car Rental	297	**41.3%**
Hotels	511	**71%**	Bus	328	**45.6%**
Backpackers	56	7.8%	Train	26	3.6%
Lodges	327	**45.4%**	Other	86	11.9%
Other	30	4.2%			
Number of visits to South Africa			**Number of people in the travel group**		
1st	531	**73.8%**	1-3	485	**67.5%**
2nd	114	**15.8%**	4-7	173	**24.1%**
3rd	34	4.7%	8-12	28	3.9%
4th>	41	5.7%	13>	32	4.5%
Average number of visits	1.68 visits		Average number of people in the travel group	3.72 people	

*Respondents could have chosen more than one option and therefore the percentages do not calculate to 100%

Most of the respondents to the study (73.8%) were first-time visitors to South Africa while 15.8% were second-time visitors and 5.7% were visiting South Africa for the fourth and more times. The average number of previous visits was 1.68. Regarding statistics on travel party, most of the respondents (67.5 %) were travelling in a group of 3 or less people, followed by 24.1% between 4 and 7 people. The average number of people in the travel group was 4 people. Most respondents used hotels for accommodation (71%) followed by lodges (45.4%) and guest houses (35.8%). Twenty percent of the respondents were staying with friends and relatives while 7.8% were utilising backpacker facilities. Other types of accommodation (4.2%) included apartments and camping. From the findings of this study, international tourists to South Africa prefer serviced accommodation to other forms of accommodation.

All respondents used airplane as mode of travelling to and in South Africa. Forty-five-point six percent of the total respondents used busses as mode of transport while 41.3% used a rented car and 11.9% used other forms of transport such as meter taxis, motorbikes and private cars belonging to friends and relatives. According to Boniface *et al.* (2009:83), it is possible for people to use more than one mode of transport during one trip as some transport modes are complimentary to certain activities and trips. It is also clear that visitors used more than one mode of transport (intermodal) within South Africa just as they used different types of accommodation facilities during one trip.

5.2.2.2 Travel motivations to South Africa

5.2.2.2.1   Main motivations to travel

Table 5.3: Main motivations to travel

VARIABLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Holiday/Leisure	624	**86.7%**
Business	62	8.6%
Friends and Family	49	6.8%
Sport	8	1.1%
Shopping	9	1.3%
Adventure	95	**13.2%**
Culture/History	50	6.9%
Medical	2	0.3%
Other	25	3.5%

Although it is evident that tourists may have mixed purposes for travelling, many of the respondents to this study (86.7%) travelled to South Africa mainly for holiday/leisure followed by those wanting to experience adventure (13.2%). Eight-point six percent travelled for conducting business, 6.9% visited South Africa for cultural/historical reasons and 6.8% of the respondents were primarily visiting friends and relatives. Respondents who chose the 'other' category indicated that they travel to attend conferences, honeymoon, participate in internships, studying and do good-news preaching.

The findings of this research concur with Statistics South Africa's report of 2015 which shows the main purpose of travelling to South Africa by international tourists being holiday (93.8%) followed by business (2.5%). Work and study purposes recorded 2% and 0.6% respectively during 2015. Overseas tourists to South Africa in 2015 travelled for holiday followed by business then studying with huge margins evident between holiday and business travel (Statistics SA 2015:17). South African Tourism's (2016/17:35) report, however, recorded the main purpose of international tourists to visit South Africa as visiting friends and relatives (VFR), holiday, business (MICE), religious and medical reasons. Of these reasons, VFR was the main purpose followed by holiday then business. South African Tourism (2017:47) recorded the main purpose of visiting South Africa by international tourists as VFR (bulk), holiday, shopping, business and others (medical, religion and many more) in that descending order.

5.2.2.2.2   Specific motivations to travel

Table 5.4 provide a more detailed response on tourists' motivations to visit South Africa as a tourism destination. It is clear from Table 5.4 that respondents *agreed to strongly agree* that they visit South Africa:

Table 5.4: Motivations to visit South Africa

Travel motivations to South Africa	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE TO SOME EXTENT	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
To relax physically	4.3%	6.8%	10.7%	35.7%	42.5%	4.05	±1.09
To relax spiritually	5.1%	11.4%	21.8%	32%	29.7%	3.70	±1.16
To participate in new activities	2%	1.8%	8.3%	43.2%	44.7%	4.27	±0.84
To find thrills and excitement	2.2%	2.5%	11.1%	36.0%	48.2%	4.25	±0.91
To sightsee touristic spots	1.3%	1.8%	7.9%	30.4%	58.6%	4.43	±0.81
To appreciate natural resources	1.6%	1.0%	6.0%	24.0%	67.4%	**4.54**	±0.79
To meet new people	2.5%	8.3%	18.1%	33.3%	37.8%	3.96	±1.06
To interact with unknown local residents	4.0%	9.2%	21.3%	37.1%	28.4%	3.77	±1.08
To visit friends and relatives	45.8%	13.1%	9.5%	14.0%	17.6%	2.45	±1.58
To live/stay with local communities temporarily	43.2%	17.5%	11.8%	16.0%	11.5%	2.35	±1.45
To increase my status	42.8%	19.9%	14.3%	12.2%	10.8%	2.29	±1.40
To impress my friends and family	18.9%	11.8%	12.9%	33.8%	22.6%	3.29	±1.43
The desire to be somewhere else	9.7%	5.3%	14.4%	43.2%	27.4%	3.73	±1.20
The dream of visiting a foreign country	8.3%	13.5%	21.6%	35.1%	21.5%	3.48	±1.20
To enjoy with travel companions	5.8%	3.1%	11.1%	35.6%	44.4%	4.10	±1.09
To be away from home(escape)	8.8%	6.1%	18.5%	39.4%	27.2%	3.70	±1.18
To seek solitude in a foreign land	28.6%	15.6%	17.9%	20.8%	17.1%	2.82	±1.47
To learn new and interesting things	5.1%	3.2%	8.5%	35.0%	48.2%	4.18	±1.06
Visiting a place never visited before	11.5%	3.5%	6.9%	24.9%	53.2%	4.05	±1.33
To enjoy the good physical amenities	3.4%	5.7%	16.3%	44.7%	29.9%	3.92	±1.00
Visiting historical and cultural attractions	2.9%	5.7%	16.8%	42.9%	31.7%	3.95	±0.99
Enjoying the local cuisine	2.8%	8.9%	15.6%	40.3%	32.4%	3.91	±1.04
To enjoy the beautiful scenery	1.1%	2.1%	8.8%	22.6%	65.4%	4.49	±0.83
South Africa is a safe destination	3.1%	11.0%	29.1%	36.8%	20.0%	3.60	±1.02
Easy accessibility of South Africa	1.9%	6.9%	24.8%	39.7%	26.7%	3.82	±0.97

- to appreciate natural resources: 91.4%
- to sightsee touristic spots: 89.0%
- to enjoy the beautiful scenery: 88.0%
- to participate in new activities: 87.9%
- to find thrills and excitement: 84.2%
- to learn new and interesting things: 83.2%
- to enjoy with travel companions: 80.0%

Respondents *strongly disagreed to disagreed* that they visit South Africa:
- to increase my status: 62.7%
- to live/stay with local communities temporarily: 60.7%
- To seek solitude in a foreign land: 44.2%

According to the mean values it is clear that respondents travel to appreciate the natural resources of South Africa ($\bar{x}$ = 4.54; SD±0.79), to enjoy the beautiful scenery ($\bar{x}$ = 4.49; SD±0.83) and to sightsee the tourist spots ($\bar{x}$ = 4.43; SD±0.81) (see Table 5.4). These findings agree with the conclusions drawn by van der Merwe & Saayman (2008), Saayman, Slabbert & van der Merwe (2009), Viviers, Botha & Perl (2013) and Hermann & du Plessis (2014) that tourists visit South Africa to **experience nature**, participate in activities, **to experience the attractions**, for nostalgic purposes, to experience something new, to escape from routine, to bond with a group, for escape, to explore culture(s), for group socialisation, to relax, for personal attachment, for photography, for shopping, for financial reasons and for education and learning.

5.2.2.2.3 Identifying the underlying factors of travelling motivations
To examine the underlying factors of the travel motivations of the respondents, a principal component analysis with a direct oblique rotation was executed. The twenty-five "travel motivation" aspects were reduced to 5 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. These factors accounted for 59% of the variance and were labelled "Relaxation and Novelty", "Social Motivation", "Cultural and Heritage Motivation", "Personal Motivation" and "Destination Motivation". The factor loadings of the 25 aspects were all above 0.319 (see Table 5.5). Reliability (Cronbach's α) was computed to verify the internal consistency of aspects with each factor. All factors with a Cronbach Alpha above 0.57 were considered acceptable for this exploratory study. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p<0.001$) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) was 0.875 which was acceptable

(Pallant2010). From Table 5.6 it was evident that small correlations exist between the various factors which indicate their independence as factors.

Factor 1 was labelled "**relaxation and novelty**" and contributed to 28.36% of the variance, had a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient value of 0.82 and an inter-item correlation of 0.42. The mean score for relaxation and novelty was 4.12 indicating that respondents strongly agreed that they were highly motivated to visit South Africa by the need for relaxation and novelty. Relaxation and novelty entailed aspects such as meeting new people, finding thrills and excitement, participation in new activities etc. Relaxation and novelty scored the highest mean among the factors, which indicates that the respondents felt that it is the most important factor in motivating them to visit South Africa.

The findings of this study concerning the need for relaxation and novelty as a travel motivation agrees with those of Bhatia (2009:48), Middleton & Clark (2001:72), Seth (2008:10), Bennet *et al.* (2012:81), Page (2014:60) and Cook *et al.* (2014:39). Cook *et al.* (2014:37) considers novelty (a personality trait) and relaxation (a push factor) as travel motivations. Taking Cook *et al.*'s (2014) recommendation that tourists with high optimal arousal level are driven to constantly seeking new and challenging activities, South African Tourism should therefore continuously develop and market South Africa as a destination for relaxation and novelty.

Factor 2 labelled "**social motivation**", contributed to 13.24% of the variance and it constituted aspects such as social status enhancement, temporarily living with hosts' communities and visiting friends and relatives. This motivational factor had a mean value of 2.89, a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient value of 0.72 and an inter-item correlation of 0.27. Social motivation scored the lowest mean value amongst all the motivational factors, which means that respondents were least motivated to visit South Africa by social factors.

Although this motivation ranked the least important in motivating international tourists to visit South Africa in this research, it was found of relevance in studies done by Cook *et al.* (2014:37), Cooper (2012:275), Bhatia (2009), Middleton & Clark (2001:72), as an important travel motivation.

Table 5.5: Principal axis factor analysis for travel motivational factors

Travel motivational factors and component aspects	Factor loadings				
Factor label	Relaxation and Novelty	Social Motivations	Cultural and Heritage Motivation	Personal Motivation	Destination Motivation
Relaxation and Novelty					
To meet new people	0.745				
To find new thrills and excitement	0.744				
To participate in new activities	0.684				
To relax spiritually	0.662				
To interact with unknown local residents	0.603				
To relax physically	0.541				
To sightsee touristic spots	0.530				
To appreciate natural resources	0.461				
Social Motivations					
To increase my social status		0.793			
To live/stay with local communities temporarily		0.780			
To visit friends and relatives		0.688			
To seek solitude in a foreign land		0.652			
Cultural and Heritage Motivations					
To visit historical and cultural attractions			0.632		
To enjoy the local cuisine			0.631		
To visit a place, I have not visited before			0.574		
To enjoy the beautiful scenery			0.354		
Personal Motivations					
To satisfy the desire to be somewhere else				0.786	
To be away from home				0.574	
To enjoy time with my travel companion(s)				0.556	
To fulfil the dream of visiting a foreign country				0.553	
To impress my friends and family				0.472	
To learn something new and interesting				0.424	
Destination Motivations					
South Africa is easily accessible					0.837
South Africa is a safe destination					0.825
To enjoy good physical amenities					0.319
Eigenvalue	7.089	3.309	1.624	1.403	1.225
Cronbach's (α) reliability coefficient	0.82	0.72	0.57	0.68	0.65

Inter-item correlations	0.42	0.27	0.27	0.31	0.38
Mean value (Standard Deviation)	4.12 (±0.66)	2.89(±0.94)	3.91 (±0.76)	3.75 (±0.80)	3.78(±0.76)

Table 5.6: Component correlation matrix for travel motivational factors

CORRELATIONMATRIX	Relaxation and Novelty	Social Motivation	Cultural and Heritage Motivation	Personal Motivation	Destination Motivation
Relaxation and Novelty	1.000	0.071	0.262	0.362	0.345
Social Motivation	0.071	1.000	-0.012	0.035	0.161
Cultural and Heritage Motivation	0.262	-0.012	1.000	0.213	0.085
Personal Motivation	0.362	0.035	0.213	1.000	0.265

Factor 3 contributed to 6.50% of the variance and included motivational aspects such as visiting historical and cultural attractions, gastronomical adventure (local cuisine) and visiting a place never visited before and enjoying the beautiful scenery; hence the name "**cultural and heritage motivation**". Cultural and heritage motivation had a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient value of 0.57, an inter-item correlation of 0.27 and a mean value of 3.91, which shows that respondents were motivated to visit South Africa by culture and heritage. This finding reinforces cultural interests as travel motivation of tourists as evidenced in literature by Cooper (2012:275), Bhatia (2009:48), Seth (2008:10), Robinson (2012:15), Uysal *et al.* (2012:145), van der Merwe & Saayman (2008); Saayman *et al.* (2009); Viviers *et al.* (2013) and Hermann & du Plessis (2014).

