

IDENTIFY THE PREDICTORS OF TOURIST INTENTIONS TO RETURN TO SOUTH AFRICA AS A TOURISM DESTINATION

**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**

M MANUGA

209093641

B-Tech Tourism Management



Vaal University of Technology

Supervisor: Prof E Slabbert

Co-supervisor: Dr E Burger

November 2017

DECLARATION

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

Signed:

Date:

STATEMENT 1

This dissertation is being submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Magister Technologiae: Tourism and Hospitality Management

Signed:

Date:

STATEMENT 2

This dissertation is the result of my own independent work/investigation, except where otherwise stated. Other sources are acknowledged by giving explicit references. A list of references is appended.

Signed:

Date:

STATEMENT 3

I hereby give consent for my dissertation if accepted, to be available for photocopying and for interlibrary loan, and for the title and summary to be made available to outside organisations.

Signed:

Date:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to pass my gratitude to the following persons who played a big role in enabling this study to be successful and completed on time:

- I thank God almighty for the strength, guidance and wisdom to complete this study. For he says in the book proverbs 2 verse 6 “for the Lord gives wisdom: from his mouth come knowledge and understanding”.
- My supervisor Prof E Slabbert for continuous support, courage and care she showed throughout my study. She over worked and timeously making sure that this study is completed. Thanks to Dr E Burger for her support as well.
- University of Venda Higher Degree for the funds they granted me to complete my studies and also University of Venda as my employer for granting me study leaves to complete my study.
- Statistical Consultation Services of North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus) for their assistance with data analysis.
- Table Mountain National Park for granting me permission to collect data and also the staff for assisting me while collecting data.
- Tourist who willingly completed the questionnaire.
- My most loving, caring and supporting parents (Mr Masala Godfrey Manuga & Mrs Jesephine Manuga) they have supported me both emotionally and financially. My big sister Mulalo Manuga, little brother Matema Manuga and my Niece Luvhengo Maphaha.
- My fiancé Lutendo Largie Radzilani for the support, care, love and encouragement throughout my study. My parents in-law Khathutshelo & Naphtal Radzilani and my sister Mbavhalelo for the support and love throughout the study.
- My late grandmother Annah Matodzi Rambasa for the love she showed me while doing my study.
- My colleague and a friend Mkatoko Nkuna for prayers, support, love and encouragement. My best friend Murendeni Masala for always being there throughout the study and my study partners Christopher and Vhutshilo for encouragement and support.

ABSTRACT

Tourism is regarded as a modern-day engine of growth and one of the largest industries globally. In 2012, the G20 heads of state recognised tourism as a driver of growth and development as well as an industry that has the potential to spur global economic recovery. South Africa is currently receiving a higher number of first time visitors with the number of return visitors for leisure purposes very low. It is thus the aim of the study to identify the predictors of tourist's intention to return to South Africa. Specifically, this study will focus on demographic characteristics, travel behaviour, travel motivations and satisfaction intention to return. This information can contribute to adjusting marketing and product strategies to enhance visitors' intention to return.

A quantitative survey was done at Aerial Cable Way (Table Mountain National Park) where 800 respondents were requested to participate in the study. The Cable Way attracts a high number of international visitors who was the population for this study. The questionnaire was distributed by fieldworkers who returned 720 completed questionnaires. The data was captured, analysed and interpreted to identify the predictors of visitor's intention to return to South Africa as a tourism destination.

The respondents were on average 40 years of age, mostly male, from the USA and UK respectively and married. They hold either a degree or a diploma and serve in professional or management occupations. When visiting South Africa these respondents stay on average 16 days, travel in groups of 3.71 and they prefer hotels and lodges. It was evident in this research that respondents were mainly first-time visitors, emphasizing the problem that this research assess. These respondents travel to enjoy Relaxation and Novelty, Social motivations, Cultural motivations, Personal Motivations and Product motivations of which Relaxation and Novelty and Cultural motivations were rated as the most important. These travel motivations were influenced by gender, occupation and accommodation preferences.

Core to this study and addressing the main aim of the study was the finding that Communication, Experience, Safety and the Tourism offering contributes to willingness to return of which the Experience and Safety were the most important aspects. These willingness were also influenced by gender and occupation. Ultimately it is about the experience in South Africa. The relationship between willingness to return and travel motivations were also evident highlighting the inter-

dependence of these variables. It was evident that marketing campaigns should be adjusted and more value-added products should be provided to increase intention to return. Continuous communication is needed with people that visited this country and showing new products, discount offers and unique products. Clearly the importance of intention to revisit is evident an aspect that needs attention in South Africa.

Keywords: return intention, loyalty, destination, predictors, tourism and South Africa as a tourism destination.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

- 1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**
- 1.2 RATIONALE AND MOTIVATION**
- 1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT**
- 1.4 PRIMARY AIM AND SECONDARY RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**
- 1.5 THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY**
- 1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**
 - 1.6.1 Literature review**
 - 1.6.2 Empirical study**
 - 1.6.2.1 Population**
 - 1.6.2.2 Sampling and description of the sample**
 - 1.6.2.3 Measuring instrument and data collection**
 - 1.6.2.4 Data analyses**
 - 1.6.2.5 Ethical considerations**
- 1.7 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS**
 - 1.7.1 Revisit intentions**
 - 1.7.2 Destination loyalty**
 - 1.7.3 Tourists' satisfaction**
- 1.8 CHAPTER OUTLINE**

CHAPTER 2: UNDERSTANDING TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR AND –DECISION-MAKING

- 2.1 INTRODUCTION**
- 2.2 UNDERSTANDING TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR**
- 2.3 ASPECTS INFLUENCING TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR**
 - 2.3.1 Personal factors**
 - 2.3.1.1 Age and life cycle**
 - 2.3.1.2 Lifestyle**
 - 2.3.1.3 Personality**
 - 2.3.1.4 Gender**
 - 2.3.2 Psychological factors**

- 2.3.2.1 Motivation
- 2.3.2.2 Learning
- 2.3.2.3 Attitudes
- 2.3.2.4 Perceptions
- 2.3.3 Cultural factors
 - 2.3.3.1 Culture
 - 2.3.3.2 Social class
- 2.3.4 Social factors
 - 2.3.4.1 Reference groups
 - 2.3.4.2 Family
- 2.4 TRAVEL DECISION MAKING PROCESS AS PART OF TOURIST BEHAVIOUR
 - 2.4.1 Travel Decision-Making Continuum
 - 2.4.2 The stimulus response model of buyer behaviour
- 2.5 UNDERSTANDING THE IMPORTANCE OF TRAVEL MOTIVATION
 - 2.5.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of needs
 - 2.5.2 The Travel Career Ladder (TLC) and Travel Career Patterns (TCP)
 - 2.5.3 Pull and push factors
 - 2.5.4 Socio-psychological motives according to Crompton's
 - 2.5.5 Sunlust and Wanderlust
 - 2.5.6 Plog's model of allocentricity and psychocentricity
 - 2.5.7 Iso-Ahola's social psychological of tourism motivation
- 2.6 CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER 3: ANALYSING INTENTION TO RETURN TO A TOURISM DESTINATION

- 3.1 INTRODUCTION
- 3.2 UNDERSTANDING THE MEANING OF INTENTION TO RETURN TO A TOURISM DESTINATION
- 3.3 UNDERSTANDING THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FIRST-TIME AND REPEAT VISITORS TO TOURISM DESTINATIONS
- 3.4 THE CONTRIBUTION OF DESTINATION ATTRACTIVENESS TO INTENTION TO RETURN
 - 3.4.1 Natural scenery

3.4.2 Hospitality

3.4.3 Special events

3.4.4 Entertainment

3.4.5 Weather and Climate

3.4.6 Accessibility

3.4.7 Price

3.4.8 Culture

3.4.9 Shopping

3.5 ASPECTS INFLUENCING INTENTION TO RETURN TO A TOURISM DESTINATION

3.5.1 Satisfaction

3.5.2 Destination loyalty

3.5.3 Infrastructure

3.5.4. Safety and security

3.5.5 Perceived values

3.5.6 Services Value

3.5.7 Destination image

3.5.8 Experience

3.6 AN OVERVIEW OF TOURISM TO AND IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.6.1 Satisfaction with the South African tourism product

3.6.2 Activities undertaking in South Africa

3.6.3 Experiences whilst visiting South Africa

3.6.4 Repeater Rate

3.7 CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.2.1 Descriptive research design

4.2.2 Exploratory research design

4.2.3 Causal research design

4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.3.1 Literature review

4.3.2 Quantitative Study

- 4.3.2.1 Questionnaire development**
- 4.3.2.2 Sampling method**
- 4.3.2.3 Administration of the questionnaire**
- 4.3.2.4 Statistical analyses**
 - 4.3.2.4.1 Frequency tables**
 - 4.3.2.4.2 Factor analysis**
 - 4.3.2.4.3 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)**
 - 4.3.2.4.4 *t*-tests**
 - 4.3.2.4.5 Spearman Rank Order Correlations**

4.4 CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER 5: EMPIRICAL ANALYSES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS

5.2.1 Demographic information

5.2.2 Analysing travel behaviour

5.2.3 The South African visiting experience

5.2.3.1 Travel motivations to South Africa

5.2.3.2 Communication about South Africa

5.2.3.3 Attractions and experiences in South Africa

5.2.4 Descriptive analyses of intentions to return to South Africa

5.2.4.1 Rating of willingness to return to South Africa

5.2.4.2 Aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa as tourism destination

5.3 EXPLORATORY AND INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

5.3.1 In-depth analysis of reasons for visiting South Africa

5.3.2 In-depth analysis of aspects influencing willingness to return South Africa

5.3.3 In-depth analysis of factors influencing travel motivations and willingness to return

5.3.3.1 Comparison of travel motivations by gender

5.3.3.2 Comparison of travel motivations by type of accommodation

5.3.3.3 Comparison of travel motivations by type of transport

5.3.3.4 Comparison of travel motivations by marital status

- 5.3.3.5 Comparison of travel motivations by occupation
- 5.3.3.6 Comparison of willingness to return by gender
- 5.3.3.7 Comparison of willingness to return by type of accommodation
- 5.3.3.8 Comparison of willingness to return by mode of transport
- 5.3.3.9 Comparison of willingness to return by marital status
- 5.3.3.10 Comparison of willingness to return by occupation
- 5.3.4 Relationship between travel motivations and willingness to return
- 5.4 CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

- 6.1 INTRODUCTION
- 6.2 CONCLUSIONS
 - 6.2.1 Conclusions regarding travel behaviour and travel decision-making
 - 6.2.3 Conclusions regarding the empirical analyses
- 6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS
 - 6.3.1 Recommendations regarding the predictors of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa as a tourism destination
 - 6.3.2 Recommendations regarding further research
- 6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

LIST OF REFERENCES

LIST OF ANNEXURES

Annexure 1: Questionnaire

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Layout of chapter 2

Figure 2.2: Aspects influencing travel behaviour

Figure 2.3: Proposed tourist attitude

Figure 2.4: Travel decision-making continuum

Figure 2.5: A stimulus response model for buyer behaviour

Figure 2.6: Maslow's Hierarchy of needs

Figure 2.7: Pearce travel career ladder

Figure 3.1: The layout of chapter 3

Figure 3.2: Attractiveness of tourism destination

Figure 3.3: Aspects influencing intention to return

Figure 3.4: Type of tourism infrastructure

Figure 3.5: Satisfaction with South Africa

Figure 3.6: Activities undertaken in South Africa

Figure 3.7: Positive experiences in South Africa

Figure 3.8: Negative experiences in South Africa

Figure 3.9: Repeat rate of all land tourists 2013/2014

Figure 3.10: Repeat rate of all air tourists 2013/2014

Figure 5.1: Negative experiences in South Africa

Figure 5.2: Scree plot for travel motivation factors

Figure 5.3: Scree plot of factors

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Repeat visitation to South Africa