Factor 4 consisted of 6 aspects and was labelled "**personal motivation**" with a contribution of 5.61% to the variance, a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient value of 0.68 and an inter-item correlation of 0.31. These aspects deal with the desire to be somewhere else, to be away from home, fulfilling a dream to visit foreign destinations, to impress family and friends, to enjoy with travel associates and to learn something new and interesting. Personal motivation scored a mean value of 3.75 thus indicating that respondents were motivated to visit South Africa by personal factors. This finding concurs with conclusions made by van der Merwe & Saayman (2008); Viviers *et al.* (2013) and Hermann & du Plessis (2014).

5.2.2.3 Spending behaviour

This section deals with variables related to the spending behaviour of respondents. Factors that influence spending patterns are analysed using factor analysis.

5.2.2.3.1   Number of people paying for

Table 5.7 below shows that most respondents (43.1%) were paying for 2 people on this trip and 28.3% were paying only for themselves. This was followed by 10.3 percent that paid for 3 people and 9.3% of the total respondents that paid for 4 people. The average number of people paid for during this trip is 2.33.

Table 5.7: Number of people paying for

VARIABLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
0	9	1.3%
1	204	28.3%
2	310	43.1%
3	74	10.3%
4	67	9.3%
5	20	2.8%
6	19	2.6%
7>	17	2.4%
Average number of people paying for		**2.33 people**

5.2.2.3.2   Spending patterns

Table 5.8: Spending patterns

VARIABLE	RAND VALUE
Airplane tickets	R39 876.84
Other transport and travel	R8602.10
Accommodation	R31030.57
Activities	R8168.21
Souvenirs	R3155.68
Retail shopping	R3706.06
Food and Drink	R18948.81
Other expenses	R115.48
Average spending per trip	**R73 726.91**

The average spend per trip was R73,726.91 with airline tickets (R39,876.84), accommodation (R31,030.57) and food and drinks (R18,948.81) contributing significantly towards this figure. Considering the average number of people paid for (2.33 people) and the average number of days spend (16.42) in South Africa respondents spend R1,927.07 per person, per day in South Africa.

5.2.2.3.3 Aspects influencing visitor spending

Table 5.9: Aspects influencing visitor spending

Spending patterns whilst on holiday in South Africa is influenced by:	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE TO SOME EXTEND	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
Authenticity of products to buy	7.6%	19.4%	**30.6%**	29.6%	12.8%	3.20	±1.13
Marketing efforts of selling goods/experiences	8%	22.4%	**30.4%**	28.2%	11.0%	3.12	±1.12
Availability of information on shopping opportunities	4.5%	22.4%	30.6%	**31.9%**	10.6%	3.22	±1.05
Opportunities to spend	7.9%	16.9%	29.9%	**33.2%**	12.1%	3.25	±1.11
Access to shops	10.7%	21.7%	**28.6%**	27.2%	11.8%	3.08	±1.18
Availability of products to buy	7.6%	17.7%	**31.3%**	30.1%	13.3%	3.24	±1.12
My experience as a tourist	6.0%	7.9%	21.5%	**32.2%**	32.4%	**3.77**	±1.16
Availability of time to shop	5.0%	5.7%	24.2%	**36.6%**	28.5%	**3.78**	±1.08
My length of stay in SA	2.9%	4.8%	17.6%	25.7%	**49.0%**	**4.13**	±1.05
Prices of goods and services	4.0%	10.8%	**41.0%**	28.9%	15.3%	3.41	±1.00
The exchange rate	5.3%	8.9%	31.7%	**32.6%**	21.5%	**3.56**	±1.08
My travelling group	15.0%	17.2%	**25.8%**	23.2%	18.8%	3.14	±1.32
My interactions with locals	**33.5%**	20.8%	19.3%	14.6%	11.8%	2.50	±1.39

It is clear from Table 5.9 that respondents *agreed to strongly agreed* with the influence of the following aspects on their spending behaviour:

- their length of stay in South Africa: 74.7%
- the availability of time to shop: 65.1%

Respondents *disagreed to strongly disagreed* with the influence of the following aspects on their spending behaviour:

- their interactions with locals: 54.3%

The findings above were also supported by the results from the mean values as can be seen in Table 5.9, which indicates that length of stay ($\bar{x}$ = 4.13; SD±1.05), availability of time to shop ($\bar{x}$ = 3.78; SD±1.08) and their experience as a tourist directly ($\bar{x}$ = 3.77; SD±1.16) contribute to visitor spending.

5.2.2.3.4   Identifying the underlying factors of spending behaviour

Table 5.10 reveals a similar principal axis factor analysis for the 13 spending behaviour aspects resulting in 3 spending behaviour factors which had eigen values greater than 1.0. The factors accounted for 70% of the variance explained and were labelled "Access and opportunity", "Time availability" and "External influences". The factor loadings of the 13 spending behaviour aspects ranged between 0.508 and 0.903. The reliability alphas for the three were above 0.7, which is highly acceptable for exploratory research (Pallant 2010). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (p=0.000) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) was 0.892, which was acceptable. Fairly small correlations exist between the factors which indicate their individuality (see Table 5.11).

Table 5.10: Principal axis factor analysis for spending behaviour

Spending factors and component aspects	Factor holdings		
Factor label	Access and opportunities	Time availability	External influences
Access and opportunities			
Marketing efforts	0.903		
Access to shops	0.847		
Authenticity of products	0.847		
Availability of information on shopping opportunities	0.828		
Opportunities to spend	0.735		
Availability of products to buy	0.704		
Time availability			
Tourists' length of stay		0.890	
Availability of time to shop		0.743	
Tourist' experiences		0.717	
External influences			
Tourists travelling group			0.867
Interaction with locals			0.800
The exchange rate			0.536
Prices charged for goods			0.508
Eigenvalue	6.139	1.774	1.187
Cronbach's (α) reliability coefficient	0.91	0.79	0.76
Inter-item correlations	0.63	0.56	0.46
Mean value (Standard deviation)	3.18 (±0.93)	3.89 (±0.92)	3.15 (±0.92)

Table 5.11: Component correlation matrix for spending factors

CORRELATION MATRIX	Access & opportunities	Time availability	External influences
Access and opportunities	1.000	0.318	0.488
Time availability	0.318	1.000	0.202
External influences	0.488	0.202	1.000

Factor 1 was labelled "**access and opportunities**", which included aspects such as marketing efforts of service providers in South Africa, access to shops, authenticity of products, availability of information on shopping opportunities, opportunities to spend, and availability of products to buy. Access and opportunities had a mean value of 3.18, a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient value of 0.91, an inter-item correlation of 0.63 and it contributed to 47.22% of the variance. The mean value shows that the respondents' spending is influenced by access and opportunities and that it is important to create opportunities for shopping. This provides opportunities to entrepreneurs in tourism as well.

Factor 2 was labelled "**time availability**" and it contributed to 13.65% of the variance, a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient value of 0.79 and an inter-item correlation of 0.56. This factor embodied aspects related to tourists' length of stay in South Africa, time availability for shopping and experiences of tourists. This factor has a mean value of 3.89, which is the highest, amongst other factors; thus, indicating that the respondents' spending was largely influenced by time availability. It is thus probable that the longer the tourists stay in South Africa, the more time they will have to shop, to experience more activities and thus the more they will spend. South African Tourism should therefore attract long stayers and return visitors as they hold more economic benefits. This finding agrees with research done by Thrane (2012).

Factor 3 was labelled "**external influences**" and constituted travelling group, interaction with the locals, the exchange rate and the prices charged for goods. External influences had a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient value of 0.76, an inter-item correlation of 0.46, a mean value of 3.15 and contributed to 9.13% of the variance. The mean value for this factor is the lowest compared to the other two, meaning that the respondents' spending was least influenced by external influences. Although this factor recorded the least in influencing spending, literature indicates that the more favourable the exchange rate, the bigger the travel group, the less the prices charged for products, the more the spending, as this has a boost on the tourist's spending wallet (Kotler *et al.* 2017).

5.2.2.4 Length of stay

This section focuses on the display of empirical data related to length of stay using frequency tables and thereafter the analysis of factors that influence the length of stay of inbound tourists to South Africa using factor analysis.

5.2.2.4.1 Length of stay whilst in South Africa

Length of stay in this study was measured by the number of days spent in South Africa. The majority (29.4%) stayed between 13 and 17 days, followed by those staying between 8 and 12 days (24.4%) as depicted in Table 5.12. The average length of stay was 16.42 days. This is higher than the annual average length of stay of international tourists (SAT 2018).

Table 5.12: Length of stay

NUMBER OF DAYS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
1-3	7	1.0%
4-7	85	11.8%
8-12	176	**24.4%**
13-17	212	**29.4%**
18-22	131	**18.2%**
23-32	88	12.2%
33-50	14	1.9%
51>	7	1.0%
Average length of stay		**16.42 days**

5.2.2.4.2 Aspects influencing length of stay

Respondents agreed to strongly agreed with the following aspects influencing their length of stay in South Africa:

- Time constraints: 75%
- The location of South Africa: 64.1%
- Respondents' knowledge of South Africa: 61.5%
- Financial constraints: 60.9%

Respondents disagreed to strongly disagreed with the following aspects influencing their length of stay in South Africa:

- the fact that they are travelling alone: 67.2%
- their own previous experiences: 52.8%
- the quality of the food in South Africa: 52.4%

The most important aspects thus influencing length of stay were time constraints ($\bar{x}$ = 4.03; SD±0.10), the location of South Africa ($\bar{x}$ = 3.73; SD±1.18) and financial constraints ($\bar{x}$ = 3.67; SD±1.79).

Table 5.13: Aspects influencing length of stay

Length of stay in South Africa was influenced by:	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE TO SOME EXTENT	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
Accessibility of South Africa	8.6%	22.5%	**33.9%**	24.2%	10.8%	3.06	±1.11
Services level in South Africa	16.5%	**29.7%**	25.1%	19.0%	9.7%	2.76	±1.21
Time constraints	1.7%	7.3%	16.0%	36.3%	**38.7%**	**4.03**	±0.10
Financial constraints	2.4%	10.8%	25.9%	**39.5%**	21.4%	**3.67**	±1.01
Number of things to do in South Africa	8.3%	15.8%	26.8%	**30.3%**	18.8%	3.35	±1.20
Type of things to do in South Africa	8.2%	16.3%	26.3%	**31.3%**	17.9%	3.34	±1.19
Quality of food in South Africa	13.6%	**38.8%**	17.5%	16.5%	13.6%	2.78	±1.26
Available information about South Africa	7.2%	16.8%	18.2%	**32.1%**	25.7%	3.52	±1.24
My knowledge of South Africa	6.1%	12.6%	19.8%	**39.0%**	22.5%	3.59	±1.15
The location of South Africa	5.8%	11.4%	18.1%	**33.9%**	30.8%	**3.73**	±1.18
Prices of accommodation, food etc.	8.2%	14.3%	**37.2%**	23.2%	17.1%	3.27	±1.15
The fact of travelling alone	**54.0%**	13.2%	11.7%	12.2%	8.9%	2.09	±1.39
The fact of travelling in a group	**33.8%**	13.4%	17.8%	18.3%	16.7%	2.72	±1.54
Safety of destination South Africa	8.8%	11.7%	**41.9%**	27.6%	10.0%	3.19	±1.05
Availability of information on social media	8.3%	11.5%	26.8%	**38.3%**	15.1%	**3.41**	±1.13
Friends and relatives commend about South Africa	14.6%	**27.0%**	24.9%	20.2%	13.4%	2.91	±1.25
Own previous experiences	**36.5%**	16.3%	12.6%	15.8%	18.8%	2.64	±1.55
Friendliness of South African locals	17.0%	14.5%	**33.0%**	20.4%	15.0%	3.02	±1.28
Transport system in South Africa	15.7%	25.0%	**29.7%**	15.8%	13.8%	2.87	±1.25
The purpose of my visit	8.2%	16.5%	23.9%	20.6%	**30.8%**	3.49	±1.30

5.2.2.4.3 Identifying the underlying factors of length of stay

To examine the factors underlying length of stay of international air tourists to South Africa, a principal axis factor analysis with an oblique rotation (Direct oblimin) was undertaken. The twenty "length of stay" aspects yielded 4 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Field 2005:633). These factors explained 61% of the variance and were labelled: Personal experience, Access attributes, Destination attributes and Personal constraints. All aspects had factor loadings of greater than 0.359. Reliability (Cronbach's α) was computed to verify the internal consistency of aspects with each factor. All factors with a Cronbach Alpha above 0.58 were deemed acceptable for this exploratory study.

The Bartlett's test of Sphericity was significant (p=0.000) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) was 0.891, which was acceptable. As displayed in Table 5.15, small correlations exist between the factors indicating the independence of the factors.

Table 5.14: Principal axis factor analysis for length of stay

Length of stay aspects	Factor loadings			
Factor label	Personal Experience	Access Attributes	Destination Attributes	Personal constraints
Personal Experience				
Tourists' own experiences	0.820			
What friends and family said about SA	0.705			
Transport system in SA	0.671			
Purpose of visit	0.651			
Friendliness of SA locals	0.612			
Safety of destination SA	0.550			
Travelling in a group	0.448			
Tourism information on social media	0.359			
Access attributes				
Service levels in SA		-0.711		
Travelling alone		-0.540		
Accessibility of SA		-0.399		
Location of SA		-0.379		
Destination attributes				
Types of things to do in RSA			-0.954	
Number of things to do in RSA			-0.937	
Information available about RSA			-0.614	
Prices for accommodation, food			-0.568	
Knowledge of RSA			-0.545	
Quality of food			-0.495	
Personal constraints				
Time constraints				0.834
Financial constraints				0.591
Eigenvalue	7.626	2.238	1.270	1.051
Cronbach's α reliability coefficient	0.83	0.63	0.87	0.58
Inter-item correlations	0.39	0.30	0.54	0.41
Mean value (Standard Deviation)	3.03(±0.88)	2.91(±0.85)	3.26(±0.91)	3.85(±0.84)

Table 5.15: Component correlation matrix for length of stay factors

CORRELATION MATRIX	Personal experience	Access attributes	Destination attributes	Personal constraints
Personal experience	1.000	-0.250	-0.461	0.215
Access attributes	-0.250	1.000	0.095	0.057
Destination attributes	-0.461	0.095	1.000	-0.322
Personal constraints	0.215	0.057	-0.322	1.000

Factor 1 was labelled **Personal experience** and contributed to 38.13% of the variance, a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient value of 0.83 and an inter-item correlation of 0.39. Personal experience included aspects such as the tourists' own experiences, what friends and family said about South Africa, the state of transport system etc. This factor had a mean value

of 3.03 which indicates that the respondents' length of stay was influenced by personal experience.

Factor 2 was labelled **Access attributes** and embodied aspects such as the service levels in South Africa, travelling alone, accessibility of South Africa and the location of South Africa. Access attributes had a mean value of 2.91, a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of 0.63, an inter-item correlation of 0.30 and it contributed to 11.19% of the variance. Access attributes scored the lowest mean value among the length of stay factors, which indicates that the respondents' length of stay was least influenced by access attributes.

Factor 3 was labelled **Destination attributes** and constituted the types and number of things to do in South Africa, information available on South Africa, tourists' knowledge of South Africa and the quality of food. This factor had a mean value of 3.26, a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of 0.87, an inter-item correlation of 0.54 and it contributed to 6.35% of the variance. The mean value shows that respondents' length of stay was influenced by destination attributes. Tourism should avail more information to the international tourists about various tourism opportunities and should ensure high service quality delivery as that might influence international visitors' length of stay (Kotler *et al.* 2017).

Factor 4 consisted of only 2 aspects, namely time and financial constraints and was labelled **Personal constraints**. Personal constraints as a factor had a mean value of 3.85, a Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.58, an inter-item correlation of 0.41 and it contributed to 5.25% of the variance. This factor scored the highest mean value, amongst other factors, which shows that the respondents' length of stay was highly influenced by personal constraints. Personal constraints such as time availability and money have a great influence on length of stay and can even prevent people from travelling at all (Fourie 2016).

5.2.3 Descriptive analyses: South Africa as tourism destination

This section focuses on aspects such as how tourists learnt about South Africa as a tourist destination, the attractions the tourists visited during their vacation in South Africa and favourite attractions of South Africa among inbound tourists to South Africa and lastly tourists' holiday experiences with reference to the negative ones.

5.2.3.1 Communication about South Africa

Table 5.16: Heard about South Africa

MEDIA	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Television	209	**29.0%**
Radio	12	1.7%
Internet	212	**29.4%**
Newspaper	59	8.2%
Word of mouth	368	**51.1%**
Social media	48	6.7%
Travel agent	74	10.3%
Travel guide	51	7.1%
Other (specify)	30	4.2%

Table 5.16 illustrates how respondents heard about South Africa as a tourism destination. The majority (51.1%) learnt through word-of-mouth communication followed by information on the Internet (29.4%) and television (29%). According Fletcher *et al.* (2013:52) personal sources of information are considered more credible when it comes to destination choices as opposed to commercial sources. It is interesting to note that only 6.7% of the respondents learnt about South Africa through social media, which is said to play such an important role in travel decisions, especially with reviews on social media.

5.2.3.2 Attractions and experiences in South Africa

Table 5.17: Visited attractions in South Africa

ATTRACTION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Table Mountain	720	**100%**
V and A Waterfront	669	**92.9%**
National Parks	585	**81.3%**
Wine lands	473	65.7%
Garden Route	434	60.3%
Robben Island	436	60.6%
Johannesburg	432	60%
Cultural Villages	294	40.8%
Sun City	293	40.7%
Durban Beach Front	257	35.7%
Soweto	252	35%
Cradle of Humankind	248	34.4%

Table 5.17 shows that Table Mountain was the most visited attraction by the respondents, followed by Victoria Alfred Waterfront (92.9%) and National Parks (81.3%). Respondents also visited the winelands (65.7%), Robben Island (60.6%) and The Garden Route (60.3%). There is a preference for the attractions in the Western Cape, which can be due to the location of distribution of the questionnaires. These are the typical preferences of tourists to South Africa.

Table 5.18: Favourite attraction in South Africa

ATTRACTION	FREQUENCY		ATTRACTION	FREQUENCY
Nature attractions			**Man-made attractions**	
National Parks	298		Cape town	23
Table Mountain	173		Wine lands	18
Sea Point	41		Sun City	15
Garden Route	17		Cultural villages	15
Cape Point	15		Robben island	9
Drakensburg	14		V and A Waterfront	8
Beaches	12		Cradle of Humankind	5
Chapman's peak	8		Johannesburg	5
Penguins	3		Soweto	2
Landscape	2		Township tours	2
Kirstenbosch Botanical Garden	1		Food Market	1
Lion's head	1		Hout Bay	1
Mountains	1		Knysna	1
Nature	1		Long street	1
Wales	1		Museums	1
Activities			Red bus	1
Bunge-jumping	1		Stellenbosch	1
Diving	1		Woodstock area	1
Shark Cage Diving	1			

Table 5.18 indicates that international tourists prefer nature-based attractions and specifically national parks and Table Mountain. In terms of man-made attractions, tourists mentioned Cape Town, the Winelands, Sun City and cultural villages.

Table 5.19: Negative experiences in South Africa

EXPERIENCE	FREQUENCY	COMMENT
Poor customer service	6	Rude restaurant staff, car rental problems, taxi driver over charge
Weather	3	Unable to climb Table Mountain
Crime	19	Unsafe behaviour at night in the streets, bag stolen at airport, muggers, dodgy taxi drivers
Police corruption and harassment	4	Ask for bribe
Food poisoning	3	
Destitution/beggars/people asking for money	4	
Not used to driving on the left side of the road	1	
Poor country roads	3	
Cost of accommodation	1	
Unfriendliness	5	South African whites are less friendly than their black counterparts
Xenophobia	2	
Too many tourists	1	
Poor public transport	1	

Prostitutes on the street	1
Unresponsiveness of police and paramedics to cover a dead man at an accident scene	1
Wi-Fi not available everywhere and data expensive	1
Dirty places	1

Of the respondents that had negative experiences in South Africa, crime ranked the number one reason why they had a negative experience. The concerns raised were that there is unsafe behaviour at night in the streets, bag stolen at airport, muggers, and dodgy taxi drivers. Bad customer service ranked second because of negative experiences characterised by rude restaurant staff, car rental problems, and taxi drivers overcharging as they did not have metres.

Weather and unfriendliness co-ranked third as reasons why respondents had a negative experience. The Cape Town weather made it impossible for some tourists to climb Table Mountain using the cable car due to poor visibility and windy conditions. Although most of those who highlighted unfriendliness as a cause of their negative experiences, the majority did not specify, with one American visitor who indicated that white South Africans are less friendly than their black counterparts. Police corruption (especially asking for bribes) and harassment featured with destitute/beggars (people asking for money) as 4th reason why the respondents had a negative experience in South Africa. Poor country roads and some cases of food poisoning both ranked number 5 reasons for negative experiences.

Some concerns raised were xenophobia, too many tourists, poor public transport, prostitution on streets, unresponsiveness of police and paramedics to cover a dead man at an accident scene, unavailability of free Wi-Fi everywhere while data is very expensive, dirty places, fighting with partner, cost of accommodation, and not used to driving on the left side. It is important to note that most of the causes of negative experiences emanate from the supply side while only few were individual-specific such as fighting with partner, not used to driving on the left side of the road. Those from the supply side can however be changed so that tourists' experiences could be enhanced.

5.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS: LENGTH OF STAY AND SPENDING BEHAVIOUR

Inferential statistics make inferences about populations using data drawn from the population and trying to reach conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data alone. Specifically, it allows for judgments of probability that an observed difference between groups is a dependable one or one that might have happened by chance in this study.

5.3.1 Aspects influencing length of stay

In the following section all aspects related to length of stay will be analysed.

5.3.1.1 Comparison of length of stay by gender

Table 5.20: t-test for comparison of length of stay by gender

Length of stay Factors	Male (N=396)	Female (N=324)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Personal Experience	2.91 (±0.84)	3.18 (±0.91)	0.0000*	0.30**
Access Attributes	2.87 (±0.80)	2.94 (±0.90)	0.234	0.08
Destination Attributes	3.19(±0.88)	3.33 (±0.94)	0.047	0.14
Personal Constraints	3.84(±0.84)	3.86 (±0.84)	0.653	0.03

Statistically significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Pallant 2010)
*Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

Table 5.20 above shows that a *t*-test on gender was conducted to compare the statistical differences on length of stay factors between males and females and it was found that there was one statistical significance between the two groups with reference to personal experience (p=0.000). Female respondents' length of stay was more influenced by personal experience ($\bar{x}$=3.18, SD=±0.91) as opposed to male respondents ($\bar{x}$=2.91, SD=±0.84) with a small effect size (d=0.30). This may be because female tourists might be sensitive to aspects such as recommendations from friends and relatives, reviews on social media, safety and security in the destination visited, hospitality of the hosts, transport issues in destinations visited and many more, hence this market should be treated with care.

5.3.1.2 Comparison of length of stay by accommodation

- **Comparison of length of stay by staying with family and friends or not**

A statistical significance is evident in Table 5.21 between tourists staying with family or friends and those not staying with family or friends (p<0.05) with reference to personal experience and personal constraints.

Table 5.21: t-test for comparison of length of stay by staying with family and friends or not

Length of stay Factors	Staying with family or friends (N=144)	Not staying with family or friends (N=576)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Personal Experience	3.19(±0.85)	2.99(±0.89)	0.013*	0.23**
Access Attributes	2.98(±0.79)	2.89(±0.86)	0.205	0.11
Destination Attributes	3.29(±0.89)	3.25(±0.91)	0.624	0.04
Personal Constraints	3.70(±0.91)	3.88 (±0.82)	0.031*	0.20**

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
*Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) *****

On the contrary, the length of stay of respondents not staying with family or friends was more influenced by personal constraints ($\bar{x}$=3.88, SD=±0.82) than that of those staying with family or relatives ($\bar{x}$=3.70, SD=±0.91). The effect sizes in both cases are small and therefore a small practical significance. This concurs with literature that type of accommodation used influence the length of stay of tourists with the VFR category tending to stay longer in destinations visited than those staying in other types of accommodation as they spend less on accommodation (Martínez-Garcia & Raya 2008:1074; Nicolau & Mas 2006).

- **Comparison of length of stay by staying in guesthouses/B and Bs, or not**

Table 5.22: t-test for comparison of length of stay by staying in guest houses /B and Bs, or not

Length of stay Factors	Staying in Guesthouses/ B and Bs (N=258)	Not Staying in Guesthouses/ B and Bs (N=462)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Personal Experience	3.02(±0.87)	3.04(±0.89)	0.811	0.02
Access Attributes	2.89(±0.82)	2.92(±0.86)	0.689	0.03
Destination Attributes	3.14(±0.90)	3.32(±0.91)	0.013*	0.19
Personal Constraints	3.79(±0.88)	3.88 (±0.81)	0.191	0.10

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
*Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) *****

One statistically significant difference is evident on length of stay between tourists staying in guesthouses/B and Bs and those not staying in guesthouses/B and Bs with regard to destination attributes (p=0.013). The length of stay of tourists not staying in guesthouse/B and Bs was more influenced by destination attributes ($\bar{x}$=3.32, SD=±0.91) than those staying in guesthouse/B and Bs ($\bar{x}$=3.14, SD=±0.90). Although there is a statistically significant difference, the practical difference is small.

- **Comparison of length of stay by staying in hotels or not**

Table 5.23: t-test for comparison of length of stay by staying in hotels or not

Length of stay Factors	Staying in Hotels (N=511)	Not Staying in Hotels (N=209)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Personal Experience	3.02 (±0.87)	3.05 (±0.92)	0.720	0.03
Access Attributes	2.91(±0.84)	2.91(±0.88)	0.988	0.00
Destination Attributes	3.28(±0.91)	3.20 (±0.91)	0.271	0.09
Personal Constraints	3.85(±0.82)	3.85(±0.88)	0.973	0.00

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

Table 5.23 above shows no significant differences between respondents staying in hotels and those not staying in hotels on the factors that influence their length of stay. Though literature shows that tourists staying in hotels tend to stay for shorter periods in destination visited compared to less expensive forms of accommodation, as concluded by Alegre & Pou (2006) in Alen *et al.* (2014:22) and Alen *et al.* (2014:27), this research found no significant differences between those staying in hotels and those not staying in hotels, with regard to their length of stay.

- **Comparison of length of stay by staying in backpackers or not**

Table 5.24: t-test for comparison of length of stay by staying in backpackers or not

Length of stay Factors	Staying in Backpackers (N=56)	Not Staying in Backpackers (N=664)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Personal Experience	3.15 (±0.90)	3.02(±0.88)	0.302	0.14
Access Attributes	3.08(±0.92)	2.89(±0.84)	0.131	0.21**
Destination Attributes	3.29(±0.82)	3.25(±0.92)	0.736	0.04
Personal Constraints	3.80(±0.89)	3.85(±0.84)	0.694	0.05

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

There is also no significant difference between respondents staying in backpackers and those who were not staying in backpackers on the factors that influence their length of stay.