Table 1.2: Tourist arrivals to South Africa by air

Table 2.1: The life-cycle model

Table 2.2: Tourists Personality Types and Proposed Associated Tourist Behaviour

Table 2.3: Push and pull attributes of tourism motivation

Table 2.4 Social psychological model of tourism motivation

Table 3.1: Comparison of first-time and repeat visitor characteristics

Table 3.2: Summary of South African tourism performance report

Table 3.3: Repeat visitation to South Africa 2013 – 2016

Table 5.1: Demographic information of respondents

Table 5.2: Travel behaviour of respondents

Table 5.3: Specific travel motivations

Table 5.4: Heard about South Africa

Table 5.5: Visited attractions

Table 5.6: Rating of willingness to return to South Africa

Table 5.7: Aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa

Table 5.8: Factor analyses for travel motivations

Table 5.9: Component Correlation Matrix

Table 5.10: Component Correlation Matrix

Table 5.11: Factor analyses for aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa

Table 5.12: Comparison of travel motivations by gender

Table 5.13: Comparison of travel motivations by type of accommodation

Table 5.14: Comparison of travel motivations by type of transport

Table 5.15: Comparison of travel motivations by marital status

Table 5.16: Comparison of travel motivations by occupation

Table 5.17: Comparison of willingness to return by gender

Table 5.18: Comparison of willingness to return by type of accommodation

Table 5.19: Comparison of willingness to return by mode of transport

Table 5.20: Comparison of willingness to return by marital status

Table 5.21: Comparison of willingness to return by occupation

Table 5.22: Relationships between travel motivations

Table 5.23: Relationships between willingness to return factors

Table 5.24: Relationships between willingness to return factors and travel motivations

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is regarded as a modern-day engine of growth and is one of the largest industries globally. In 2012, G20 heads of state recognized tourism as a driver of growth and development as well as an industry that has the potential to spur global economic recovery (South African Tourism 2012). South Africa is a popular tourist destination with a direct contribution to GDP at R127.9bn and the total contribution at R402.2bn. It is estimated to rise by 4.2% pa to R624.2bn in 2027 (WTTC, 2017). Foreign tourist arrivals grew by 12.8% to 10 million in 2016, with an R75,5 billion foreign direct spend, while domestic tourists contributed R26.5 billion from 24.3 million domestic trips (South African Tourism, 2015). This industry therefore has the potential of growing the economy of South Africa and it is important to encourage visitors to repeat their visit to South Africa but, more important still, to determine the predictors of tourists' intentions to return (Opperman 2000a). This forms part of tourist behaviour and continuous research is needed in this regard.

Tourist behaviour is an aggregate term which includes pre-visit decision-making, on-site experiences, evaluation of experiences and post-visit behaviour. Many tourist destinations rely heavily on repeat visitors, especially in this competitive environment and therefore it is important to understand the travel patterns of visitors. This behaviour refers to choices regarding which destination to visit as well as evaluations (travel experience, quality of the trip, overall satisfaction) of the visit and future behavioural intentions (intentions to revisit and willingness to recommend intentions (Chen & Tsai 2007). This research is interested in the last component of the tourist behaviour process namely post-visit behavioural intentions.

Mazursky (1989:333) points out that the study of influential factors of destination loyalty (intention to return) is not new to tourism research. However, with many destinations relying on repeat business, intention to revisit has become an important research topic (Assaker, Vinzi & O'Connor 2011:890) which is under-researched in South Africa. It is clear from the literature review that a

number of heterogeneous factors affect tourists' post-experience behaviour and these should be considered (Bigovic 2012:223) in order to create higher levels of return to a destination.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION

Destination revisit intention has been viewed as an important research topic both in the academic and tourism spheres (Tan 2017; Tosun, Dedeoglu & Fyall 2015; Assaker *et al.* 2011; Zhang, Wu & Buhalis 2017). Repeat visitation has been accepted as one of the most important elements in the tourism industry since it is a cost-effective and desired market segment for destinations (Tan 2017). In many studies the benefits of repeat visits are often noted as attracting previous customers which is more cost-effective than gaining new ones. These tourists are likely to spend more time at a destination, promote it better and consume more goods and services, although the relationship may also be non-linear. In addition, they face lower marketing costs than first-time visitors (Shoemaker & Lewis 1999). Repeat visitors are significant in increasing revenue in tourism destinations and have a stabilising effect on most destinations, especially in the current competitive environment (Lau & McKercher 2004). Thus the benefits of focusing on repeat visitors are evident.

Loyal customers and those that return to revisit the destination are more likely to recommend friends, relatives or other potential customers to a product/service/destination by acting as free word-of-mouth advertising agents (Shoemaker & Lewis 1999). The revisit intention can be explained by the number of previous visits but also their experience and satisfaction levels. Tourism scholars have concentrated on repeat visitation as an antecedent of destination loyalty (Shanka, Quaddus & Hossain 2010:15) and the major antecedents of revisit intention has been determined as destination familiarity (Li & Carr 2004:48); satisfaction (Yoon & Uysal 2005; Alexandris, Kouthouris & Meligdis 2006; Chi & Qu 2008); perceived values, destination attributes and motivation (Shanka *et al.* 2010:15); perceived quality (Chen & Gursoy 2001; Frochot & Hughes 2000); past vacation experience (Alegre & Cladera 2006; Chen & Gursoy 2001); and destination image (Bigné, Sanchez & Sanchez 2001).

Feng and Jang (2007:584) explored the effects of tourists' novelty seeking and destination satisfaction on revisit intention with specific reference to time. It was determined that satisfaction is a direct antecedent of short-term revisits (revisit within 12 months) as well as long-term revisits (revisit within the next 5 years), whereas novelty seeking is a significant antecedent of midterm

revisits (revisit within the following 3 years). Bigné, Sanchez and Andreu (2009:104) indicated that the propensity for variety seeking was a main determinant of a tourist's intention to return to the same destination for the next holiday. Oom do Valle, Correia and Rebelo (2008:216) found that returning behaviour is more related to emotional motivations than to the facilities of the destination.

Yoon and Uysal (2005:56) went a step further and assessed tourist satisfaction as a moderator construct between motivations and tourists' loyalty. Woodside and Lysonski (1989:8) proposed a model based on revisiting intentions that establishes satisfaction both as a predictor of revisiting intention and a moderator variable between this construct and perceived attractiveness, perceived quality of service and perceived value for money. More complex models have the advantage of allowing a better understanding of tourists' behaviour since more variables and their interaction can be taken into account. For more effective marketing interventions it is important to assess whether the destination models also consider the tourists' personal characteristics (Woodside & Lysonski 1989:8). There are thus a variety of influencing factors and theories underpinning intention to revisit.

The advantage of existing tourists is that the destination has already built a relationship with them. The destination has thus established a track record and visitors already know and have trust in the destination, which is all the more likely that they will revisit it. When they do, their ability as repeat customers to enhance the destination's reputation becomes immense (Williams & Vaske 2013:830). Repeat tourists become increasingly attached to the destination both in the high and low seasons which solves seasonality to a certain extent (Meleddu, Paci & Pulina 2015:167). Research has shown that loyal customers are generally less price sensitive (Hu, Hyang & Chen 2010). It is likely that a positive experience will influence the likelihood of a return visit. However, a first visit does not imply future commitment (Sun, Chi & Xu 2013; Yoon & Uysal 2005) and this is the challenge given the high number of first time visitors to South Africa (South African Tourism 2015).

Apart from the importance of observing tourists' revisit intentions it is also important to assess these intentions from a time perspective because visitors might consider returning but not necessarily in the near future. Thus this study will also explore the effects of tourists' revisit intentions measured on short-term, mid-term and long-term bases as was applied by Feng and Jang (2007:584). In this case, repeat visitors to South African destinations are imperative for

increasing revenue of the tourism industry especially since this is a long-haul destination which creates its own challenges. The in-depth study on the predictors of intention regarding repeat visits may serve as guidelines to improve the South African tourism situation and increase the number of repeat international visitors to South Africa as well as the number of referrals made to encourage visitation to this country. The importance of the tourism industry for South Africa should not be underestimated and increased attention is needed to research issues, such as intention to return, that will contribute to the growth of the industry and also employment opportunities.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Revisit intention has been highlighted as an important research topic in the competitive market of tourism destinations. Given the location of South Africa and the political circumstances this country is faced with challenges in increasing the number of visitors. Added to this it is evident from Table 1.1 that a high percentage of first time visitors are from countries other than Africa with the opposite also evident; that a small percentage of repeat visitors are from these countries. Only considering first time visitors small increases and decreases were experienced in the number of visitors between 2013 and 2016 (South African Tourism 2015; 2016) – thus South Africa is not making significant progress in increasing the number of repeat visitors, especially in the markets outside Africa who spend significantly more on their holidays. The high number of first time visitors shows that there are potential and that people want to visit the country but repeat visitation is low. Despite the considerable amount of research on repeat visitors, it remains unclear why people undertake or do not undertake repeat visits to South Africa. This knowledge can contribute to the development of effective marketing strategies, direct focus on the most appropriate markets for repeat visits and ultimately an increase in visitor numbers. The research question thus remains:

What are the predictors of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa?

Table 1.1: Repeat visitation to South Africa

NUMBER OF VISITS	YEAR	AFRICA (LAND)	AFRICA (AIR)	AMERICAS	ASIA & AUSTRALIA	EUROPE
First time	2016	2.7%	34.9%	66%	44.7%	52.8%
	2015	2.4%	31.5%	65.2%	44.7%	52.8%
	2014	1.1%	24.7%	61.7%	43.4%	53.2%
	2013	1.6%	29.3%	59.5%	51.2%	49.5%
2-3 times	2016	8.2%	27%	19.6%	28.4%	23%
	2015	8.7%	29.2%	19.1%	28.4%	23%
	2014	3%	37.9%	22.4%	32.3%	23.2%
	2013	4.5%	43%	25.8%	31.2%	26.3%
4-5 times	2016	10.4%	12.9%	7.1%	11.5%	10.2%
	2015	10.8%	15.2%	7.8%	11.5%	10.2%
	2014	7.8%	22.2%	9%	14.9%	11.3%
	2013	9%	15.8%	8.2%	10.7%	11.1%
6-9 times	2016	14.4%	9.8%	4.2%	10.2%	7.8%
	2015	16.1%	10.9%	4.8%	10.2%	7.8%
	2014	13.6%	8.1%	4.7%	6.3%	7.9%
	2013	11.1%	6.4%	4%	4.7%	7.7%
10+ times	2016	64.3%	15.4%	3.1%	5.2%	6.2%
	2015	62.1%	13.2%	3.1%	5.2%	6.2%
	2014	74.5%	7%	2.2%	3.1%	4.4%
	2013	73.7%	5.5%	2.4%	2.2%	5.4%

Source: South African Tourism (2015; 2014)

1.4 PRIMARY AIM AND SECONDARY RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this study aim of this study is to identify the predictors of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa as a tourism destination. More specifically this study focuses on the influence of satisfaction, perceived quality, motivation, destination attributes and destination image on intention to return as well as the influence of time (short-term, mid-term or long-term) in order to identify important elements that can be utilised to switch a first-time visitor to a more regular visitor.

In order to achieve the primary aim of this study, the following secondary objectives were set:

- to analyse tourists' behaviour in terms of travel decision-making by means of an in-depth literature review.
- to analyse literature concerning tourist's intentions to return to tourism destinations.
- to empirically assess the predictors of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa as a destination with reference to satisfaction, perceived quality, motivation, destination attributes and destination image as well as the influence of time on intention to return.
- to draw conclusions and make recommendations on the predictors of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa.

1.5 THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is of importance in respect to the following aspects:

- The results of the study contribute to the current body of knowledge with regard to destination marketing and management focused on intention to return and the importance thereof for the tourism industry.
- The findings of the study can provide information to assist destination managers and marketers with more focused knowledge on the predictors of intention to return that can inform future product development and marketing planning.
- The implementation of the recommendations of the study may contribute to increasing the number of repeat visitors to South Africa and thereby contribute to the continuous growth of South Africa's tourism industry.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study followed a cross-sectional survey approach which was structured on a literature review and a quantitative study. The research design for this study was thus mainly descriptive with specific reference to a quantitative method, namely structured questionnaires. Descriptive research design aims at clarifying the defining characteristics or properties of people, events or problems (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). Details about the research methodology and approaches followed can be found in Chapter 4.