- **Comparison of length of stay by staying in lodges or not**

Table 5.25 above shows statistically significant differences between inbound tourists staying in lodges and those not staying in lodges on the factors that influence their length of stay (p<0.05).

Table 5.25: t-test for comparison of length of stay by staying in lodges or not

Length of stay Factors	Staying in Lodges (N=327)	Not Staying in Lodges (N=393)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Personal Experience	2.90(±0.79)	3.14(±0.94)	0.000*	0.26**
Access Attributes	2.74(±0.73)	3.04(±0.91)	0.000*	0.33**
Destination Attributes	3.15(±0.83)	3.34(±0.96)	0.004*	0.20**
Personal Constraints	3.84(±0.81)	3.86(±0.87)	0.823	0.02

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
*Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) *****

The length of stay of respondents not staying in lodges was more influenced by personal experience ($\bar{x}$=3.14, SD=±0.94), access attributes ($\bar{x}$=3.04, SD=±0.91) and destination attributes ($\bar{x}$=3.34, SD=±0.96) than those staying in lodges with personal experience ($\bar{x}$=2.90, SD=±0.71), access attributes ($\bar{x}$=2.74, SD=±0.73) and destination attributes ($\bar{x}$=3.15, SD=±0.83). The practical differences of all three cases as epitomised by the effect sizes is small.

5.3.1.3 Comparison of length of stay by mode of transport

- **Comparison of length of stay by using car rental or not**

Table 5.26: t-test for comparison of length of stay by using car rental or not

Length of stay Factors	Used Car Rental (N=297)	Did not use Car Rental (N=423)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Personal Experience	2.96(±0.97)	3.08 (±0.81)	0.081	0.12
Access Attributes	2.93(±0.90)	2.89(±0.81)	0.594	0.04
Destination Attributes	3.23(±1.00)	3.28(±0.84)	0.481	0.05
Personal Constraints	3.84(±0.87)	3.86(±0.82)	0.752	0.02

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
*Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) *****

Table 5.26 above shows no significant differences between respondents who used rented cars and those who did not use rented cars as a mode of transport within South Africa on the factors that influence their length of stay.

- **Comparison of length of stay by using bus transport or not**

Table 5.27: t-test for comparison length of stay by using bus transport or not

Length of stay Factors	Used Bus transport (N=328)	Did not use Bus transport (N=392)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Personal Experience	2.96(±0.70)	3.09(±1.00)	0.045*	0.13
Access Attributes	2.73(±0.66)	3.05(±0.95)	0.000*	0.34**
Destination Attributes	3.19(±0.77)	3.31(±1.01)	0.066	0.12
Personal Constraints	3.92(±0.80)	3.79(±0.86)	0.042*	0.15

statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
*Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

Table 5.27 above shows significant differences between respondents who used buses and those who did not use buses within South Africa during their trip in terms of the factors that influence their length of stay, particularly with reference to personal experience (p=0.045), access attributes (p=0.000) and personal constraints (p=0.042). Those respondents who did not use bus were more influenced by access attributes ($\bar{x}$=3.05, SD=±0.95) than those who used buses ($\bar{x}$=2.73, SD=±0.66), with a small practical significance. The length of stay of the tourists who did not use busses is also more influenced by personal experience ($\bar{x}$=3.09, SD=±1.00) than those who used buses during their trip around South Africa ($\bar{x}$=2.96, SD=±0.70) again with a small practical significance. The respondents who used buses ranked personal constraints ($\bar{x}$=3.92, SD=±0.80) as a more significant influence of their length of stay than those who did not use buses ($\bar{x}$=3.79, SD=±0.86), with a small practical significance.

- **Comparison of length of stay by using train transport or not**

Table 5.28: t-test for comparison of length of stay by using train transport or not

Length of stay Factors	Used Train (N=26)	Did not use Train (N=694)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Personal Experience	3.13(±0.75)	3.03 (±0.89)	0.518	0.11
Access Attributes	3.25(±0.91)	2.89(±0.84)	0.059	0.39**
Destination Attributes	3.34(±0.80)	3.25(±0.91)	0.593	0.10
Personal Constraints	3.88(±1.14)	3.85(±0.83)	0.870	0.03

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
*Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

As indicated in Table 5.28 above, there are no significant differences between respondents who used trains and those who did not use trains on the factors that influence their length of stay.

5.3.1.4 Comparison of length of stay by marital status

Table 5.29: ANOVA for comparison of length of stay determinants by marital status

LOS factors	Single (N=132)	In relationship (N=94)	Engaged (N=25)	Married (N=444)	Divorced (N= 11)	Widowed (N= 11)	F-Value	p-Value
Personal Experience	3.20 (±0.90)	3.09 (±0.79)	2.78 (±0.89)	2.97 (±0.89)	3.39 (±0.74)	3.10 (±0.72)	2.343	0.040*
Access Attributes	3.14 (±0.96)	3.03 (±0.83)	2.43 (±0.82)	2.82 (±0.80)	3.27 (±0.95)	2.95 (±0.83)	2.343	0.000*
Destination Attributes	3.38 (±0.97)	3.33 (±0.93)	3.14 (±0.94)	3.20 (±0.89)	3.36 (±0.76)	3.38 (±0.74)	5.377	0.373
Personal Constraints	3.86 (±0.88)	3.85 (±0.81)	3.84 (±0.72)	3.85 (±0.84)	3.86 (±0.95)	3.59 (±0.89)	1.075	0.956

Statistically significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Pallant 2010)

Table 5.29 above indicates the ANOVAs for length of stay determinants by marital status. It shows significant differences for personal experience (p=0.040) and access attributes (p=0.000). With regard to personal experience the respondents in the divorced category rated this length of stay determinant ($\bar{x}$=3.39, SD=±0.74) higher than those in other marital status categories. Post-hoc tests showed no significant differences between the marital status groups.

In terms of access attributes, the divorced respondents also rated this factor ($\bar{x}$=3.27, SD=±0.95) higher than other categories of marital status. Post-hoc tests showed significant differences between single, divorced and other marital status categories which are engaged, married, widowed and in a relationship. Significant differences are also noted between the engaged respondents and other categories which are married, widowed, in a relationship, single and divorced as shown by the post-hoc tests.

Salmasi *et al.* (2012:521) concluded that married people stay for shorter periods than single and widowed, but they found no differences with divorced and separated. Ganson & Fillone (2014:245) found that single tourists tend to stay for longer in Guamaras than married tourists. Hence the conclusion that civil status has a significant influence on length of stay of tourists. Single tourists may have the luxury and autonomy to spend more time on vacations compared to married tourists. According to Ganson & Fillone (2014:245), the travel group of single tourists (that is co-workers and friends) may also be able to engage in more and specific activities as they may most likely be of the same age and similar interests. However, this research found no practical significant differences in length of stay between the marital status groups.

5.3.1.5 Comparison of length of stay by occupation

Table 5.30: ANOVA for comparison of length of stay determinants by occupation

LOS Factors	Professional (N=173)	Management (N=125)	Self- Employed (N=46)	Technical (N=86)	Sales (N= 32)	Administration (N=40)	Civil Service (N=24)	Education (N=72)	Pensioner (N=46)	Student (N=46)	F-Value	P-Value
Personal Experience	3.03 (±0.89)	3.07 (±0.96)	2.92 (±0.96)	2.96 (±0.75)	2.88 (±0.88)	3.03 (±0.87)	2.86 (±0.68)	2.88 (±0.90)	3.05 (±0.68)	3.23 (±0.78)	0.855	0.566
Access Attributes	3.04 (±0.83)	2.96 (±0.88)	2.79 (±0.89)	2.85 (±0.71)	2.73 (±0.91)	2.87 (±0.87)	2.71 (±0.56)	2.74 (±0.77)	2.52 (±0.76)	2.98 (±0.86)	2.536	0.007*
Destination Attributes	3.24 (±0.92)	3.48 (±0.89)	3.15 (±0.88)	3.24 (±0.78)	3.31 (±1.10)	3.21 (±0.98)	3.25 (±0.55)	3.13 (±0.82)	2.80 (±0.87)	3.17 (±0.98)	2.470	0.009*
Personal Constraints	3.81 (±0.89)	3.91 (±0.73)	3.51 (±0.88)	3.87 (±0.72)	4.23 (±0.46)	4.01 (±0.75)	3.85 (±0.84)	3.77 (±0.88)	3.91 (±0.91)	3.66 (±0.96)	2.310	0.015*

Statistically significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Pallant, 2007)

Table 5.30 above shows ANOVAs for length of stay determinants by occupation. It shows significant differences for access attributes (p=0.007), destination attributes (p=0.009) and personal constraints (p=0.015). With regard to access attributes the respondents in the professional category rated this length of stay determinant ($\bar{x}$=3.04, SD=±0.83) higher than those in other occupational categories. Post-hoc tests show significant differences between pensioners and other occupational categories which are civil service, sales, education, self-employed, technical, administration and management, students and professionals. Significant differences are also shown by the post-hoc tests between professionals and other occupational groups such as pensioners, civil service, sales, education, self-employed, technical, administration, management and students. The length of stay of tourists in the professional category was more influenced by access attributes than those in other occupational categories. Pensioners' length of stay varied significantly from other occupational categories; a finding which agrees with literature that the senior tourists stay for longer than other categories due to time availability issues (Barros & Machado 2010; Barros *et al*. 2010; Nicolau & Mas 2009; Salmasi *et al*. 2012 as cited in Alen *et al*. 2014:27).

In terms of destination attributes, the respondents in the management category rated this factor ($\bar{x}$=3.48, SD=±0.89) higher than other categories of occupational groups. Post-hoc tests show significant differences between pensioners and other occupational categories, which are civil service, sales, education, self-employed, technical, administration, management, students and professionals. Significant differences are also shown by the post-hoc tests between management and other categories of occupation which are professionals, pensioners, civil service, sales, education, self-employed, technical, administration, and students. The factors that influenced tourist length of stay in South Africa varied with the type of occupation. The length of stay of tourists in management positions was more influenced by destination attributes. Practically significant differences are found between management, pensioners with other occupational categories. This may be explained by the time factor.

Respondents in the sales field rated personal constraints ($\bar{x}$=4.23, SD=±0.46) as influencer of their length of stay higher than any other occupational category. Post-hoc tests show significant differences between self-employed, students and other groups of occupation such as pensioners, civil service, sales, education, technical, administration, management, and professionals. Significant differences are also shown by the post-hoc tests between sales and other occupational groups, namely management, professionals, pensioners, civil service, education, self-employed, technical, administration, and students.

5.3.1.6 Comparison of length of stay by age and education

Table 5.31: Length of stay by age and education

Spending factors	Age	Education
	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)
Personal experience	-0.082 0.028*	-0.108** 0.004*
Access attributes	-0.191** 0.000*	-0.046 0.228
Destination attributes	-0.133** 0.000*	-0.091 0.016*
Personal constraints	-0.062 0.099	-0.015 0.699

* p<0.05
* small r_s=.10-.29: ** medium r_s=.30-.49: *** large r_s=.50-1.0

The relationship between length of stay factors (such as personal experience, access attributes, destination attributes and personal constraints) and age and level of education is significant and negative (p<0.05). Of all these relationships, the ones that are worth reporting are those between age and access attributes; age and destination attributes; education and

personal experience. Their correlation coefficient is between 0.10 and 0.29 and their p values are all less than 0.05, meaning that the relationship is significant and small. As the age of respondents increase, the less their length of stay was influenced by access attributes, destination attributes, and the same can be echoed for education and personal experience.

5.3.1.7 Comparison of length of stay factors by travel behaviour variables

Table 5.32: Spearman's rho length of stay factors correlation by travel behaviour

Spending factors	Number of visits	Number of people in travel group	Number of people paid for
	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)
Personal experience	0.220** 0.000*	0.043 0.254	-0.073 0.050*
Access attributes	0.058 0.119	-0.099 0.008*	-0.140** 0.000*
Destination attributes	0.040 0.285	0.040 0.285	0.005 0.887
Personal constraints	-0.044 0.241	-0.005 0.894	0.086 0.022*

* p<0.05
** small r_s=.10-.29: *** medium r_s=.30-.49: **** large r_s=.50-1.0

A small significant positive correlation was found between the number of visits to South Africa and personal experience (p=0.000) meaning that the more the number of visits to South Africa, the more length of stay was influenced by personal experience. The same could be said about the number of people paid for – the higher the number of people paid for the more their length of stay is influenced by personal constraints. This shows that the length of stay of tourists who visited South Africa longer were more influenced by personal experience. This means that if South Africa want to attract tourists who stay for longer periods it has to improve tourists' experiences, encourage hospitality of the locals to international visitors, enhance the safety and quality transport system of South Africa as a tourist destination and avail positive information about South Africa on social media.

As the number of people paid for during the trip to South Africa increase, the less the respondents' spending was influenced by access attributes. Though there is also a significant inverse relationship between number of people in the travel group and access attributes, the number of people paid for during the trip and personal experience, this relationship is too small to justify commenting. This means that longer staying tourists was less influenced by access and destination attributes.

5.3.1.8 Comparison of length of stay factors by visitor spending

Table 5.33: Spearman's rho length of stay factors correlation by visitors' spending

Spending factors	Spending
	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)
Personal experience	-0.141** 0.000*
Access attributes	-0.271** 0.000*
Destination attributes	-0.068 0.066
Personal constraints	0.194** 0.000*

* p<0.05
** small r$_s$=.10-.29: *** medium r$_s$=.30-.49: **** large r$_s$=.50-1.0

A small significant positive relationship is noted between spending and personal constraints, meaning that as the tourists stay longer, the more their spending is influenced by personal constraints. Spending is also significantly related to personal experience and access attributes (p<0.05) and these relationships are small and inverse. The more the tourists spend, the less their spending was influenced by personal experience and access attributes. This means that spending patterns of tourists that stay longer are influenced more by personal constraints (which are time and financial factors) and less by personal experience and access attributes.

5.3.2   Aspects influencing spending patterns

5.3.2.1 Comparison of spending patterns by gender

Table 5.34: t-test for comparison of spending patterns by gender

Spending Factors	Male (N=396)	Female (N=324)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Access opportunities	3.06(±0.89)	3.33 (±0.96)	0.000*	0.28**
Time availability	3.87(±0.91)	3.93 (±0.94)	0.383	0.06
External influences	2.98(±0.85)	3.37(±0.96)	0.000*	0.40**

*Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

Two statistically significant differences are evident on access opportunities and external influences (p<0.05) between male and female respondents regarding their spending. Female respondents' spending was affected by access opportunities ($\bar{x}$=3.33, SD=±0.96) as well as external influences ($\bar{x}$=3.37, SD=±0.96), more than that of their male counterparts with access

opportunities ($\bar{x}$=3.06, SD=±0.89) and external influences $\bar{x}$=2.98, SD=±0.85). The practical differences (effect size) for both cases are small as shown in Table 5.34 above.

5.3.2.2 Comparison of spending patterns by accommodation

- ***Comparison of spending patterns of tourists staying with family or friends or not***

Table 5.35: t-test for comparison of spending patterns of tourists staying with family or friends or not

Spending Factors	Staying with family or friends (N=144)	Not staying with family or friends (N=576)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Access opportunities	3.20(±1.02)	3.18(±0.91)	0.818	0.02
Time availability	3.89(±0.92)	3.90(±0.92)	0.965	0.00
External influences	3.17 (±0.99)	3.15(±0.90)	0.800	0.02

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

There was no significant difference between respondents staying with family or friends and those not staying with family or friends on the factors that influence their spending as evidenced by no p-value less than 0.05 in Table 5.35 above. Surprisingly, no significant difference in terms of factor that affect spending was found between those staying with family or friends and those not staying with family of friends in this study. However, Abbruzzo *et al*. (2014:57) found that staying with friends and relatives as well as camping and 2-star hotels were negatively impacting spending.

- ***Comparison of spending patterns of tourists staying in guesthouses / B and Bs, or not***

Table 5.36: t-test for comparison of spending patterns for tourists staying in guest houses/B and Bs, or not

Spending Factors	Staying in Guest houses/Band Bs (N=258)	Not staying in Guest houses/Band Bs (N=462)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Access opportunities	3.16(±0.92)	3.20(±0.94)	0.640	0.04
Time availability	3.85(±0.84)	3.92(±0.96)	0.279	0.08
External influences	3.07(±0.91)	3.19(±0.92)	0.093	0.13

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

There is also no significant difference between respondents staying in guesthouse/B and Bs and those not staying in guesthouse/B and Bs on the factors that influence their spending as evidenced by no p-value less than 0.05 inTable 5.36 above.

- *Comparison of spending patterns of tourists staying in hotels or not*

Table 5.37: t-test for comparison of spending patterns for tourists staying in hotels or not

Spending Factors	Staying in Hotels (N=511)	Not staying in Hotels (N=209)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Access opportunities	3.21 (±0.94)	3.12 (±0.92)	0.275	0.09
Time availability	3.91(±0.95)	3.84(±0.85)	0.326	0.08
External influences	3.16(±0.92)	3.14(±0.92)	0.775	0.02

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

It is clear from Table 5.37 above that there is no significant difference between respondents staying in hotels and those not staying in hotels on the factors that influence their spending as evidenced by no p-value less than 0.05 on the table above. According to literature, tourists staying in hotels, especially 4 to 5-star hotels tend to spend more on accommodation and food than those in any other accommodation facilities (Abbruzzo *et al*. 2014:57; Brida & Scuderi 2013:35, Marrocu *et al*., 2015:22, Engström & Kipperberg 2015:137 and Vinnciombe & Sou 2014:128;133).

- *Comparison of spending patterns of tourists staying in backpackers or not*

Table 5.38: t-test for comparison of spending patterns for tourists staying in backpackers or not

Spending Factors	Staying in Backpackers (N=56)	Not staying in Backpackers (N=664)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Access opportunities	3.06(±0.90)	3.19(±0.93)	0.292	0.14
Time availability	3.64(±0.87)	3.92(±0.92)	0.029*	0.30**
External influences	3.24(±0.86)	3.14(±0.93)	0.447	0.10

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

Table 5.38 above shows that a statistically significant difference is noted between respondents staying in backpackers and those not staying in backpackers (p<0.05) with reference to their

spending, particularly time availability. Tourists not staying in backpackers rated time availability as a factor influencing their spending ($\bar{x}$=3.92, SD=±0.92) more than those staying in backpackers ($\bar{x}$=3.64, SD=±0.87). The practical difference is however small as evidenced by the effect size in Table 5.38. This means that spending patterns of tourists not staying in backpackers was more influenced by time availability than those staying in backpackers.

- *Comparison of spending patterns of tourists staying in lodges or not*

Table 5.39: t-test for comparison of spending patterns for tourists staying in lodges or not

Spending Factors	Staying in Lodges (N=327)	Not staying in Lodges (N=393)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Access opportunities	3.11(±0.91)	3.25(±0.95)	0.040*	0.15
Time availability	3.96(±0.85)	3.84(±0.97)	0.071	0.13
External influences	3.01(±0.81)	3.27(±0.99)	0.000*	0.26**

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
*Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

Table 5.39 above shows a statistically significant difference between respondents staying in lodges and those not staying in lodges (p<0.05) with reference to their spending, particularly access opportunities and external influences. Tourists not staying in lodges rated access opportunities ($\bar{x}$=3.25, SD=±0.95) and external influences ($\bar{x}$=3.27, SD=±0.99) as factors influencing their spending, more than did those staying in lodges with access opportunities ($\bar{x}$=3.11, SD=±0.91) and external influences ($\bar{x}$=3.01, SD=±0.81). The practical difference is small for external influences but too small for access opportunities to be reported, as evidenced by the effect size in the table above. The spending patterns of tourists staying in lodges was more influenced by access opportunities and external influences with external influences having a small practical difference worth reporting, unlike access opportunities.

5.3.2.3 Comparison of spending patterns by mode of transport

- *Comparison of spending patterns of tourists using car rental or not*

The spending of the tourists who did not use a rented car is influenced more by time availability ($\bar{x}$=4.01, SD=±0.89) than that of those who did use rented car as the mode of transport within South Africa ($\bar{x}$=3.73, SD=±0.94). The p-value is lower than 0.05, signifying a significant

difference between the two groups, and the practical difference is small, as indicated by the effect value in Table 5.40 above.

Table 5.40: t-test for comparison of factors influencing spending patterns for tourists who used car rental or not

Spending Factors	Used Car Rental (N=297)	Did not use Car Rental (N=423)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Access opportunities	3.17(±0.95)	3.19(±0.92)	0.734	0.03
Time availability	3.73(±0.94)	4.01(±0.89)	0.000*	0.30**
External influences	3.16(±0.95)	3.15(±0.91)	0.859	0.01

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
*Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

- ***Comparison of spending patterns of tourists using bus transport or not***

Table 5.41 above shows a statistically significant difference between the respondents who used buses and those who did not use buses (p<0.05) and it was found that the spending of those who did not use buses was influenced more by access opportunities ($\bar{x}$=3.32, SD=±0.96) and external influences ($\bar{x}$=3.27, SD=±0.93) than that of those who used buses as a mode of transport during their trip in South Africa, with access opportunities ($\bar{x}$=3.02, SD=±0.86) and external influences ($\bar{x}$=3.01, SD=±0.76).

Table 5.41: t-test for comparison of factors influencing spending patterns for tourists using bus transport or not

Spending Factors	Used Bus transport (N=328)	Did not use Bus transport (N=392)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Access opportunities	3.02(±0.86)	3.32(±0.96)	0.000*	0.31**
Time availability	4.12(±0.85)	3.70(±0.93)	0.000*	0.44**
External influences	3.01(±0.76)	3.27(±1.03)	0.000*	0.25**

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
*Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

On the contrary, time availability ($\bar{x}$=4.12, SD=±0.85) was rated more as an influencing factor in the spending of respondents who used busses than those who did not use buses ($\bar{x}$=3.70, SD=±0.93). The practical difference is small, as signalled by the effective size in the table above.

- *Comparison of spending patterns of tourists by using train transport or not*

Table 5.42: t-test for comparison of factors influencing spending patterns for tourists using train transport or not

Spending Factors	Used Train (N=26)	Did not use Train (N=694)	p-value	Effect size
	Mean and Std dev	Mean and Std dev		
Access opportunities	3.14(±1.02)	3.18(±0.93)	0.832	0.04
Time availability	3.96(±1.01)	3.89(±0.92)	0.731	0.07
External influences	2.92(±0.78)	3.16(±0.93)	0.144	0.26**

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)
*Effect sizes are categorised as: small (0.2 – 0.4)**; medium (0.5 – 0.8) *** and large (greater than 0.8) ****

No significant difference is evident between respondents who used train and those who did not use train during their trip around South Africa on the factors that influence their spending, as evidenced by no p-value less than 0.05 in Table 5.42 above.

5.3.2.4 Comparison of spending patterns by marital status

Table 5.43 above shows ANOVA for factors influencing tourists' spending by marital status and it shows significant differences for external influences (p=0.000). Regarding this factor, the respondents in the widowed category rated this spending determinant $\bar{x}$=3.89, SD=±0.42) higher than those in other civil status categories. Post-hoc tests however show no significant differences between civil status groups. This shows that spending of tourists in the widowed category was more influenced by external influences such as the exchange rate, prices charged for goods, interaction with the locals and the size of the travelling group than any other group.

Table 5.43: ANOVA for comparison of spending patterns by marital status

Spending factors	Single (N=132)	In relationship (N=94)	Engaged (N=25)	Married (N=444)	Divorced (N= 11)	Widowed (N= 11)	F-Value	p-Value
Access Opportunities	3.25 (±0.93)	3.30 (±0.89)	2.87 (±0.74)	3.15 (±0.95)	3.24 (±0.94)	3.28 (±0.80)	1.164	0.325
Time availability	3.83 (±0.81)	3.78 (±0.94)	3.84 (±0.84)	3.94 (±0.95)	3.97 (±0.86)	4.27 (±0.70)	1.017	0.407
External influences	3.45 (±0.94)	3.20 (±0.91)	3.20 (±0.78)	3.05 (±0.92)	3.55 (±0.84)	3.89 (±0.42)	4.534	0.000*

Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant, 2007)

5.3.2.5 Comparison of spending patterns by occupation

Table 5.44: ANOVA for comparison of spending patterns of respondents by occupation

Spending factors	Professional (N=173)	Management (N=125)	Self-Employed (N=46)	Technical (N=86)	Sales (N=32)	Administration (N=40)	Civil Service (N=24)	Education (N=72)	Pensioner (N=46)	Student (N=46)	F-Value	P-Value
Access Opportunities	3.21 (±0.92)	3.23 (±0.99)	3.03 (±0.79)	3.00 (±0.85)	3.18 (±1.04)	3.40 (±0.95)	2.94 (±0.64)	3.30 (±0.94)	2.86 (±0.85)	3.26 (±0.84)	1.781	0.068
Time availability	3.76 (±0.96)	4.02 (±0.88)	3.49 (±0.98)	3.90 (±0.85)	4.16 (±0.90)	3.98 (±0.94)	3.86 (±0.96)	4.11 (±0.69)	4.25 (±0.83)	3.51 (±0.92)	4.363	0.000*
External influences	3.16 (±0.93)	3.23 (±0.94)	3.13 (±0.84)	3.06 (±0.73)	3.27 (±1.09)	3.33 (±0.90)	2.84 (±0.69)	3.01 (±0.91)	2.72 (±0.82)	3.43 (±0.91)	2.628	0005

*Statistically significant difference: p ≤ 0.05 (Pallant 2010)

Table 5.44 above shows ANOVA for factors influencing tourists' spending by occupation and it shows significant differences for time availability (p=0.000). Regarding time availability, the pensioners rated this spending determinant ($\bar{x}$=4.25, SD=±0.83) higher than those in other occupational categories. Post-hoc tests shows significant differences between self-employed, students and other occupational categories, which are pensioners, civil service, sales, education, technical, administration, management, and professionals. Significant differences are also shown by the post-hoc tests between pensioner, sales, education and other occupational groups such as professionals, civil service, self-employed, technical, administration, management and students. This indicates that spending of pensioners was greatly influenced by time availability (length of stay, availability of time and tourists' experiences), more than by any other occupational categories.

5.3.2.6 Comparison of spending patterns by age and education

Table 5.45: Spearman's rho spending pattern factors correlation by age and education

Spending patterns	Age	Education
	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)
Access opportunities	-0.111** 0.003*	-0.024 0.532
Time availability	0.093 0.013*	-0.058 0.126
External influences	-0.192** 0.000*	-0.072 0.055

* p<0.0
**small r_s=.10-.29: ***medium r_s=.30-.49: ****large r_s=.50-1.0

A small negative significant correlation was found between access opportunities, external influences and age of respondents (p<0.05). This means that as the respondents' ages increase, the less their spending patterns were influenced by access opportunities and external influences. A significant positive relationship was noted between age and time availability (p=0.013). However, the correlation was too small to make a practical difference (r_s<0.10). No significant differences were found for spending patterns by education.