1.6.1 Literature review

It is important to provide an overview of current and occasionally not so current, yet sufficiently relevant, secondary research that addresses the research topic (Maree & Van der Westhuizen 2007:26) and is done by means of an in-depth literature review. More specifically literature related to travel decision-making, intention to return and predictors of intention to return are analysed. Information was acquired from articles, textbooks, journals, search-engines such as Google scholar, Science Direct, Sabinet and JStor as well as the Internet, as source-relevant information. Keywords included the following: return intention, loyalty, destination, predictors, tourism and South Africa as a tourism destination. Chapters 2 and 3 are devoted to the analyses of previous research and this formed the foundation of the empirical study.

1.6.2 Empirical study

Quantitative research follows a process that is systematic and objective in its ways of using numerical data from a selected subgroup of a population to generalise the findings to the population being studied (Maree & Pietersen 2007:145). This type of approach holds benefits such as cost effectiveness and objective opinions from respondents, especially since the opinions of international visitors to South Africa are requested. Various previous studies have utilised quantitative research for this type of research (Tosun *et al.* 2015; Zhang *et al.* 2017) and were therefore deemed appropriate for this topic. The variety of instruments and methods of conducting this type of research was however evident but addressed in this research.

1.6.2.1 Population

The target population for this study was international tourists that visited South Africa by air for either leisure or business purposes. Visitors that reached South Africa by air between 2013 and 2015 averaged 2.5 million (South African Tourism 2014; 2015) (See Table 1.2). This research is directed as international visitors that visited South Africa at least once which will enable conclusions and recommendations on their intentions to return. Thus the screening question was asked, namely are you an international tourist and have you visited this country before.

Table 1.2: Tourist arrivals to South Africa by air

	2013	2014	2015
Africa-air markets	390 621	374 575	362.860
Americas	433 526	434 919	403.754
Asia & Australasia	448 968	401 714	370.605
Europe	1 278 065	1 365 472	1.317.291
TOTALS	2 551 180	2 576 680	2 454 510

Source: South African Tourism (2014; 2015)

1.6.2.2 Sampling and description of the sample

Since it is not possible or practical to collect data from the whole population it is necessary to select an appropriate sample (Struwig & Stead 2004). According to Maree and Pieterse (2007:172) there are two main categories of sampling namely probability and non-probability sampling. This study implemented a non-probability sampling method, namely convenience sampling, since no list of visitors to South Africa is available to make provision for random selection of visitors. Thus this method refers to situations in which respondents are selected based on the fact that they are available and willing to participate in the survey (Maree & Pieterse 2007:177; Niininen, Szivas & Riley 2004:439). The availability of the sample was based on the tourists that are at the data collection point on the day of sampling. However, the fact that the population has already visited the country puts them in a better position to determine the reason for their intention to return or not to return. In this study the sampling was non-probable and purposive. Parahoo (1997:223) points out that in non-probability sampling researchers use their judgment of the phenomenon. Cooper and Schindler (2014:359) describe purposive sampling as a method of sampling where the researcher sample member to conform to some criterion. In the case of this study respondents had to be international visitors to South Africa.

To ensure access to a high number of international tourists the survey was conducted at Table Mountain National Park and more specifically the Cableway. Table Mountain National Park, located in Cape Town, was proclaimed on 29 May 1988 for the purpose of protecting the natural environment of the Table Mountain Chain and in particular the rare fynbos vegetation. The park is managed by South Africa National Parks and the property is included as part of the UNESCO Cape Floral Region World Heritage Site. The Cableway receives a high number of tourists both domestic and international tourists. Visitor numbers have been meticulously recorded since Table Mountain Cableway started operating on 4 October 1929. In 1957 Cableway recorded its millionth visitor 28 years after it started operating and by the time that the rotating Cable cars were

introduced in 1997, the Cableway hosted 11 million visitors. The 22nd millionth visitors, recorded on 6 November 2012, marked the shortest time taken, namely 15 months, to reach a million visits. Table Mountain Cableway hosted a record breaking 855595 visitors between July 2012 and June 2015. Twenty-four million visitors were welcomed on 20 June 2015 (South African National Parks, 2016).

Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) set out the sampling procedure that was used as a guideline for research activities, and the recommended sample was (n) 384 for a population (N) of 1000 000. Due to the significant number of visitors the Cableway it was decided to target 800 international respondents to complete the questionnaire and make provision for uncompleted questionnaires. Schaller (1992:66) states that large samples enable researchers to draw more accurate conclusions and make more accurate predictions. It should be noted that as a population increases the sample size increases at a diminishing rate and remains relatively constant at slightly more than 380 cases (Krejcie & Morgan 1970:610). Of the 800 questionnaires distributed the fieldworkers returned 720 completed questionnaires which were adequate for purposes of this research.

1.6.2.3 Measuring instrument and data collection

A self-administered, face-to-face questionnaire was used to collect the data. The questionnaire was based on the research done by Bigné *et al.* (2009:3); Shanka *et al.* (2010:15); Li and Carr (2004:48); Yoon & Uysal (2005); Alexandris *et al.* (2006); Chi and Qu (2008) and Shanka *et al.* (2010:15), since these studies show relevance to the current study with regard to predictors of intention to return. The questionnaire was divided into four sections, namely:

Section A: Demographic Information

Section A consisted of questions on gender, age, country of residence, level of education, marital status, occupation, number of days in South Africa, type of accommodation, number of visits to South Africa, mode of transport to and in South Africa and the number of travel group. Mostly closed-ended questions were used to determine responses concerning demographic information (Moutinho 2013:5).

Section B: Intentions to return to South Africa

Section B included willingness to return to South Africa, willingness to recommend South Africa to family and friends, image about South Africa as a holiday destination and bringing more people with when visiting South Africa again. This part implemented a 5-point Likert-scale where *1 was totally disagree, 2 was disagree, 3 was not sure, 4 was agree and 5 was totally agree*.

Section C: Reasons for visiting South Africa

Respondents were asked to rate their reasons for visiting South Africa such as to meet new people, to find thrill and excitement, to participate in new activities and so on. This part also implemented a Likert-scale question. For travel motivations, a 5-point Likert-scale where *1 was totally disagree, 2 was disagree, 3 was not sure, 4 was agree and 5 was totally agree* was implemented.

Section D: Travel behaviour variables

Respondents travel behaviour to and whilst in South Africa were assessed by means of open- and close-ended questions. Aspects influencing respondents' willingness to return to South Africa, the influence of the Internet, Word-of-mouth, television programmes about South Africa on visiting South Africa was assessed on a Likert Scale. For these aspects, a 4-point Likert-scale was implemented where *1 was not at all, 2 was very little, 3 was somewhat and 4 was to a great extent*.

After the development of the questionnaire it was pre-tested among 15 international tourists (international students visiting North-West University and Vaal University of Technology) to South Africa to determine the validity of the questionnaire and whether respondents understand the questions (Struwig & Stead 2004:89). Minor adjustments, such as wording and formatting, were made to the questionnaire where necessary and the results from this pre-test were not included in the main survey.

Fieldworkers distributed the questionnaires by firstly explaining the purpose of the research and secondly by asking respondents' willingness to participate in this process. This was done over a period of two weeks, namely 28 September – 10 October 2016. Visitors to the Cableway have to queue to gain access to the attraction and after seeking permission from Aerial Cableway the fieldworkers approached the visitors whilst waiting. If a visitor did not want to participate in the

survey the next international visitor in the queue was asked to participate. This proved to be a very successful way of collecting the data even though it is time-consuming.

1.6.2.4 Data analyses

Once the data was collected, the researcher captured data on SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Predictors of tourists' intentions to return was analysed by means of factor analysis after which Linear Regression was done to determine the most important predictor of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa. ANOVA's, *t*-tests and Spearman Rank Order Correlations was done to determine factors influencing intention to return such as selected demographic variables and travel behaviour variables. These methods provided answers to the research questions and ultimately contribute to the achievement of the primary objective of the research, namely: identify the predictors of tourist's intentions to return to South Africa as a tourism destination.

Frequency tables

Frequency tables were used to summarise grouping of data into mutually exclusive classes and the number of occurrences in a class which served as the descriptive analysis of the data. Frequency tables are thus mainly used to report the quantitative data (Day 2003:402) as it provides the number pertaining to different categories (Wetcher-Hendricks 2011:35). In the case of this research frequency tables were used for the reporting of the demographic information and also information related to the travel behaviour of respondents.

Factor analysis

In social sciences certain aspects are measured but it can actually not be directly measured (so-called latent variables) and a factor analysis can be used for this purpose. Factor analysis is a multivariate analysis technique used in statistics (Asparouhov & Muthen 2009:397). It is used to describe variability among observed, correlated variables in terms of a potentially lower number of unobserved variables called factors. For example, it is possible that variations in six observed variables mainly reflect the variations in two unobserved (underlying) variables (Pallant 2010:181).

Exploratory factor analysis was used since it was not clear what the number of factors will be from the existing variables (Zikmund & Babin 2007:608). This method has proven to be useful in test development, evaluating validity, developing theory and computing factors scores for use of

subsequent analysis (Larsen & Warne 2010:871). In the case of this research exploratory factor analyses were used to analyse respondents willingness to return, aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa and reasons for visiting South Africa.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)

An analysis of variance is used to test for significant differences between two or more samples or groups (Finn *et al.* 2000:223). Altinay and Paraskevas (2008:216) explain ANOVA as an analysis technique used to measure the significant mean difference between more than two groups of variables on an interval or ratio level of measurement. ANOVA is used for hypothesis testing regarding the differences among the means of several independent groups (McDaniel & Gates 2002:530). This involves one independent variable which has a number of different levels. An F-ratio is calculated, which represents the variance between the groups divided by the variance within groups. A large F-ratio indicates that there is more variability between the groups than there is within each group (Pallant 2010:249). In the case of this study ANOVA's were used to compare travel motivations and willingness to return by marital status and occupation.

t-tests

A *t*-test compares the values on some continuous variable for two groups or on two occasions (Pallant 2010:139). It is used to determine the mean difference between two unrelated groups, for example male and female (Bryman & Cramer 2008:175). The means of two sets of data and their standard deviations are compared to determine the differences between the two groups (Denscombe 2007:268; Altinay & Paraskevas 2008:214; Brotherton 2008:197). In the case of this study *t*-tests were used to analyse travel motivations and willingness to return by gender, type of accommodation and type of transport.

Spearman Rank Order Correlations

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. Spearman 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 (Cohen 1988). In the case of this study relationships were determined between travel motivations, between willingness to return factors and between travel motivations and willingness to return factors.

1.6.2.5 Ethical considerations

Respondents participated willingly in the survey and no reference was made in the questionnaire that would enable the identification of participants. The data was analysed as a unit with no specific reference to individuals.

1.7 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

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

1.7.1 Revisit intentions

Revisit intention is modified from social psychology and marketing perspectives (Choo & Petrick 2014:375) of which the latter plays the important role in this study. Han and Kim (2010) defined intention to revisit as an individual's readiness or willingness to visit the same destination. Um, Chon and Ro (2006) stated that it is better to attract visitors to come back than to look for new visitors. It was found by Petrick, Morais and Norman (2001) that the intention to revisit a destination is influenced by the tourist's level of satisfaction, the perceived value and past behaviour.

Seen from the consumption process perspective, tourists' behaviour is divided into three stages, including pre-visitation, visitation and post-visitation. Chen and Tsai (2007) stated that tourists' subsequent evaluations and future behavioural intentions become evident in the post-visitation stage. The subsequent evaluation is the travel experience or perceived value and overall satisfaction of the visitor, whereas the future behavioural intention refers to the tourists' judgment of the likelihood of revisiting the same destination and willingness to recommend it to others.

1.7.2 Destination loyalty

Loyalty refers to committed behaviour that has been conceptualised by attitudinal loyalty, behavioural loyalty and composite loyalty (Zhang, Fu, Liping & Lu 2014:214). Researchers do agree that destination loyalty emphasizes a longitudinal perspective. It is focused on lifelong visitation behaviour of travellers rather than simply a cross-sectional perspective in which today's visitation might not necessarily be related to previous visits. Weiner (2000:34) explains that loyal customers will generally attribute service errors to unstable factors such as uncontrolled factors instead of it being controlled by the destination provider; thus remaining loyal (and polite) in spite of their dissatisfaction. The measurements of loyalty can be classified into two areas: firstly, it is about tourists' attitudes towards repeat purchasing; and secondly, about tourists' tendencies to return to a tourism destination.

Destination loyalty is desired by destination providers because it secures the relationship between visitors and destination providers when the visitors are faced with increasingly attractive destination competitive offers or by their own shortcomings. Loyal visitors are more likely to identify the trust in and be committed to the destinations they prefer when faced with adversity (Baker & Crompton 2000). This is very important for a destination such as South Africa.

1.7.3 Tourists' satisfaction

As one of the core antecedents of revisit intention it is important to understand this element. Tourists' satisfaction is defined as the degree of positive feelings activated from the experience at the destination. The main focus of evaluating is the increase in itself when customers compare their sensations with their initial expectations by means of the disconfirmation theory. A satisfied tourist would be happy when he/she perceives a higher natural resources service performance than the service expectation. If the perceived service performance is lower than service expectation it indicates discontentedness in the customer (Prayag & Ryan 2011:121). Literature has proven that satisfied customers will always want to buy more or visit again. It is also true that some scholars have noticed a high customer defection in spite of high satisfaction rating which should also be assessed (Hui, Wan & Ho 2007:965). Tourists' satisfaction is thus considered one of the prime variables to sustain competitive business in the tourism industry or sustaining a competitive destination because it affects the choice of destination, consumption of products and services and intention to return. Tourists' satisfaction has been one of the key areas of tourism research for more than decades.

1.8 CHAPTER OUTLINE

A classification of the chapters subsequently follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement

This chapter provides an overview of how the study is arranged. The background of the study, the problem statement, the objective of the study, method of research and description of terminology (concepts) are discussed and sets the tone for the research.

Chapter 2: Understanding travel behaviour and decision-making

The purpose of chapter 2 is to conduct an in-depth literature review on travel behaviour and decision-making and the relevance thereof to this study. The chapter focuses on the analyses of theories and models related to travel behaviour as well as all the factors that can possibly

influence travel behaviour. This chapter partially forms the theoretical framework of this study and are utilised in the development of the measuring instrument.

Chapter 3: Understanding the tourists' intentions to return to destinations

This chapter aims at analysing relevant literature related to tourists' intentions to return to destinations. This encapsulates the core of the study and focuses on literature related to tourists' intentions to return to destinations and attractions. Given the lack of research in this regard conducted in South Africa most of the sources dealt with are international sources. Specific attention was given to satisfaction, perceived values, destination attributes, motivation, perceived quality, past vacation experience and destination image as possible predictors of tourists' intentions to return. The influence of time on intention to return with reference to 12 months (short-term), three years (mid-term) or 5 years (long-term) is also discussed. This chapter forms the second part of the theoretical framework for the study and the information is also utilised in the development of the measuring instrument.

Chapter 4: Research methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research methodology designed to address the research problem. The quantitative research methodology followed in the empirical analysis of the data is discussed, followed by a description of the research design, the data collection and data analyses process.

Chapter 5: Results and discussions

It is the aim of this chapter to determine the predictors of visitors' intention to return to South Africa as a tourism destination. In this chapter the main results will be discussed and compared with previous similar studies and the unique elements related to the topic of South Africa is highlighted. The descriptive analysis is done by means of frequency tables after which exploratory data analyses techniques were utilised to analyse the data.

Chapter 6: Conclusion and recommendations

The purpose of this chapter is to present conclusions and recommendations of the study. Thus conclusions are drawn from the literature review and the empirical analysis and recommendations are made regarding the predictors of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa. The limitations of the research are stated but more importantly the implications of the research and the implications for further research are discussed.

CHAPTER 2

UNDERSTANDING TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR AND DECISION- MAKING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is unquestionably a global phenomenon (WTO, 2012). Travel and tourism made the following contributions towards the GDP: 118.6bn ZAR (3.0% of total GDP) in 2015 and are predicted to rise in year 2016-2026 by an estimate of 3.8% per annum, between 2016-2026 to 178.3bn ZAR (3.4% of total GDP). The absolute contribution of travel and tourism towards the GDP was 375.5bn ZAR (9.4% of total GDP) in the year 2015 and was forecasted to rise by 3.7% per annum which is 555.1bn ZAR (10.6% of total GDP) by 2026. This is in accordance with the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC 2017). Clearly this is an industry that requires research to maintain the growth and ensure that South Africa receives its cut from the international travel market.

There are different understandings of travel; by some it is seen as a basic need and for others a source of status, an escape from reality, or a specific consumption/addiction (Raj 2004:12). The increase in travel between Europe and America, leads to the beginning of travel research towards the end of the 18th century. At first research done under tourism was centred on economic benefits and financial affluence. This was mainly because tourism was viewed to be an instrument that benefits the economy in both national and international levels, specifically in nations that lacked technological development. As a result, research categorized tourism as an economic activity, principally the advantages and disadvantages of tourism to the economy (Minghui 2007). Jennings (2001:19) stated that the “interest has shifted from the supply side (tourism industry sector and government) to the demand side of tourism (tourists)”. Attention has thus turned to the nature of tourists, their experiences and social, environment and economic impact to tourism, as well as training and educational needs.

Travel behaviour and the choices tourists make are relevant today enabling researchers to understand the activities which the tourist pursues, actions that tourists follow, and issues like with whom, when and where they occur (Van Middelkoop *et al.* 2001:107). The travel decision making process of tourists has also become more important with reference to buying a tourism good(s) or service(s) (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2001:3). The continuous development of markets and the changing needs of tourists require updated information that can inform product - and marketing planning especially for tourism destinations. It is thus the purpose of this chapter is to conduct an in-depth literature review on travel behaviour and decision-making and the relevance thereof to this study (see Figure 2.1).

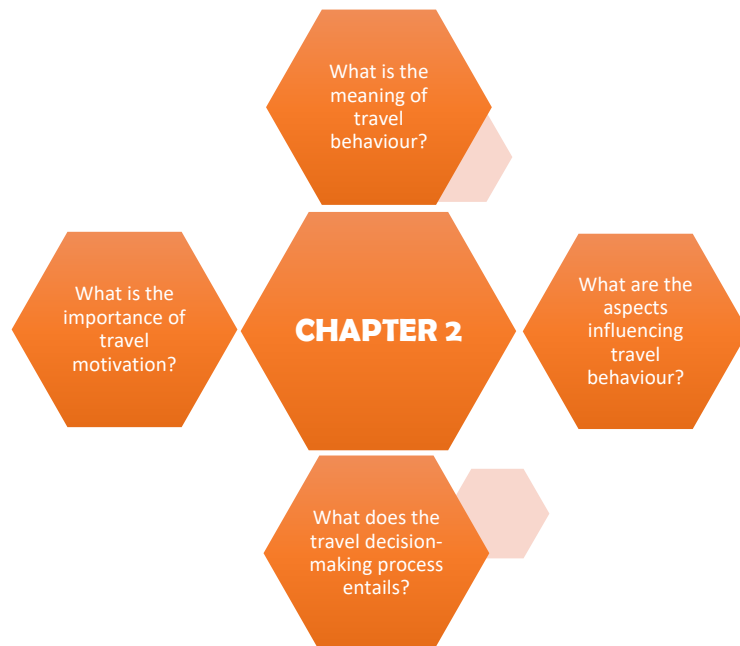


Figure 2.1: Layout of Chapter 2

The first part of this chapter deals with tourist's behaviour and aspects influencing travel behaviour as well as travel decision-making processes. The second part focuses on an analysis of travel motivations as a key factor influencing travel behaviour.

2.2 UNDERSTANDING TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

Travel is vibrant and indefinite involving choice-making from variety of choices which are complex and are influenced by different factors. These may be situational or environmental (Kah & Lee 2016). Consumer behaviour (known as travel behaviour or tourist behaviour in tourism) is well researched (Van Vuuren & Slabbert 2011; Wong, Fong & Law 2016; Laesser, Beritelli & Heer 2014; Cohen, Prayag & Moital 2014 to name a few) in the tourism environment and involves decisions, activities, ideas or experiences that satisfy a certain set of needs (Solomon 1996). Researchers also need to focus on how tourists think, feel and react to tourism settings (Pearce 2011:3). Due to the fragile nature of the tourism industry, a detailed understanding of travel behaviour is vital (Edwards, Griffin, Hayllar, Dickson & Schweinsberg 2009). Insights to travel behaviour can assist managers in the management of destinations, product development, and marketing (Li, Meng & Uysal 2008). Regardless of such efforts, travel behaviour of international tourists still acts as an obstacle of understanding to researchers and managers especially due to the ever-changing nature of tourists and their needs. Batra (2009) stated that “the natural assumption is that travel behaviour will vary among different groups of tourists”, for example travellers from different countries may have varied preferences regarding their stay (Leung et al., 2012) or return behaviour. It is thus important to stay updated on these preferences and travel behaviour.

The development of the market place as well as tourist needs and preferences necessitate the creation and delivery of suitable products in the tourism industry – provided by both private - and public sector. Understanding the behavioural patterns of tourists will enable the industry to provide products and services capable of satisfying the tourists’ individual needs (Fourie, 2006:54). According to Zins (2001:123), motivation, benefits, products and service quality forms part of travel behaviour. Added to this Cohen, Prayag and Moital (2014) developed a conceptual model for tourist behaviour to link the concepts, influences and research contexts in consumer behaviour studies. The key concepts of consumer behaviour research are decision-making, values, motivations, attitudes, perceptions and satisfaction (to be discussed later in this chapter).

Raj (2004) view travel behaviour collectively as travel, establishment of travel request, preparation, motivation and behaviour of tourists making choices, tourist perceptions, expectations and gratification as well as the actual expenditure during travel. Fourie (2006:13) elaborates that the way in which an individual respond to a specific situation can be seen as

behaviour. Swarbrooke and Horner (2001:3) defined consumer behaviour as the way a customer will decide to utilize or purchase a product or not. As an outcome travel behaviour tends to be more focuses on a person who travels to a destination because of a need, ambition or hideaway. Tourism organisations and the industry should pay close attention to travel behaviour as directly links with tourism marketing.

It is clear from the review of literature that travel behaviour research is trans-disciplinary (Hensher 2001). Researchers acknowledge the existence of different factors that may have an effect on how, when and where tourists take vacation such factors include, income, level of education, occupation and age (Raj 2004). Advances in methodology and its uses in travel behaviour research expand to coping strategies and the expanding complication of human travel. Redmond (2000) indicated that the existence of varied options and a few difficult and fast rules results in his conclusion that travel behaviour is multifaceted and challenging. Tourist behaviour as a study is thus focussing on the motives behind an individual's choice of product for purchase, and how they come to their decision (Schiffman & Kanuk 2007).

Minghui (2007:15) stated that people are not the same and will have different needs; individual first choice and societal conditions may affect their decisions on what to buy. Former research has also revealed that there is diversity of mental and sociological reasons which explain why people travel. An understanding of travel behaviour was already recognized in 2004 as an important constituent in the forecasting, scheming and operative examination of vacation industry (Raj 2004). Understanding the different forms of behaviour of tourists is one of the challenges for tourist managers. Even more so the understanding of monotonous forms of behaviour is important as it enables the assurance of future sources of income and also construct informal networks of relationships which enables the attraction of tourists to selected destinations (Reid & Reid 2013:78). Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) reflect on the growing curiosity as part of the behaviour of tourists.