5.3.2.7 Comparison of spending patterns by travel behaviour variables

Table 5.46: Spearman's rho spending patterns by travel behaviour

Spending patterns	Days in SA	Number of visits	Number of people in travel group	Number of people paid for
	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)
Access opportunities	-0.038 0.306	0.170** 0.000*	-0.013 0.734	-0.076 0.042*
Time availability	0.036 0.336	0.047 0.208	0.154** 0.000*	0.218** 0.000*
External influences	-0.153** 0.000*	0.106** 0.004*	0.108** 0.004*	-0.072 0.053

* p<0.05
** small r_s=.10-.29: *** medium r_s=.30-.49: **** large r_s=.50-1.0

A small significant positive relationship was found between the number of visits to South Africa and access opportunities; the number of visits to South Africa and external influences; the number of people in a travel group and time availability; number of people in a travel group and external influences and lastly, the number of people paid for during the trip to South Africa and time availability. This means that as the number of visits to South Africa increased, the more the tourists' spending behaviour was influenced by external influences and access opportunities. It is also true that as the number of people in the travel group increased, the

more their spending behaviour was conditioned by time availability and external influences. Thus, the spending patterns of tourists who spend more on their visits to South Africa is influenced by external influences and access opportunities. As the number of people paid for during the trip to South Africa got bigger, the more their spending behaviour was influenced by time availability. The spending behaviour of bigger travel groups to South Africa was more influenced by time availability and external influences.

A small significant inverse correlation was noted between the number of days spent in South Africa and external influences ($p < 0.05$), indicating that the more days the respondents stayed in South Africa, the less their spending behaviour was influenced by external factors. Although the same could be said about the number of people paid for during the trip to South Africa and access opportunities ($p < 0.05$), the relationship is too small to be commended ($r_s < 0.10$).

5.3.2.8 Comparison of spending patterns by visitor spending

Table 5.47: Spearman's rho spending pattern factors correlation by visitors' spending

Spending patterns	Spending
	Correlation Coefficient Sig.(2-tailed)
Access opportunities	-0.136** 0.000*
Time availability	0.337*** 0.000*
External influences	-0.157** 0.000*

* $p < 0.05$
** small $r_s = .10-.29$: *** medium $r_s = .30-.49$: **** large $r_s = .50-1.0$

A medium significant positive relationship is observed between spending and time availability ($p < 0.05$). As spending increased, the more their spending behaviour was influenced by time availability. A small significant inverse correlation is noted between spending and access opportunities ($p < 0.05$); spending and external influences. This means that as the spending increased, the less the spending patterns of respondents were influenced by external influences and access opportunities. This means that the spending patterns of tourists who spend more is influenced more by time availability and less by external influences and access opportunities. Time availability is a powerful influencer on spending behaviour of tourists who spend more. The more time they have, the more they spend.

It can be deduced from the above that in terms of length of stay determinants, the older the respondents became, the less their length of stay was influenced by access opportunities and external influences. As the number of visits to South Africa increased, the more the tourists'

length of stay was influenced by external influences and access opportunities. It is also true that as the number of people in the travel group increased, the more their length of stay was conditioned by time availability and external influences. As the number of people paid for during the trip to South Africa got bigger, the more their stay duration was influenced by time availability. The more the respondents stayed in South Africa, the less their length of stay was influenced by external factors. As spending increased, the more the respondents' length of stay was influenced by time availability while as the spending increased, the less the length of stay of respondents was influenced by external influences and access opportunities.

It is also clear from spending patterns that as the age of respondents increased, the less their spending was influenced by access attributes and destination attributes, and the same can be echoed for education and personal experience. The more the number of visits to South Africa, the higher their spending was influenced by personal experience. As the number of days spent in South Africa increased, the less the tourists' spending was influenced by access attributes and destination attributes. The more the number of people paid for during the trip to South Africa, the less the respondents' spending was influenced by access attributes. As the tourist spending increased, the more their spending was influenced by personal constraints while the more the tourists spent, the less their spending was influenced by personal experience and access attributes.

5.4   CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter was to analyse and interpret data gathered, and to provide empirically derived explanations. The study findings indicate that tourists mainly travel to South Africa for holiday/leisure, business, adventure activities, VFR, sport, shopping, culture/history, medical and other reasons. The bulk of tourists who participated in this research were however holiday/leisure tourists (86,7%) followed by adventure tourists (13.2%). A significant size of tourists who visit South Africa belong to the business (8.6%), culture/history (6.9%) and VFR (6.8%) categories.

Regarding specific motivations to travel to South Africa, most tourists who participated in this research visited destination South Africa to appreciate natural resources, to sight-see touristic spots, to enjoy the beautiful scenery, to participate in new activities, to find thrill and excitement, to learn new and interesting things and to enjoy with travel companions. This makes intuitive sense, as most of the tourists are leisure tourists.

Factor analysis of the underlying factors of specific travel motivations resulted in five principle factors, namely relaxation and novelty, social motivation, culture and heritage, personal

motivation and destination motivations out of a plethora of motivational aspects (25). Relaxation and novelty ranked the highest factor in motivating tourists to visit South Africa with a mean value of 4.12, followed by cultural and heritage with a mean value of 3.91. Destination motivation ($\bar{x}$=3.78) ranked number 3 in motivating tourists to visit South Africa, while personal motivation ($\bar{x}$ =3.75) trailed at number four. Tourists were least motivated to visit South Africa by social factors ($\bar{x}$ =2.89). From the findings of this study, it can be concluded that most international tourists to South Africa are motivated by the need for relaxation and novelty and culture and heritage.

Length of stay (74.7%) and availability of time to shop (65.1%) was registered as the two main specific factors with an influence on tourists' spending behaviour while interactions with the locals was found not to have an influence on tourist spending patterns. Length of stay($\bar{x}$ =4.13) was however found to be the greatest influence on tourist spending, followed by availability of time to shop($\bar{x}$ =3.78) then tourist experience($\bar{x}$ =3.77). The exchange rate($\bar{x}$ =3.56) and prices of goods and services ($\bar{x}$ =3.41) also influenced tourist spending, although the mean values were lower than the afore-mentioned. The two (exchange rate and prices of goods and services) are usually related as they can either increase or decrease the ability of tourists to spend, depending on whether or not the two are favourable.

With regard to identifying factors of spending behaviour, a principal axis factor analysis was done which reduced 13 spending behaviour aspects into 3 spending behaviour factors, namely access and opportunity, time availability and external influences. Of these three principal components, time availability with a mean value of 3.89 largely influenced tourist spending followed by access and opportunities with a mean value of 3.18. External influences with a mean value of 3.15 were the least to influence tourist spending behaviour. Access and opportunities included aspects such as marketing efforts of service providers in South Africa, access to shops, authenticity of South African products, availability of information on shopping opportunities, opportunities to spend and availability of products to buy while time availability entailed tourists' length of stay, time availability for shopping and experiences of tourists. External influences included the travelling group, interaction with the locals, the exchange rate and the prices charged for goods and services.

This study recorded an average length of stay of tourists in South Africa of 16.42 days with the bulk of the tourists staying between 13 and 17 days followed by those who stayed between 8 and 12 days. The average length of stay of 16.42 days seems to be quite high compared to the trend in previous years. This may be attributed to the fact that the constitution of the respondents in this study is mainly overseas leisure tourists with very few regional tourists who usually spend few days during the trip to South Africa but visiting more frequently.

Regional and business tourists who spend 2-3 days have an effect of reducing the average length of stay if they were included in this study.

With regard to specific factors influencing length of stay of tourists in South Africa, time constraints (75%), the location of South Africa (64.1%), knowledge of South Africa as a destination (61.5%) and financial constraints (60.9%) were found to influence length of stay of tourist in South Africa. On the other hand, travelling alone, tourists' own experiences and quality of food in South Africa were found not to have influenced tourists' length of stay. The most important aspects with an influence on length of stay of tourists in South Africa in this study were time constraints with a mean value of 4.03, the location of South Africa ($\bar{x} = 3.73$) and financial constraints ($\bar{x} = 3.67$).

Using principal axis factor analysis to identify the underlying factors of length of stay of tourists to South Africa, twenty length of stay aspects analysed yielded 4 principal components, namely personal experience, access attributes, destination attributes and personal constraints. The study found that the length of stay of tourists in South Africa was greatly influenced by personal constraints ($\bar{x} = 3.85$) and this factor included time constraints and financial constraints. Destination attributes with a mean value of 3.26 was also found to influence length of stay of tourists and it included aspects such as types and number of things to do in South Africa, information available on South Africa, tourists' knowledge of South Africa and the quality of food. Personal experience with a mean value of 3.03 was also found to influence length of stay of tourists who participated in this research and included in this principal factor is tourists' own experiences, what friends and family said about South Africa and the state of transport system. The principal factor with the least influence on tourists' length of stay is access attributes with a mean value of 2.91. Included in the factor are service levels in South Africa, travelling alone, accessibility of South Africa and the location of South Africa as a destination.

CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSIONS AND
RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes this research project. The chapter's main concern is to draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding the researched topic. The aim of this research project was to identify and analyse factors that influence length of stay and spending behaviour of international tourists reaching South Africa by air. In both cases attention was given to the intrinsic and extrinsic contributing factors. To achieve the aim of this study, the following objectives were set in section 1.4 of chapter 1 and met throughout the study:

The first objective as highlighted in chapter 1 section 1.4 was to analyse tourists' travel behaviour by means of an in-depth literature review. This objective was achieved in Chapter 2 of the study. The exploration of the travel behaviour of tourists was done by means of an in-depth discussion of travel motivations in general and travel motivations to South Africa specifically, tourists' decision-making process, type of holiday decisions tourists makes, and the factors that influence these tourists' decisions. The composition of the total tourism product was also analysed as this has an influence on tourist travel behaviour (c.f. 2.6).

The second objective was to analyse literature specifically concerning tourists' spending behaviour and visitors' length of stay, which forms the core of this study. The analysis focused on the definition of the concepts *tourists' length of stay* and *spending behaviour*, the importance of length of stay and spending behaviour of tourists in tourism, how tourism spending is measured, how tourism expenditure data is gathered, what constitutes tourism spending/expenditure and lastly the factors which influence tourists' length of stay and spending behaviour.

The third objective was to empirically identify and analyse the intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing spending behaviour and length of stay of international tourists of the air market segment in South Africa. Chapter 5 focused on the empirical survey of the study by placing emphasis on the following demographic characteristics of the respondents: travel behaviour, travel motivations, length of stay and spending behaviour. The analyses were done by

implementing various statistical methods that would answer the research questions and uncertainties.

The fourth objective was to draw conclusions and make recommendations on ways to improve the air market tourist spending and extend their length of stay in South Africa. This objective is addressed in this current chapter by firstly stating the conclusions to the research per objective.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

6.2.1   Conclusions regarding travel behaviour and travel decision-making
The following conclusions can be deduced from the literature review of tourists' travel behaviour as analysed in chapter 2:

- Tourism is a very important industry, creating a number of benefits and these benefits have not yet been fully unleashed by many countries in the world; hence it still remains on the global agenda as a panacea for a better world in terms of economic growth, poverty alleviation, employment creation, an avenue towards world peace convention, generation of the much needed foreign currency which improves nations' balance of payment, improvement of the quality of life both for the visitors and the host communities, bridging regional disparities in terms of growth and development and many more (c.f. 2.1).

- To realise the full benefits of tourism, destination marketers and managers need a thorough understanding of tourists' travel behaviour to be able to create a tourism offering that is congruent to their needs, wants and desires (c.f. 2.3).

- It was found that tourists' travel behaviour is complex due to the sophistication of the tourism product (extended phases around tourist activities: anticipation/pre-purchase stage, an on-site experience, a return travel component and the extended recall and collection stage) thus making it different from consumer behaviour of tangible products(c.f. 2.2).

- Tourist travel behaviour is the behaviour tourists display when they are making decisions to undertake holidays and this includes what makes them to want to travel (travel motivations), what decisions they make when they want to travel (choice of destinations, travelling companions, length of stay, how much to spend, mode of transportation, lodging and many more), what influences them to make such choices, the steps they follow when they decide to travel (the decision-making process) and tourist market segments. This includes what tourists think about the products they buy,

how much they buy, how much they enjoy and learn during their holiday experiences, how they interact with the local people and environment and how satiated they are with their holidays. Answers to these aspects would allow for the creation of tourism products that adhere to the needs of tourists and create economic value. (c.f. 2.2).

- Comprehension of tourists' travel behaviour is important since it guides the development of tourism products and policies thereof, facilitates informed decision-making by tourists, guides development of marketing plans and strategies, enhances visitor experiences and contributes to the ultimate satisfaction of the tourists. This should then lead to return visitation (c.f. 2.3).

- Tourists are faced with multiple decisions when planning to travel, and all these decisions are not taken concurrently but in successive phases, but the first decision is to travel or not to travel and this is determined by travel motivation (the strength of the motive conditioned by ability in terms of finance, time, health and mobility): generic decisions (to go or not to go on holiday), modal decisions (decisions on the type of holiday) and specific decisions (travel party, activities to undertake, attractions to visit, travel budget, destination to visit, length of stay, accommodation to stay in during the holiday, dining places, organisation, period of holiday (summer/winter), purchases, route, tour, transportation and holiday style (c.f. 2.4.1).

- Tourists go through a sequence of stages when making holiday decisions and these phases are crafted around: need recognition (motivation), information search, alternative evaluation, actual purchase and finally the post-purchase stage (c.f. 2.4.2).