From the above, it is clear that travel behaviour is a complex but critical concept in tourism research. Understanding the tourist is central to the planning and marketing concept. Failing to do this might lead to misdirected and ineffective marketing and planning activities. For the purpose of this study intention to return to a destination is considered a travel behaviour variable which is influenced by selected factors in the travel decision-making process.

2.3 ASPECTS INFLUENCING TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

It is important for destinations and products to develop faster and more effective than the competition and thus it is not only about travel behaviour but also about the aspects influencing travel behaviour. In a more detailed explanation research is necessary for understanding the factors that influence travel behaviour so as to have a more precise reaction to it (Ryan 2003). Moutinho (2000:89) states that “marketing research in tourism is the systematic gathering, recording and analysing of data about problems related to the marketing of tourism services”. Research on travel behaviour is usable within tourism marketing as it has scholarly and practical value.

Minghui (2007:5), George (2011) and Moutinho (2000) stated that learning about tourist travel behaviour is essential for marketing purposes since it can assist in understanding buying decisions which may be subjective to aspects such as individual first choice, special individualities and societal conditions and a combination of these (see Figure 2.2). Knowledge of this kind might be valuable in the development, advertising and marketing of tourism goods (Swarbrooke & Horner 2001; Pearce 2005). All these factors are discussed below.

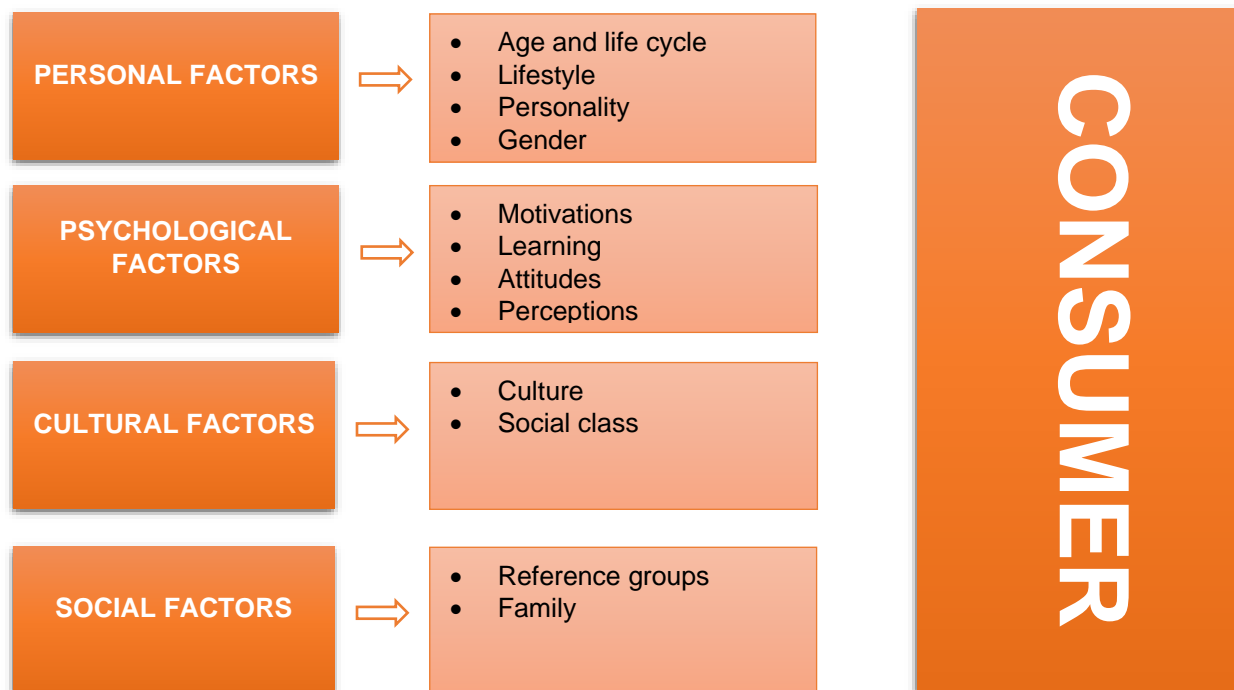


Figure 2.2: Aspects influencing travel behaviour

Source: Adapted from Moutinho (2000); George (2011); Page & Connell (2009)

2.3.1 Personal factors

Personal factors such as age and life-cycle stage, lifestyle, personality and self-perception influences travel decisions.

2.3.1.1 Age and life cycle

Tourism participation is strongly related to age and this is also related to the life cycle (Kotler 2006:205; Page & Connell 2009). To do successful marketing to various age segments require targeted strategies and knowledge of the market and their needs (Kotler 2006:206). The life cycle can be utilised by tourism marketers when doing marketing planning since it shapes behaviour. Consumers progress through the life-cycle with their live becoming more hectic and their time more limited. At each stage of this life-cycle consumers have specific needs and as they have limited time they require convenience and accessibility in terms of travel. During this time the amount of disposable income changes and one might only have that again when your children are on their own and living their own life (George 2011) (See Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: The life-cycle model

STAGE	CHARACTERISTICS	CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR IN TRAVEL
Home based singles	Under 35 years, single people, living with their parents and have not children	Adventure-type of holidays
Starting-out singles	Under 35 years, left home, not married, no children, fashion conscious, low financial commitments	Similar to at-home singles
Mature singles	Mostly between 35 and 49 years, not married, no children	Overseas holidays, dine out frequently
Young couples	Up to 49 years old, married, no children	Overseas holidays, holiday resorts, dine out frequently
New parents	Married with children under the age of 12 years	Family holidays, visiting friends or relatives, family restaurant meals
Mature parents	Married with at least one child over the age of thirteen years	Luxury holidays, upmarket restaurants
Golden nests	Over 50 years old, married without dependent children	More expensive long-haul holidays, upmarket dining, museums
Left alones	Over 50 years old, not married, no children	Similar to golden nests

Source: George (2011)

2.3.1.2 Lifestyle

Lifestyle refers to the way that people live and this is expressed through a person's activities, interests and opinions (Kotler 2006:207). Knowledge about lifestyle informs sellers who the buyers are and the reasons behind their purchase showing their concealed motives and values (George 2011). Thus lifestyle portrays the 'whole person' interacting with his/her environment (Kotler 2006:207).

2.3.1.3 Personality

The visible representations of thoughts are termed personality, behaviours and emotions that characterises every character's adaptation to the condition of their lives. Kotler (2006:209) indicated that personality entails distinguishing psychological characteristics the lead to relatively consistent responses to the environment. Since personality is a vast concept, it has been adjusted to different settings with the aim of providing specific forecasts of behaviour under a unique context. Travel personality is such an adaption of personality in the travel/tourism context that refers to travel activities-related personality types (Gretzel & Jamal 2004). Whether or not an individual is adventurous or cautious, sociable or a loner has an effect on the type of vacation they will choose (George 2011). Hence personality traits are directly subjective to the motives of travel (Middleton *et al.* 2009).

In accordance the recommendations brought forth by Nickerson and Ellis (1991), extroversion and allocentricism-psychocentricism dimensions can be used to describe a tourist or tourists. Such could result in the establishment of four chief personality types. This kind of research methodology is supposed to result in the expansion of forecasting abilities of psychographic examinations of tourists. It was illustrated that this kind of research could enhance theoretical, methodical and practical dimensions of the first theories developed. Further Ross (2014) showed that such research by Plog (1972) and Eysenck and Eysenck (1970) and Jackson *et al.* (2001) integrated/combined these independent dimensions to create four interdependent constructs as can be seen in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Tourists Personality Types and Proposed Associated Tourist Behaviour

Personality type	Proposed tourist behaviour
#1 The Explorer	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Individual time/ no timetable, get to know the unique cultures and hosts, in group/ avoid crowds, excitement, enriches own knowledge, secluded/ discrete destinations, not controlled, not organised.
#2 The Adventurer	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Sense of freedom, explains different cultures, avoids boredom by stopping at many places and doing exciting things, not regimented, activities optional, travel not organized, travel to meet new people (especially hosts) or travelling with not familiar people or with friends / family
#3 The Guided	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Prefer the familiar not foreign, enjoy luxury, relaxes, escapes life's problems, revisits favourite destinations, misunderstand or over spend, everything arranged to avoid problems, sense of isolated and being alone, travels only special friend.
#4 The Groupie	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Travel to where there are action and large number of people, engage in many activities such as theme parks and sports, engage with the host community, travel with group of friends or meets tourists on packaged tours.

Source: Jackson et al. (2001)

2.3.1.4 Gender

Gender comprises males and females and considered an important variable in demographic segmentation (Khan 2013). The influence of gender on travel behaviour has been well research with different findings and conclusions (Bahar, Fakhri & Ye 2017; Khan 2013) Gender is one of the basic relations between individual and any society. Swain and Momsen (2002) found that woman experience differently than men. Timothy (2001) stated that men are more leisured whilst on holiday than men due to the continuation of domestic duties. Clarke and Critcher (as cited by Page & Connell 2009) found that women travel less and have fewer leisure activities and the devote most of their time to care for family and home, women have less leisure time when compared to men– if this is true it holds implications for tourism participation and motivation. The current society has witnessed empowerment of women and the rise of lone female travellers. This is almost an unexplored market as most packages focus on groups and family holidays. Men who travel alone might consider adventure and expeditions whereas women take more calculated risks (Page & Connell 2009).

2.3.2 Psychological factors

Motivation, learning and attitudes are discussed as part of psychological factors.

2.3.2.1 Motivation

As Kim, Oh and Jofaratnam (2007:73) identified motivation it is seen as a concept that is present as a need(s) or a solution which establishes a push force that shows varied behavioural types for specific kinds of actions, to initiate and sustain behaviour for a satisfactory goal. This refers to the psychological influences that affects the choices of an individual (George 2011). Green, Beatty and Aekin (cited by Chen, Prebsen & Huan 2008) stated that motivation is the result of interpersonal processes which co-ordinate, activate and sustain behaviour. Dornyei (2001) together with Chen and Prebensen (2009) went on and stated that motivation to travel takes responsibility for the motive behind the choices people make to travel, the period which they travel and how determined they will be to follow their need to travel. Feelings of needs and wants generate tension that grows and will continue to grow until the needs and wants are met. These are motivations which set off actions that release states of tension. Motivation is thus an active process in a consumer's behaviour connecting a felt need and the choice to respond to it (Middleton 2009:80).

Chen *et al.* (2008:106) state that with regards to travel motivation, the differences between tourists are wide-ranging as a result this has an impact or influence on their choices in many ways. Models and theories have been developed to understand motivations for example Herzberg (1959); Maslow's hierarchy (1970), Iso-Ahola (1982) and Beard and Ragheb's Leisure motivation scale (1983). Motivation is discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

2.3.2.2 Learning

According to George (2011) learning is the way in which an individual's behaviour will change due to experience. Thus learning requires action (Kotler 2006:214) and according to Engel *et al.* (1990) learning involves a change in the tourist's motivation or behaviour over the long-term. Focusing on the knowledge of a tourist (and can thus be utilized) is the first part of the definition while focusing on a concrete behaviour is the second part. Learning is not all knowledge based but is the process by which one develops a preference for a tourism destination or tourism product.

At times there are possibilities to learn from observing the consequences of others. This is known as vicarious learning where the tourist needs not to go through the process of themselves. For example tourists can learn from the tourists who once visited a tourism destination. Likewise viewers may empathize with characters in advertisements who experienced (usually positive) results from visiting a particular destination (Nicosia, 1966). Marketers use this process to their advantage by selecting messages using familiar words or situations with a twist. This is called cognitive learning where the learning is more likely to be retained (Middleton 2009). This is very important for future behaviour of tourists.

2.3.2.3 Attitudes

Holden (2005) defined attitudes as the understanding of positive and negative feelings towards an object. These are impartially enduring sets of examinations, which makes people more predictable in their response. Thus attitudes determine whether a person like or dislike certain things (Kotler 2006:215). The attitudes of tourists are made up of their beliefs, feelings and behavioural intentions towards a specific object with in the environment of marketing, commonly a brand or destination of choice. These constituents are seen together as they are vastly independent and together symbolize forces that influence how tourists will react to the product/service (Holden 2005). Attitude will thus influence the decision to travel to a certain destination (See Figure 2.3).