- The length of the holiday decision-making process may vary due to the nature of the need to be satisfied: extended problem solving, limited problem-solving and habitual problem solving (this is determined by the level of consumer involvement (highly, moderately or lowly involved), the length of time a buyer takes to make a decision, the cost of the product or service, the level of perceived risk involved, the level of interest in the purchase, the purchase situation, the degree of information search the buyer does and the number of alternatives the buyer considers before the actual buying, how important the decision is to others around us, past experience and many more. Clearly this is a complex process that warrants investigation (c.f. 2.4.2).

- The tourist decision-making process is influenced by many factors at any phase of the process and these factors include a variety of political, economic and socio-demographic factors which influence the buyer's internal/individual factors (needs/motives, personality, perception, learning, attitudes and lifestyle) and the external factors (culture, social influences, reference groups and family)(c.f. 2.4.3).

- Tourists may be motivated to travel by many factors at the same time and other people may not disclose the true motives for travel or may not recall or articulate what triggered their need to travel. Furthermore, people are not only influenced by their own motivators, but also by those of their travel companions and lastly, people's motivations may change from trip to trip. All these factors render travel motivations a complex subject matter due to the changing nature thereof (c.f. 2.5).

- Understanding travel motivation provides insights for tourism planning, development and marketing (creation of appealing messages about destination and tourism products in a way that will meet the needs of target markets thus more enjoyable visitor experience can be enhanced) (c.f. 2.5).

- People can be motivated to travel by: physical motives (recreation and refreshment of body and spirit by engaging in physical activity such as sea, sun and sand), cultural motives (curiosity to see new places, understanding foreign cultures and gastronomy), interpersonal motives (meeting new people, VFR, escaping from people interacted with on daily basis), status and prestige motives (recognition through travel)(c.f. 2.5.1).

- For destinations to be appealing and marketable to the target market, destination marketers must look at it from the total product's point of view, which is the destination appearing at many levels: core product, facilitating product, support product level and the augmented product level (c.f. 2.6).

6.2.2 Conclusions regarding length of stay and spending behaviour of tourists

The following conclusions can be drawn based on the literature study conducted and reported on in Chapter 3.

- Length of stay and spending behaviour of tourists are very important variables, and both are decisions that tourists need to make when they are planning to undertake a holiday, and these variables have serious impacts on the economy of the destination being visited; hence the importance thereof (c.f. 3.1).

- Length of stay is also regarded a significant variable as it is positively related to total tourism spending. Thus, tourism's contribution to state economies is positively enhanced as long-staying tourists spend more on transport, accommodation and food and beverages and so are the visitor experiences (c.f. 3.2.1).

- Although a positive relationship exists between stay duration and total tourists' spending, shorter stays should not be underestimated (c.f. 3.2.1.).

- The factors that influence length of stay of tourists also influence spending behaviour of tourists, as evidenced by literature reviewed. Although these factors have been researched and are known, they vary from one destination to another. Therefore,

recommendations to improve these two variables in one destination may not work in another destination (c.f. 3.2.2 and 3.3.5).

- The factors which may influence length of stay and spending behaviour of tourists include socio-demographic aspects; economic factors; the characteristics of the trip; destination attributes and psychographic factors (c.f. 3.2.2 and 3.3.5).

- Understanding the factors which influence these two variables of length of stay and tourists' spending assist destinations in developing products and marketing strategies appealing to long-staying tourists and high spenders. Thus, tourism's contribution to economic growth can be fully harnessed (c.f. 3.4).

- The factors influencing tourists to spend more or less or stay for longer or shorter periods are inconclusive with variances in results across destinations and type of tourists. With South Africa being a developing country and a long-haul destination might influence tourists' behaviour when travelling in this country.

6.2.3 Conclusions regarding the empirical analyses

These conclusions made based on the empirical findings of this study are specific to South Africa as they were derived from the exploration of factors that influence air tourists spending behaviour and length of stay to South Africa. These conclusions add to literature on determinant factors of length of stay and spending behaviour of air tourists to South Africa which was highly lacking (problem statement) and they form the bases upon which the recommendations to improve these two variables (which were fluctuating and showing slow growth) will be crafted. Based on the empirical findings of this research project as reported in Chapter 5, the following conclusions can be drawn:

6.2.3.1 Conclusions regarding the demographics and travel behaviour characteristics:

- It can be concluded from the findings of this study that the profile of respondents corresponds with the general profile of international visitors to South Africa, with more males than females that participated in this research and on average 42 years of age, in professional or managerial positions. These respondents are married, holders of a degree/diploma and a post-graduate qualification, mostly from the USA, UK, followed with a huge margin from Germany, Netherlands and Australia (c.f. 5.2.1).

- Most of the respondents of this study were first-time visitors to South Africa and the average number of previous visits to South Africa was 1.68 times. Regarding statistics on travel party, most of the respondents were travelling in a group of 3 or less people and the average number of people in the travel group was 4 people. From the findings of this study, it can be concluded that international tourists to South Africa prefer

serviced accommodation to other forms of accommodation, as evidenced by most respondents staying in hotels and lodges (c.f. 5.2.2.1).

- Although all respondents used airplane as mode of travelling to and in South Africa, there is evidence that they used more than one mode of transport during the trip as some transport modes are complimentary to certain activities and trips (c.f. 5.2.2.1).

- Although tourists may have mixed-purpose travel, many of the respondents to this study travelled to South Africa mainly for holiday/leisure; thus indicating the type of activities they prefer when visiting and they mostly travel to enjoy the natural attractions of South Africa since they placed high importance on appreciation of natural resources, enjoyment of beautiful scenery and sight-seeing of tourist spots as important travel motivators. These three aspects point to the main product of South Africa, which is nature-based tourism experience which is central to the "tourist gaze theme". This correlates with the main tourism product of South Africa (c.f. 5.2.2.2.1 and 5.2.2.2.2).

- The products these respondents prefer, link up with the top attractions of South Africa, namely Parks, Garden Route but they also preferred V & A Waterfront and Robben Island being a more historical attraction (c.f. 5.2.3.2).

- Most respondents to this study were paying for 2 people on this trip and on average the number of people a member of a travel group paid for is 2.33 (c.f. 5.2.2.3.1).

- The average spend per trip was R73,726.91 with airline tickets, accommodation and food and drinks contributing significantly towards this figure. Considering the average number of people paid for (2.33 people) and the average number of days spent (16.42) in South Africa respondents spent R1,927.07 per person, per day in South Africa (c.f. 5.2.2.3.2).

- It can be concluded that length of stay, availability of time to shop and respondents' experiences as tourists directly and significantly contribute to visitor spending, while interaction with the locals does not (c.f. 5.2.2.3.3).

- Most of the respondents to this study stayed between 13 and 17 days during their holiday in South Africa and the average length of stay was 16.42 days which is higher than the annual average length of stay of international tourists (c.f. 5.2.2.4.1).

- The most important aspects directly and significantly influencing length of stay were time constraints, the location of South Africa and financial constraints (c.f. 5.2.2.4.2).

- Many respondents to this study learnt about destination South Africa through word-of-mouth communication, Internet and television, which are traditional sources. It is interesting, however, to note that only a small percentage of the respondents learnt about South Africa through social media, which is said to play such an important role in travel decisions, especially with reviews on social media (c.f. 5.2.3.1).

- Of the negative experiences in South Africa encountered by respondents, crime ranked the highest, followed by bad customer service, unfriendliness of the host community, police corruption and harassment, food poisoning, harassment by the destitute and poor country roads on almost equal footing (c.f. 5.2.3.2).
- The main travel motivations as determined by the factor analysis were: Relaxation and Novelty, Social motivations, Cultural and Heritage motivations, Personal motivations and Destination motivations of which Relaxation and Novelty and Cultural and Heritage motivations were rated high as travel by tourists to South Africa as motivators (c.f. 5.2.2.2.3).

6.2.3.2 Conclusions regarding length of stay of inbound tourists to South Africa

- The main factors influencing length of stay of the respondents in this study as determined by the factor analysis were: Personal experience, Access attributes, Destination attributes and Personal constraints (c.f. 5.2.2.4.3).
- Of these factors personal constraints and destination attributes ranked highest as influencers of tourists' length of stay. The respondents' length of stay was least influenced by access attributes (c.f. 5.2.2.4.3).
- With regard to the influence of socio-demographic characteristics and travel behaviour on tourists' length of stay, the following:
  - Females were more influenced by personal experience than were males (c.f. 5.3.1.1)
  - Tourists staying with family and friends were more influenced by personal experience than were those not staying with family and friends (c.f. 5.3.1.2)
  - Tourists not staying with family and friends were more influenced by personal constraints than tourists staying with family and friends (c.f. 5.3.1.2).
  - Tourists not staying in guest houses were more influenced by destination attributes than were tourists staying in guest houses (c.f. 5.3.1.2).
  - Tourists not staying in lodges were more influenced by personal experiences and destination attributes than were tourists staying in lodges (c.f. 5.3.1.2).
  - Tourists not making use of bus transport were more influenced by personal experiences and destination attributes than were those making use of bus transport (c.f. 5.3.1.3).
  - Tourists that made use of bus transport were more influenced by personal constraints than were those that did not make use of bus transport (c.f. 5.3.1.3).
  - The higher the age of tourists, the less their length of stay was influenced by personal experience, access attributes and destination attributes (c.f. 5.3.1.6).

- o The more educated the tourists were, the less their length of stay was influenced by personal experiences and destination attributes (c.f. 5.3.1.6).
- o The higher the number of visits to South Africa, the more they were influenced by personal experiences (c.f. 5.3.1.7).
- o The higher the number of people in the travel group, the less they were influenced by access attributes (c.f. 5.3.1.7).
- o The higher the number of people paid for, the less they were influenced by personal experience and access attributes (c.f. 5.3.1.7).
- o The higher the number of people paid for, the more they were influenced by personal constraints (c.f.5.3.1.7).
- o The more the tourists spent, the less they were influenced by personal experience and access attributes (c.f. 5.3.1.8).

6.2.3.3 Conclusions regarding spending patterns of inbound tourists to South Africa

- The main factors influencing tourist spending patterns as determined by the factor analysis were: "Access and opportunity", "Time availability" and "External influences". Tourists' spending was to a larger extent influenced by time availability, followed by access and opportunity, but least affected by external influences.
- With regard to the influence of socio-demographic characteristics and travel behaviour on tourists' length of stay, the following:
  - o Females were more influenced by access opportunities and external influences as determinants of spending behaviour (c.f. 5.3.2.1).
  - o Tourists not staying in backpackers were more influenced by time availability than were tourists staying in backpackers (c.f. 5.3.2.2).
  - o Tourists not staying in lodges were more influenced by access opportunities and external influences than were tourists staying in lodges (c.f. 5.3.2.2).
  - o Tourists who did not use a rented car were more influenced by time availability than were tourists who did use a rented car (c.f. 5.3.2.3).
  - o Tourists who did not use bus transport were more influenced by access opportunities and external influences than were those that did not use bus transport (c.f. 5.3.2.3).
  - o Tourists that used bus transport were more influenced by time availability than were those that did not use bus transport (c.f. 5.3.2.3).
  - o Tourists that were divorced and widowed were more influenced by external influences than were single and married tourists (c.f. 5.3.2.4).
  - o As tourists age, they consider access opportunities and external influences less important (c.f. 5.3.2.6).

- As tourists age, they consider time availability more important (c.f. 5.3.2.6).
- The higher the number of days tourists stay in South Africa, the less important the influence of external influences (c.f. 5.3.2.7).
- The higher the number of previous visits to South Africa, the higher the influence of access opportunities and external influences (c.f. 5.3.2.3).
- The higher the number of people in the travel group, the higher the influence of time availability and external influences (c.f. 5.3.2.3).
- The higher the number of people paid for, the less important the influence of access opportunities (c.f. 5.3.2.3).
- The higher the number of people paid for, the more important the influence of time availability (c.f. 5.3.2.3).
- The higher the spending patterns of tourists, the less important are access opportunities and external influences (c.f. 5.3.2.8).
- The higher the spending patterns of tourists, the more important is the influence of time availability (c.f. 5.3.2.8).

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations will be made in this section regarding ways of extending inbound tourists' length of stay and visitors' spending to a tourism destination as a key driver in developing tourism marketing and planning strategies in South Africa, as well as recommendations regarding further research in this field of study.

6.3.1 Recommendations regarding ways to extend the length of stay of inbound air tourists to South Africa

The following recommendations can be made based on the findings of the study: These recommendations are specific to South Africa as they were derived from the understanding of factors that influence air tourists' length of stay to South Africa. If South African Tourism, tourism industry associations and business owners implement these recommendations, this will improve stay duration of inbound air tourists to South Africa which has been fluctuating and showing slow growth. The recommendations most importantly add to literature that was lacking from a South African perspective on how length of stay can be positively influenced for inbound air tourists to South Africa. The recommendations are as follows:

- South African Tourism, various industry association (FEDHASA, ASATA, GHASA, RASA, SATSA), tour operators and travel agents, individual tourism and hospitality business companies that offer tourism products and services to inbound air tourists should take into consideration that length of stay is inhibited by personal constraints. It is thus important to offer value for money to the tourists. Hotels and restaurants should ensure that their rooms

and food meet or exceeds international standards and are competitively priced to ensure affordability. In this way length of stay can be influenced positively.

- Added to that, the destination attributes of South Africa are important to tourists. It is recommended that continuous creative marketing strategies be employed to attract long staying tourists to this country. South African Tourism, tourism business owners and industry associations should utilise new approaches and strategies that provides information about diverse range of attractions, spending opportunities and facilitate easy access as these are important to tourists who stay longer.