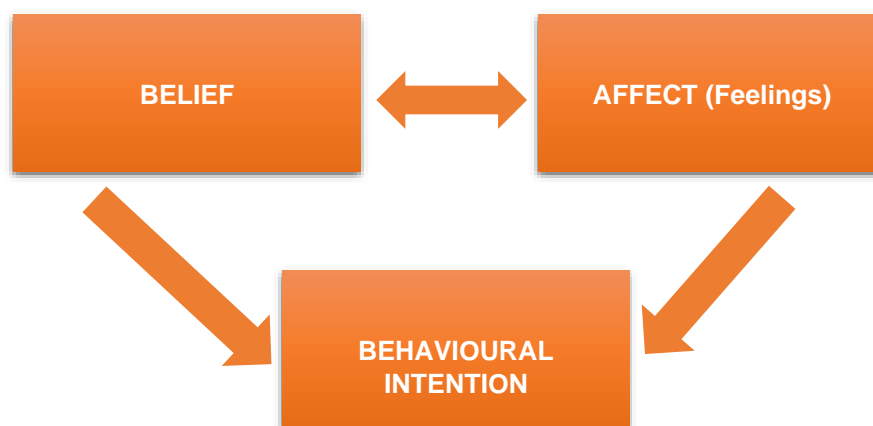


Figure 2.3: Proposed tourist attitude

Source: Holden (2005)

- **Beliefs**

Thoughts which people have with relation to aspects of their lives are referred to as beliefs (George 2011). A tourist may hold positive beliefs towards a tourism destination, product or service or adverse beliefs. These beliefs may be neutral and some varied in valence based on the individual or specific situations. These beliefs may be based on real knowledge, opinions or faith and they may or may not carry an emotional charge (Kotler 2006:215).

- **Affect**

Tourists also hold certain feelings towards brands or tourism destinations. Sometimes these feelings are based on beliefs but there may also be feelings which are relatively independent of beliefs (Holden 2005).

- **Behavioural intentions**

The behavioural intentions are what the tourist's plans to do in terms of a certain tourism offering, thus buying or not buying. The ideal is that the experience is so good that the tourist returns to experience the same product or service again and spread the good word about this product or service.

2.3.2.4 Perceptions

Perception refers to the interpretation done by individuals based on the information around them. Perception has a role in bringing knowledge about the real world and makes that part of the mental and internal world. In accordance with Decrop (2006), there is a recognition of the presence of three basic cognitive processes which labelled perception as a very discriminatory and interpretive process, viz. sensation, capturing of the stimulus from environment by sense nerves; attention, recognition of the sense input in comparison to the known picture kept in the memory; interpretation, trying to make sense of the inputs. Behaviour is thus directly affected by perception, making perception powerful in marketing analysis.

Swarbrooke and Horner (2001:250) emphasize that there are different perceptions of different values. For example, when a tourist's perception concerning destinations is more positive than those of others, the tourist will remove the negative perceptions and stick to the positive ones. Perceptions thus constitutes one of the factors that impacts travel behaviour to a great extent and one which tourism good owners have minimal control over. Decrop (2006) as well as Minghui (2006:46) show that perceptions are also controlled by factors like previous experiences,

destination knowledge, pictures of the destination together with personality, image and the brand of the destination. Perception is thus a function of motivation, learning and attitudes. The intangible nature of tourism products forces the consumers to make decisions based on how they perceive offerings (George, 2011).

2.3.3 Cultural factors

2.3.3.1 Culture

According to Kotler (2006:199) culture is the most basic determinant of a person's wants and behaviour. Culture unites a group and can be seen as the common attitudes, ethics and behaviour of a societal group known as its culture (Middleton, Fyall & Morgan 2009). Culture represents a diverse whole that includes knowledge and other abilities and routines learned by a member of the society (Neal, Quester & Hawkins 2002). All tourists find themselves residing in a specific cultural environment. Hence, the tourist is severely affected by local cultures and creates a series of behaviour and values according to their particular cultural background.

Culture proved itself to be indispensable to all sectors of tourism. According to Neal *et al.* (2002) physical aspects such as food, clothing and artwork can differentiate culture. One of the greatest imperative features is the basic values of culture. Values provide guidance of what is seen to be wrong and what is found to be right, which makes it clearer as to how culture will influence an individual's behaviour as a tourist and also as an effect on how people select and experience a product of tourism (Middleton *et al.* 2009). Pretorius, Kruger and Saayman (2010) highlighted the point that cultural backgrounds of South African tourists cannot be removed from the picture when travel behaviour is determined which are the same for international visitors. Diverse cultures approach the decision to travel in a different way. The lifestyles, beliefs, personality and rituals differ amongst diverse cultures and these influence preferred activities and motivation to travel (Pretorius *et al.*, 2010). It is thus vital to keep the differences in culture in mind when defining travel behaviour across age groups, nationalities and even gender.

2.3.3.2 Social class

Almost every society has some form of social class structure (Kotler 2006). Social class is really a special case of cultures. The division or separation of society due to status and prestige as well as job description, education, wealth and level of income forms these social classes (Decrop 2006; Kotler 2006; Page & Connell 2009). Consumers purchase tourism products and services to express their status (George 2011). Leiper (2004:64) states “an individual is shaped almost entirely by what other people intend doing, are doing or have done”.

On a general account individuals are rated on a number of characteristics that can be observed that showcase the values that their culture embraces that are more valuable (Neal et al., 2002). Influences on the choice of a destination and activities tourists involve themselves in can be brought about by traveling decisions for different social classes, for example if tourists have high income to spend while at a destination, they tend to spend more on more expensive /luxurious destinations and also spend more money on activities on the other hand tourists with less disposable income are more likely to be very much precise in their activities and travel to less expensive destinations (Page & Connell 2009). Thus social class is an important factor shaping consumer behaviour patterns and it can put certain constraints on an individual's buying behaviour (George 2011).

2.3.4 Social factors

2.3.4.1 Reference groups

Dimanche and Havits (2015:157) noted that persons highly influence one another and they are inherently social animals. *Reference groups* is a vital tool when analysing individual influence on a group. The above mentioned authors further stated that the concept *reference group* exist due the fact that a person uses a standard group or individual that he/she relates to compare himself/herself. The reference group serve as direct reference in the forming of a person's attitudes and behaviour (Kotler 2006).

Middleton *et al.* (2009) identified that members of community / organisation are the primary/ main group that holds great influence to an individual. This group of people tend to have stronger influence on the type of activities to partake and even the vacation destination to travel to. Willis (2001) identified secondary /supplementary reference group as those that have lower influence on an individual for instance a group of people that one only spend time with only on weekends.

These groups tend to have limited influence when it comes to destination and activities to be chosen. Consumers in the tourism industry are strongly influenced by word-of-mouth input from various reference groups – even more than what they are influenced by promotional and advertising activities (George 2011).

2.3.4.2 Family

Family members tend to have some authority in choices which a person or a tourist takes (Kotler 2006:204). Some family members' roles is to collect the information about the service/products. These family members are more likely to have more authority when it comes to decision making because they get to choose which information they want to share with the rest of the family members (Andreasen 1965). The family is thus the most influential reference group as one generally interacts closely with family members (George 2011). Individuals who makes decisions have the authority to choose where to visit, when to visit, which product / service to purchase and also whether to visit a specific destination or not.

In light of the above it is clear that there are various factors that can individually or collectively influence travel decisions. The importance of these factors was also evident and the notion that it requires updated research in order for destination to remain competitive. These factors will also contribute to visitors intentions to revisit a particular destination. The next section focuses on the travel decision-making process and how tourists make their travel plans.

2.4 TRAVEL DECISION MAKING PROCESS AS PART OF TOURIST BEHAVIOUR

The travel decision making process is a critical part of tourists behaviour and explains the way tourists make decisions and the factors influencing these decisions. Laws (2002:18) specified that “the travel decision-making process has been a subject of considerable research, but there is little consensus beyond broad elements which influences most tourists”. To date there are arguments in the assembling order of the choice elements in a vacation (how to travel, where to book the accommodation and travel destination) (Visser 2009:36).

Identifying and selecting substitutes, based on values and preferences of the decision-maker as a study is referred to as travel decision making. As specified earlier making a decision proposes that there are other choices that one can reflect on, which will lead to the best choices made. The selected choice will have advantage over any other. The elimination of uncertainty and doubt in

order to bring about a reliable choice is what decision-making is all about. It is important to understand that every decision made has its own certain amount of risk as it is almost impossible to have complete knowledge on all possible alternatives (Kotze 2005; Visser 2009).

Visser (2002), Kotze (2005) and Visser (2009) indicated that although tourists make modest choices about whether or not to go, more thorough research discloses that tourists (high-involvement decision-makers) go through an intricate decision-making process including aspects like financial plan, household lifespan, preferences, former experiences and so on. Various choices are compared against each other in order to find the best out of all available choices to satisfy the specific needs of the tourist (Saayman 2001; Van Vuuren & Slabbert 2011). Thus when a decision is made it simply means that there are alternatives to choose from, in such instances a person would want to identify as many of these as possible but the person would also want to make the best choice that fits their goals, wishes, lifestyle, values and etc. (Decrop 2006).

Most of the decisions made in tourism may be imprecise choice circumstances where the end results have unknown probabilities, due to intangible and experiential nature of tourism. Conceptualisation of what the decision maker does is what differentiates nominative and descriptive decision models (Abelson & Levi 1985). The major variance between nominative and descriptive models orbits on whether or not tourists seek for the best decisions or just tolerating satisfactory solutions for a variety of motives. It is of chief importance to understand the process of planning a trip when it comes to travel marketing and management. It is acknowledged that trip choices are seen as multi-layered and interrelated decisions that take time to develop (Um & Crompton, 1992, Woodside & MacDonald, 2014:33). Hence aspects of trip planning (destination, travel parties, accommodation, etc.) work together or interrelate like a network.

Studies investigating the trip-planning process are numerous and are from varied perspectives, for instance marketing and psychology. For instance, Hyde (2008) established a model consisting of three varied activities on pre-trip decision making namely information search, trip plans and vacation booking. Trip planning is orientated around specific locations as well as activities to be done after a destination is recognized as a function (Decrop & Snelders 2004).

There are various factors that influence the ability to make these travel decisions in tourism (Kotze 2005; Fourie 2006). For such a decision to be made the tourist must have the need to travel. The need for information about various destinations comes right after a decision to travel

is made. The tourist views various options prior to making their decision on where to travel to. When it comes to this process tourists use varied information sources that have an influence on their ultimate choice. As a tourist has to take a decision, this means other choices should be accessible to the tourist. Obtain a product or service from tourism in order to satisfy a specific need (Saayman 2001). Nearly every decision offers its own/ has its own risks and not many decisions are made with full certainty (Kotze 2005).

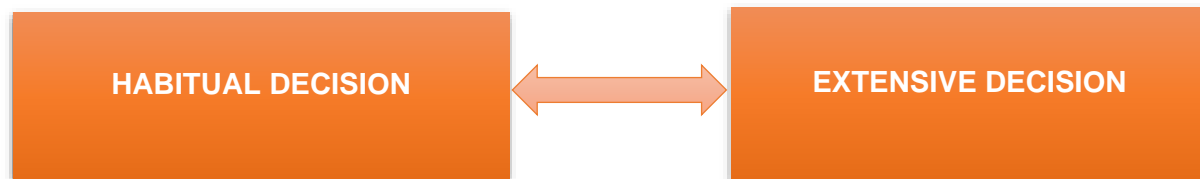
It is usual for tourists to have specific needs that are different from every other individual's needs. "The scope of tourism supply is however diverse and broad and provides a combination of tangible and intangible products" (Page, Brunt, Busby & Connell 2001) that can cater for these different needs. A tourist must be aware of choices with regards to various activities, accommodation options, transport options, infrastructure etcetera before traveling to a specific destination. However, travel decision making does not entail one decision but it contains more than one sub-decision of which some may be directed by a lengthy decision-making process while other sub-decisions are as a result of habit (Tay 1996; Woodside & MacDonald 1994; Dellart 1998). In the next section the different travel models and theories will be discussed.

2.4.1 Travel Decision-Making Continuum

Tourist's decision-making whether it concerns holiday or other issues, can be completed in various ways dependent on the amount of energy that goes into the decision (Salomon *et al.* 2009) (See Figure 2.4). On the one end of the continuum is the customary decision-making style, where every decision is made precise and with a poor expert inputs. When it comes to this type of decision-making most circumstances are reduces the total time and effort a person uses on a decision of what to purchase or to consume. It also minimizes risk as the tourists are aware of the satisfaction of their previous decision. Tourist perceive themselves as individual who have all the knowledge required to make a decision and also feel they need less additional information when making decision to travel (Mayo & Jarvis 2011). This is typical behaviour of a tourist that has visited the destination before and plans a revisit.

On the other end of the continuum there is more intense decision-making approach, wherein great amount of time and energy is dedicated to the decision making itself. This kind of approach is precisely comparable to the old-style decision-making perspective of tourist's experiences phases, namely: problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, product

choice and outcomes. Between these two ends of the continuum, it has been identified that decision making is composed of limited problem solving strategies. This is a more direct and modest means of making decisions and the tourists use different heuristics or mental rules of thumb to make a decision without a considerable cognitive effort (Bjork 2013).



High	Perceived knowledge about available alternative	Low
Low	Perceived need for information	High
Low	involvement	High
Low	Mental effort	High
Short	Length of time to each decision	Longer

Figure 2.4: Travel decision-making continuum

Sources: Solomon et al. (1999), Mayo and Jarvis (1981)

According to Decrop and Snelders (2005), “habitual decision-making can be connected to one particular vacation sub-decision which does not mean that other vacation decisions are made by habit”. For instance, a decision of going snow skiing (what to do) may be decided through using an extensive decision-making approach where an individual compare different choices and search for information before making the final decision. By deciding to go for ski thus might also lead to going to Alps (where to go) might be brought about since is the same routine like “when I go skiing, I always go to the Alps”. This proposes that travel decision-making cannot certainly be fixed to one place on the decision-making continuum.

It can be understood that the overall decision-making process of taking a holiday is a decision-making process that comprises of several decisions which all are results of separate “smaller” decision-making processes. Facing the decision-making tactic used by individuals in these separate sub-decisions could be different dependent on what kind of decision is being taken and might also impact on how the person respond to different activities in marketing. Previous research in the travel space has fixated a lot on the choice of destination, where travel decision behaviour is equivalent to the choice of where to go on holiday. Consequently, travel decision

behaviour has been thought to be a trade-off process amongst diverse destination qualities (Jeng & Fesenmaier 2002). As indicated previously, to go on vacation does not include a single decision, but entails of numerous sub-decisions that a person need to contemplate, places to visit, activities to part take in while on the vacation also how to get to the selected destination. Such difficult multi-faceted decisions where the selections of various components are interconnected and grow in a decision process over a period of time (Crompton 1992; Dellaert 1998; Jeng & Fesenmaier 2002).

Decisions concerning places to visit when taking a holiday include what destination to visit or whether one should decide to stay at home. Making a certain decision is based on various influences. It can for instance be based on the activities that one would like to engage in while at a destination, various settings that one wish to experience, or on emotional ties. Regarding when to take a holiday, is a decision that involves what time of the year an individual would prefer to take a break and go on vacation.

2.4.2 The stimulus response model of buyer behaviour

This process is based on the idea that consumers go through a sequence of stages as shown in Figure 2.5 below. This model consists of three main components – stimulus, processing and response. The buyer or tourist is at the centre of the model where he/she is exposed to stimuli from the external environment. This information might come from marketing communications of other sources of information such as the Internet, conversations with friends etc. According to Kotler (2006) other stimuli include major forces and event which can be economic, technological, political and culture. The latter influence the way the buyer or tourist process the information. This will result in a response and decision regarding the type of product or service to use, at what price and which time is relevant (Middleton, Fyall & Morgan 2009).

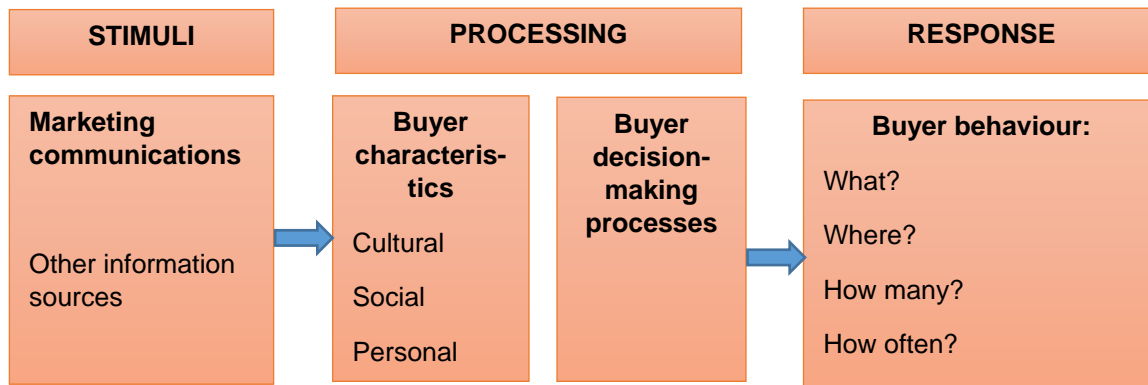


Figure 2.5: A stimulus response model for buyer behaviour

Source: Middleton, Fyall & Morgan (2009)

2.5 UNDERSTANDING THE IMPORTANCE OF TRAVEL MOTIVATION

Hall and Page (2002) affirm that one of the central and most important themes in tourism research is to get answers to the question why people take trips or travel. To date it is still one of the main focus areas in tourism studies. Page and Connell (2009) supported these motions by stating that tourists might have a choice of destinations they desire to visits, hence the individual's travel behaviour can be outlined based on separate decisions and motivations. Tourists however have an unlimited variety of choices from which they can choose but yet still these choices are subjected to a mixture of chances and restraints. Page and Connell (2009) noted that many studies shows that selections are highly influenced and restrained and by situational and personal conditions (as discussed in the previous section).

Beh and Bruyere (2006) as well as Hsu, Tsai and Wu (2009) noted that research of the motives as to why individuals take trips is vital when it comes to establishing active marketing approaches together with categorising of diverse tourist market segments. Fourie (2006) indicated that in the tourism industry be it the public or private sector, there is a huge need to acknowledge the tourists motivations so that the industry become skilled in delivering tourists needs and wants. Travel motivations goes hand in hand with the travel decision-making process, destination choice (Arentze, Borgers & Timmermans 1993) and more importantly the predictors of tourist's intentions to return to the destination (Swarbrooke & Horner 2001).

Hui *et al.* (2007) noted that the world-wide tourism has developed into progressively competitive industry and knowledge on travel motivations can contribute to higher levels of competitiveness (Yoon & Uysal 2005). Aspects such as the growth and survival of destinations, guaranteed long-standing profit, improvement in attractiveness have been identified by authors such as Jonker, Heath and Du Toit (2004) as well as Saayman (2006) resulting from the understanding travel motivations. In addition Beh and Bruyere (2007) indicated that considering traveller's needs and wants is vital when opportunities for tourism development are recognized.

Tourists travel motivations also plays a vital role in market segmentation and Slabbert (2002) further noted that travel motivations form part of tourism marketing strategies. It is thus also important to consider travel motivations for the role it plays in the planning of marketing strategies for main market target groups to effectively cater for the needs of the potential tourists. The main objective of understanding travel motivations is to appreciate the important aspects of the psychological and processes of tourism and the motivational theory that lead to meeting visitor needs and wants and better choices and preferences (Pearce 2005).

Pearce (2005) stated that numerous tourist travel behaviour variables have an impact on the destination choice which are then influenced by travel motivations which explains the concern of tourism destination managers and marketers for travel motivations (Saayman & Van der Merwe 2007). Tourism destinations might address a variety of motivations but might still not cater for all tourists needs and wants. Hence it is ultimately important to study and appreciate tourists travel motivations so as to sustain and improve the competitiveness of the destination.

According Hsu *et al.* (2009) travel motivations are an ever-changing notion and might differ from person to person and destination to destination. Thus travel motivations are ultimately an important tool for market segmentation for the destination and the tourism industry as a whole (Hsu *et al.* 2009; Kozak 2002; Yavuz, Baloglu & Uysal 1998). Added to this Goossens (2000) noted that motivations lead to clarification and description of the main reason of taking a trip which require an explanation of motivations vs motives. Motivations arises when an individual want to cater for or satisfy their needs whereas motives involves action. In this regard Saayman (2006) divided motives into two groups, explicitly specific and general motives. "A general motive can be the main objective and a specific motive can be the means of achieving the motive such as to spend time with his/her family. In family togetherness the individual main objective of relaxation is met".

Research on motivation involves intensely fixed psychological needs and wants. Mill and Morrison (1992) debated that in order to satisfy tourists needs and wants it is crucial to appreciate and understand tourist holiday travel motivations. Motivation theories indicate that individuals continuously strive for homeostasis or steadiness (Goossens 2000). OALD (2000a) defined a need as something that is a need is defined as something that is necessary or vital and not just because is needed at that moment. Heung and Leong (2006) argued that individual needs turn to wants when moulded by different individual personalities or culture. Wants are distinct as a great desire to partake in or wishing to do something (OALD 2000b) and wants turn to needs when individuals have buying power. Goossens (2000) stated that drive or motivation to satisfy a need is motivated by an objective. An individual must know and be aware of tourism services and products and must understand that buying the products or services will satisfy that need. After acknowledging that, that is when a tourist will be motivated to purchase the product or service. Heung and Leong (2006) further noted that the attitudes and behaviour of tourists of a holiday will be highly affected by their needs and wants. Swanson and Horridge (2006) approve by affirming that motivations are regarded as set of needs that influence an individual to partake in a tourist activity.

Beh and Bruyere (2006) point out that motivations is perceived as a fundamental driver that lead to arousal and unswerving behaviour or attitude of a tourist and also for a tourists to be aware of some benefits. Behaviour can be regarded as a process of internal mental influences (e.g. goals, wants and needs) which create pressure to some degree. Saayman (2006) agreed by adding that individuals are being aware or unaware, indirectly or directly influenced by a diversity of incentives. Complications frequently start when a need or absence of a specific amusement activity emerges. Being aware typically result in the recognition of a need and it is greatly influenced by social factors, previous holiday experiences and personal characteristics (as discussed earlier).

Based on the literature discussed above, it is clear that motivation is part and parcel of the overall travel behaviour of tourists. Tourists' motivations to take a holiday is a fundamental key in understanding travel behaviour. For better understanding of the theoretical base of travel motivations the theories of Plog (Psychocentric-Allocentric Models), Crompton (Seven socio-psychological motives), Sunlust and Wanderlust, Push and Pull factors, Maslow's needs hierarchy, The Travel Career Ladder and Travel Career are discussed. Crompton and McKay

(1997) shown that no particular theory of travel motivation could be probable to fully clarify tourist's behaviour.

2.5.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of needs

Abraham Maslow's theory is about anthropological needs and wants and is probably one of the most cited motivation frameworks. Even though initially it was associated with experimental mind-set, Maslow's theory has been more extensively useful and frequently quoted and applied by tourism scholars. Maslow indicated that human needs form part of a large group and are hierarchically arranged – beginning at lower order which is physiological needs and goes through to upper or higher order of self-actualising needs. This theory is centred on the principle that each group of needs have to be satisfied before pursuing the following stage or group of motivations as needs (Edgington, Hanson, Edgington & Hudson 1998; Page & Connell 2009). Figure 2.5 directs the pyramid of needs as recognized and created by Maslow.