- Personal experiences which included aspects such as tourists' own experiences, what people say about South Africa, the purpose of visit, the friendliness of SA locals all have a significant influence on tourists' decisions to stay for longer periods. It is recommended that South African Tourism and respective industry associations offer thorough training to tourism and hospitality product/service providers and employees to enhance quality interaction with the visitors as this has a significant influence on the tourists' decisions to stay longer in South Africa.

- Access attributes had the least influences on tourists' decisions to stay for a longer period or not. This refers to aspects such as accessibility of South Africa and the location of the country (distance of South Africa from the main source markets). The fact that South Africa is a long-haul destination was not a challenge for this group of tourists and thus marketers (South African Tourism, industry associations and tourism business owners) can use this as part of their marketing strategy in a positive light.

- Older and higher educated tourists have more experience and they know what they want from a holiday in South Africa. They were less influenced by the length of stay factors, which creates significant opportunities for South Africa to focus on an older market.

- Tourists that have been to South Africa before were influenced by personal experiences – they know what to expect and know how to travel in this country. This should be noted by South African tourism stakeholders as the tourists who have been here, seem to show a willingness to stay for longer periods of time. South African Tourism, industry associations and tourism business owners should target repeat visitors and come up with incentives that attract this market as they tend to stay for longer periods thus adding to the economic returns through their prolonged spending.

- Tourists that travel in larger groups are influenced by personal constraints, namely time and money; hence creating opportunities for value packages by tourism business owners in conjunction with wholesale and retail travel companies will ensure that this market stays longer in South Africa.

- Tourists that spend higher amounts while travelling were not influenced by personal experiences and access attributes – they know what they can spend money on and what it will cost them

- To increase length of stay of tourists in South Africa, the factors that influence length of stay need to be understood and then conditioned accordingly. Personal constraints such as time and financial restrictions are more beyond the control of the destination country but are controlled from the demand side. The only thing that destinations can do to help alleviate the personal constraints, especially financial constraints, is by offering the destination products at affordable prices so as to make the tourists afford to stay longer and participate in more activities. This can be done by offering promotions to international tourists and these promotions should be staggered according to how long the tourists stay. Those that stay longer should be given a better discount than those that stay for shorter periods. Discounts for longer stays should be enticing enough to attract this market and have to be balanced out with the acceptable prices to optimise the revenue generated. This can be achieved through South African Tourism closely working together with tour operators, travel agencies, tourism transport companies, and the rest of tourism and hospitality business owners such as hotels, lodges, guest houses restaurants, attractions and many more.

- Since destination attributes have proven to significantly influence length of stay of international tourists to South Africa, it is important for South African Tourism to keep an updated audit of all the tourism attractions and activities that are available and fully developed for tourists' consumption and then compare it with the current level of utilisation by the tourists. If capacity is underutilised, it means that these products need to be included in the creation of package tours and marketed intensively in conjunction with the staggered discounts suggested above. These products that are underutilised need to be included for tourists that are being enticed by the longer-stay-duration discounts. South African Tourism can work together with tour operators, travel agencies and tourism business owners in South Africa.

6.3.2 Recommendations regarding ways to increase spending of inbound air tourists to South Africa

The following recommendations can be made based on the findings of the study. These recommendations are specific to South Africa as they were derived from the understanding of factors that influence air tourists spending behaviour to South Africa. If South African Tourism, tourism industry associations and business owners implement these recommendations, this will improve visitor spending which has been fluctuating and showing slow growth. The

recommendations most importantly add to literature that was lacking from a South African perspective on how spending can be positively influenced for inbound air tourists to South Africa. The recommendations are as follows:

- In order to increase spending, it is important to improve the environment related to Access and opportunity, Time availability and External influences as these factors influence how much tourists spend in the destination visited.

- The most important aspect to give attention to in order increase tourists' spending is time availability. It is recommended that opportunities be created for tourists to spend money, which should be communicated on various platforms. South African businesses that offer shopping opportunities (especially in shopping malls) should extend shopping hours late in the evening to allow tourists time to shop but safety and security should be geared up.

- Access opportunities are important for females, older tourists and those with a high number of previous visits. For this group of people, it is important to create marketing platforms and opportunities to shop, and opportunities to spend. A shopping application can be considered for tourists, which will lead them to authentic shopping areas and products.

- External influences are important for female & divorced and widowed tourists, older tourists, tourists with a high number of previous visits and those with a higher number of people paid for. Based on this, the tourism industry should support interactions with the locals and ensure good prices for the tourists. This will encourage higher levels of spending.

- Time availability is important for those that use bus transport, older tourists, higher number of people paid for, higher spending patterns. Most of the tours do not always offer ample time for shopping and this should be communicated to the tour operators as it will also assist the local economy to grow.

6.3.3 Recommendations regarding further research

The respondents of the present research comprised international tourists. As such, the findings may have some limitations; therefore, research could be conducted among the local market as they are the backbone of the industry.

6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- Motivating people to participate in the study was a challenge, but it was overcome by the researcher through the use of the authentic wooden key ring incentive (given after completion of the survey) and explaining the purpose of the research clearly to the prospective respondents.

- One should consider having the questionnaire translated into the main languages of tourists visiting South Africa to increase the response rate and to conduct the research at four successive points depicting the four seasons of the year. This will give an even representation of international tourists that visit South Africa throughout the year.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Research Questionnaire

Appendix 2: Evidence of Language editing

Appendix 3: Summary Plagiarism report.

APPENDICES

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender?

Male	1
Female	2

2. In what year were you born?

19

3. Country of residence?

4. Highest level of education?

No School	1
Matric	2
Diploma/Degree	3
Postgraduate	4
Other, Specify	5

5. Marital status?

Single	1
In a relationship	2
Engaged	3
Married	4
Divorced	5
Widow/er	6
Other, Specify	7

6. Occupation

Professional (example Dr; Lawyer)	1
Management	2
Self-employed	3
Technical	4
Sales	5
Administrative	6
Civil service	7
Education	8
Pensioner	9
Student	10
Other, Specify	11

7. For how many days are you staying in South Africa for this trip?

	Days

8. During your visit to South Africa what type of accommodation did you make use of?

Family or friends	Yes	No
Guesthouse or B&B	Yes	No
Hotels	Yes	No
Backpackers	Yes	No
Lodges	Yes	No
Other, Specify	Yes	No

9. Including this visit, how many times have you visited South Africa?

	Times

10. Mode of transport to and in South Africa?

Airplane	Yes	No
Rental car	Yes	No
Bus	Yes	No
Train	Yes	No
Other, Specify	Yes	No

11. How many people are in your travel group (including yourself)?

Number

12. How many people did you pay for during your visit to South Africa (including yourself)?

Number

13. Estimate how much you have spent on the following items during your visit to South Africa?

Airplane tickets	R
Other transport & travel costs	R
Accommodation	R
Activities	R
Souvenirs	R
Retail shopping (excl. food & drink)	R
Food & Drink	R
Other, Specify	R

SECTION B: FACTORS INFLUENCING INTENTION TO RETURN TO SOUTH AFRICA

14. Rate your intention to return to South Africa as a tourist.

	Totally disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Totally agree
1. I am willing to return to South Africa in the future	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am willing to recommend South Africa to family & friends as a holiday destination	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have a positive image of South Africa as holiday destination	1	2	3	4	5
4. I will visit new attractions other than those that I already visited in South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel I am loyal to South Africa as destination choice	1	2	3	4	5
6. I spend more money during this trip than anticipated	1	2	3	4	5
7. When I visit SA again I will stay longer than the current trip	1	2	3	4	5
8. I will return to the same attractions that I visited during this trip	1	2	3	4	5
9. I want to bring more people with me when visiting South Africa again	1	2	3	4	5

15. Rate the reasons for visiting South Africa

I travelled to South Africa:	Totally disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Totally agree
1. to relax physically	1	2	3	4	5
2. to relax spiritually	1	2	3	4	5
3. to participate in new activities	1	2	3	4	5
4. to find thrills and excitement	1	2	3	4	5
5. to sightsee touristic spots	1	2	3	4	5
6. to appreciate natural resources	1	2	3	4	5
7. to meet new people	1	2	3	4	5
8. to interact with unknown local residents	1	2	3	4	5
9. to visit friends and relatives	1	2	3	4	5
10. to live or stay temporarily with local communities	1	2	3	4	5
11. to increase my social status	1	2	3	4	5
12. to visit a destination that would impress my friends and family	1	2	3	4	5
13. to satisfy the desire to be somewhere else	1	2	3	4	5
14. to fulfill my dream of visiting a foreign country	1	2	3	4	5
15. to have an enjoyable time with my travel companion (s)	1	2	3	4	5
16. to be away from home	1	2	3	4	5
17. to seek solitude in a foreign land	1	2	3	4	5
18. to learn something new and interesting	1	2	3	4	5
19. to visit a place that I have not visited before	1	2	3	4	5
20. to enjoy the good physical amenities (accommodation, transport & recreation facilities)	1	2	3	4	5
21. to visit historical and cultural attractions	1	2	3	4	5
22. to enjoy the local cuisine	1	2	3	4	5
23. to enjoy the beautiful scenery	1	2	3	4	5
24. because it is a safe destination	1	2	3	4	5
25. because it is easy to access as a tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: FACTORS INFLUENCING LENGTH OF STAY AND SPENDING PATTERNS

16. To what extent do you agree that following factors influenced your length of stay in South Africa

	Strongly agree				
		Agree			
			Agree to some extent		
				Disagree	
					Strongly disagree
My length of stay in South Africa was influenced by:					
1. the accessibility of South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
2. the service levels in South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
3. time constraints	1	2	3	4	5
4. financial constraints	1	2	3	4	5
5. the number of things to do in South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
6. the type of things to do in South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
7. the quality of the food	1	2	3	4	5
8. information available about the country	1	2	3	4	5
9. my knowledge of the country	1	2	3	4	5
10. the location of South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
11. the prices for accommodation, food etc.	1	2	3	4	5
12. the fact that I travel alone	1	2	3	4	5
13. the fact that I travel in a group	1	2	3	4	5
14. the safety of South Africa as tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5
15. availability of information on social media sites	1	2	3	4	5
16. what friends and family told me about South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
17. my own previous experiences	1	2	3	4	5
18. the friendliness of South Africans	1	2	3	4	5
19. the transport system in South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
20. the purpose of my visit	1	2	3	4	5

17. To what extent do you agree that following factors influence your spending behaviour whilst on holiday

	Strongly agree				
		Agree			
			Agree to some extent		
				Disagree	
					Strongly disagree
My spending patterns whilst on holiday in South Africa is influenced by:					
1. the authenticity of the products to buy	1	2	3	4	5
2. the marketing efforts of selling goods/experiences	1	2	3	4	5
3. the availability of information on shopping opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
4. the opportunities to spend	1	2	3	4	5
5. access to shops	1	2	3	4	5
6. the availability of products to buy	1	2	3	4	5
7. my experience as a tourist	1	2	3	4	5
8. the availability of time to shop	1	2	3	4	5
9. my length of stay in South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
10. the prices asked for goods and experiences	1	2	3	4	5
11. the exchange rate	1	2	3	4	5
12. my travelling group	1	2	3	4	5
13. my interactions with the locals	1	2	3	4	5

18. What was the main reason for visiting South Africa?

Holiday/Leisure	1
Business	2
Visit friends or family	3
Sport	4
Shopping	5
Adventure	6
Culture/Historic	7
Medical	8
Other, Specify	9

19. How did you hear about South Africa?

Television	1
Radio	2
Internet website	3
Newspapers	4
Word-of-mouth	5
Social media sites	6
Travel agent	7
Travel guide	8
Other, Specify	9

20. What was your favourite attraction?

_____

22. Which of the following attractions did you visit during your stay in South Africa?

Table Mountain	1
Garden Route	2
Cape Town V&A Waterfront	3
Johannesburg	4
Robben Island	5
The Winelands	6
Soweto	7
Cradle of humankind	8
National Parks	9
Durban beachfront	10
Sun City	11
Cultural villages	12

23a. Did you have any negative experiences while visiting South Africa? (Which you experienced personally)

Yes	1
No	2

23b. If yes, please specify the specific experience

_____

_____

_____

21. To what extent do the following aspects influence your willingness to return to South Africa?

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	To a great extent
1. News/Media on South Africa	1	2	3	4
2. Family and friends (Word-of-mouth)	1	2	3	4
3. The exchange rate	1	2	3	4
4. The type of tourism products offered by South Africa	1	2	3	4
5. The people of South Africa	1	2	3	4
6. Television programmes about South Africa	1	2	3	4
7. Political climate	1	2	3	4
8. Safety & Security	1	2	3	4
9. My own tourism experiences in South Africa	1	2	3	4
10. The fact that one cannot experience all in one trip	1	2	3	4
11. Internet	1	2	3	4
12. My image of South Africa	1	2	3	4
13. My satisfaction with the tourism products in South Africa	1	2	3	4

Thank you for your participation, your contribution is of great value to us.

I, **Ms Cecilia van der Walt,** hereby declare that I took care of the **editing** of the **dissertation** of **Mr Christopher Muzenda** titled *ANALYSING FACTORS INFLUENCING LENGTH OF STAY AND SPENDING BEHAVIOUR OF AIR TOURISTS TO SOUTH AFRICA.*

MS CECILIA VAN DER WALT

BA (*Cum Laude*)
THED (*Cum Laude*),
Plus Language editing and translation at Honours level (*Cum Laude*),
Plus Accreditation with SATI for Afrikaans and translation
Registration number with SATI: 1000228

Email address: ceciliavdw@lantic.net

Mobile: 072 616 4943

Fax: 086 578 1425

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