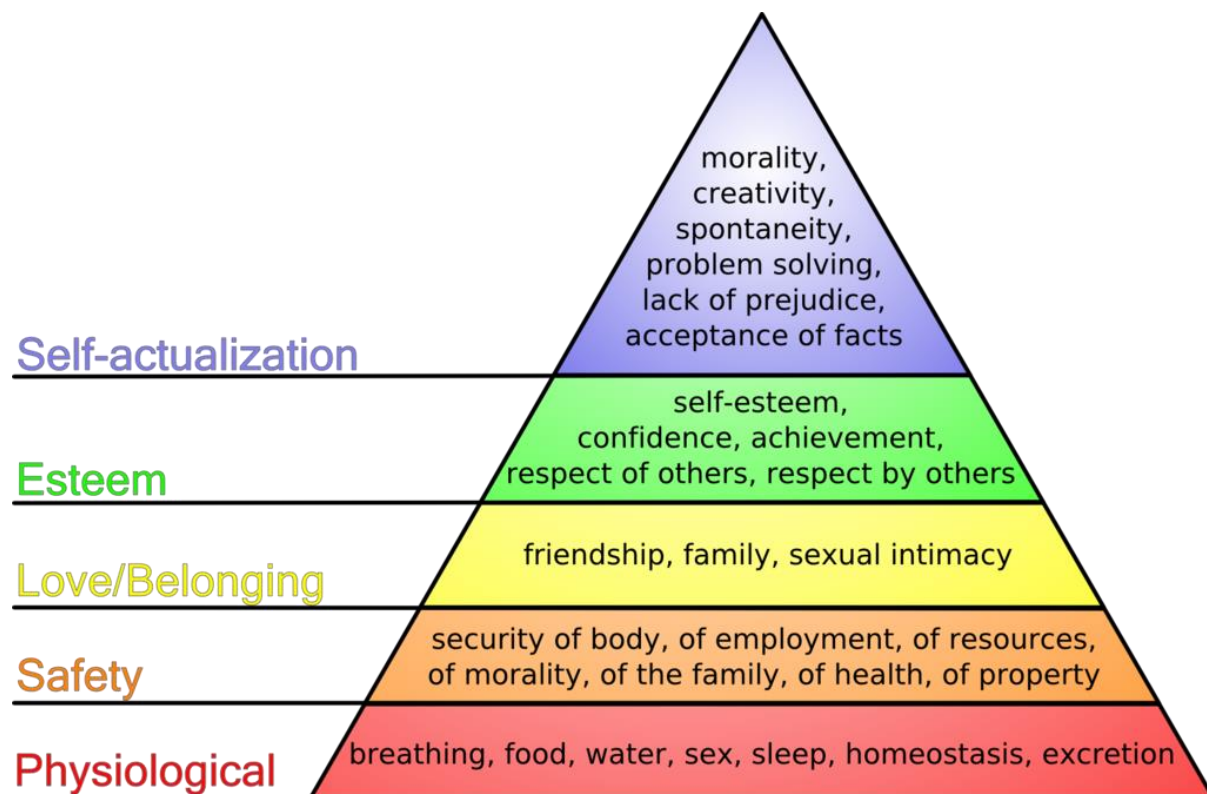


Figure 2.6: Maslow's Hierarchy of needs

Source: Maslow (1943)

In Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943) five sets of objectives are found namely: self-actualisation needs, esteem needs, love/belonging needs, safety/ security needs and physiological needs (Figure 2.6).

Stephens (2000) noted that Maslow proposed that individuals seek to have self-realization as a need to travel. These needs are normally considered to be the initiator which lead to motivation theory and are called physiological needs. An individual who does not have food, security, affection and esteem will consider food as more important since air, water and food are basic human needs (Holloway 1998). Authors such as Hjalager and Corigliano (2000) further added that eating is a physical human requirement but cuisine facilities and food imageries are important to tourism travel motivation. If the physiological needs are comparatively well satisfied they will create different needs, which may be classified roughly as the safety needs (Stephens 2000).

Lepp and Gibson (2003) assumed that tourists who have great experiences pursue while tourists with less experience are more probable to consider other needs on the hierarchy including safety and food. Lepp and Gibson (2003) established that a high number of tourists are more probable to consider safety as a vital need while individuals are more concern about the other three roles in the hierarchy. Once physical and security are equally satisfied, the need for love and fondness and belongingness arises (Stephens 2000).

The need for love and belonging of the individual signify a great multiplicity of needs such as need of association (work, church, clubs, group membership, clubs, etc.) There is a need to have friends and affection of partners, kids and parentages (Seeley 1988). According Holloway (1998) these needs are social needs e.g. love and relationship. Every individual have a need or want for a constant, firmly centred, self-introspection regarding self-confidence or self-worth and also respect for other individuals (Stephens 2000). The respect needs signify person's need for a sense of self-assurance/ confidence and competence. This might redirect feelings of strength, attainment, freedom, or external desire of status, prestige, acknowledgement, attention, etc. (Seeley 1988).

Even though these needs are satisfied or met, individuals might still anticipate that new displeasure and anxiety will soon develop unless the individual has an inward vacation. This need could be known as self-actualization (Stephens 2000). Self-actualization is all about the individuals desire to understand one's full potential (Seeley 1988). It must be understood not to limited or single determinants of certain kinds of behaviour. Not all behaviour is a result of basic needs (Stephens 2000).

Holloway and Plant (1988) concluded their findings based on Maslow's hierarchy theory of tourists travel and tourism needs. Motivation for travel and tourism can be characterized as follows: sports and activities travel, education purposes, economic benefits, religious travel, visiting friends & family, health purposes, business purposes holiday travel. Holloway and Plant (1988) classify all those activities based five basic needs: status and prestige, interpersonal, commercial, physical, as well as cultural. Holloway and Plant (1988) further explain how these needs relate to the levels or stages in Maslow's hierarchy. Relaxation, rest, adventure and health are aspects of physical needs, while aspects of culture include religion and commercial, arts, scientific/technical, political, education and historical/archaeological. Tourists do not pursue to satisfy one particular need but a variety of separate needs simultaneously.

Constructed from Maslow's theory, Pearce established a travel motivation model in 1988, called the travel career ladder. A tourist would ascend the ladder over a period of time. Motivation at each different stage might be internally (self-directed) or externally (other directed) (Heung & Leong 2006) motivated.

2.5.2 The Travel Career Ladder (TLC) and Travel Career Patterns (TCP)

Pearce's (1991) Leisure Ladder is comparable to the work of Maslow (Cook, Yale & Marqua 2010) who identified the similarities between the Travel Career Ladder by Pearce (1991) and the hierarchy motivations by Maslow (1943). It was clear that the career ladder provides more depth information on specific tourist's behaviour. Page and Connell (2009), indicated that Pearce proposes tourist's behaviour being based on a tourist or individual exhibit of a career. Individuals begin at a different level of the career ladder and are more likely to shift levels as they proceed to different lifespan phases which can be controlled by other individuals, money or health. It is also shown by the model that an individual might change from their usual travel career /behaviour or the individuals do not take trips completely. These individuals are regarded as not being part of the system (Pearce 1991). The Travel Career Ladder is based on the hierarchy theory of Maslow's which consist of five different levels of motivations and his model also proposes that tourist motivations are dynamic and tourists shift up the ladder.

TCL model challenges to clarify person's behaviours centred to the stages in a tourist life-cycle of which this cycle is very comparable to the stages of the working career. Similar to an employee starting a career ultimately becomes more skilled, this also applies to a tourist becoming more skilled in his/her holiday ventures. The tourists should start by ensuring that they relax and take

care of the body and soul(need), there after they go through other phases including self-actualisation, relationships, stimulation, prestige and fulfilment (Cook *et al.* 2010).

The Travel Career Ladder (TCL) was modified by Pearce (2005) to Travel Career Patterns. In the above Figure 2.7, the TCP clarified the layers of travel motivations:

- Travelling to relax, running away from everyday routine, seeking novelty and longing to improve relations are vital core motivations.
- Self-realization, that differ from internal oriented to external based motivations are reasonably also important as they surround or support the core motivation.
- The external focused encompasses of generally cited and fewer constant motives which are not that vital, for instance, reminiscence/homesick and the quest of solitude/separation form part of these groupings.

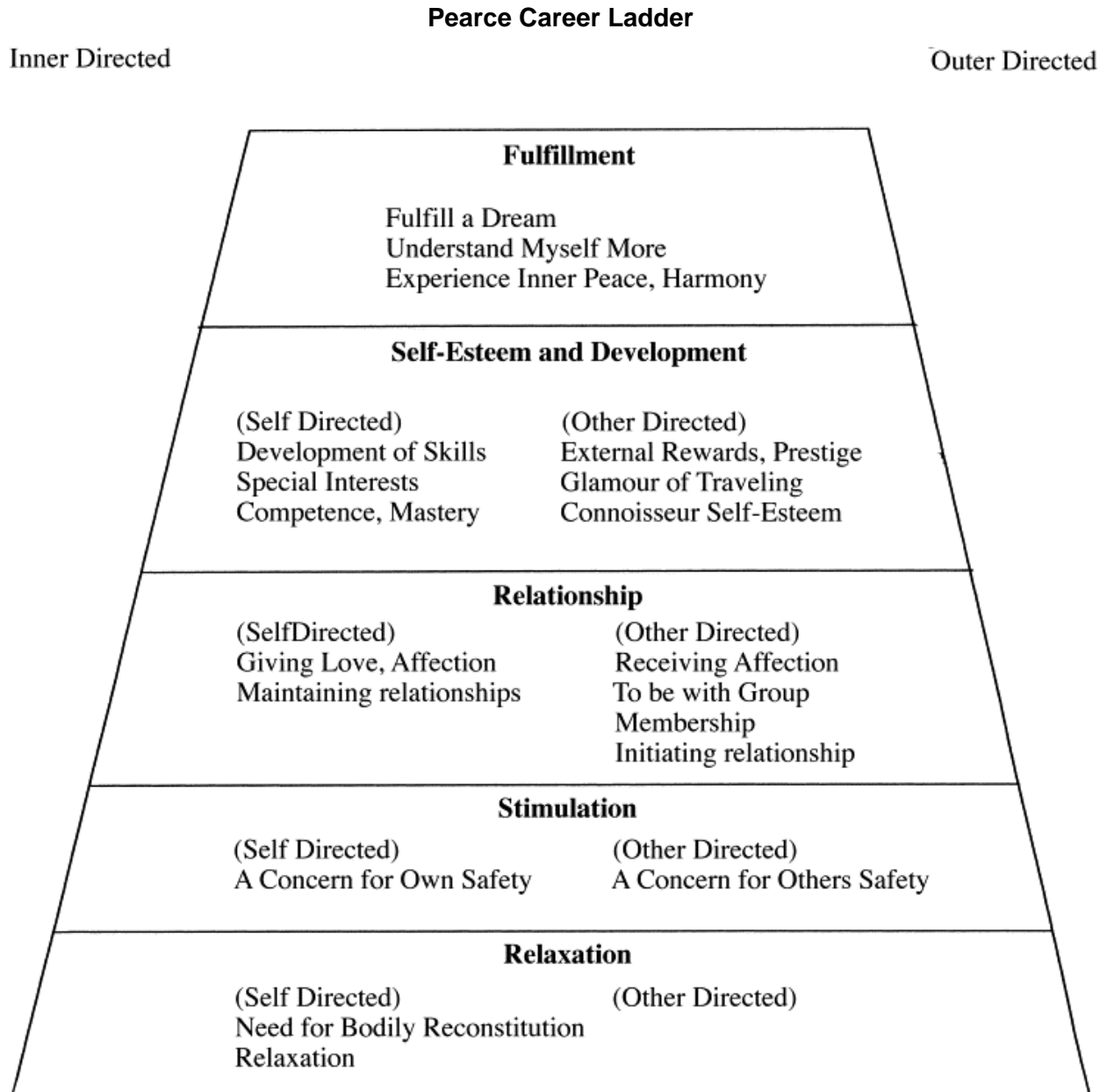


Figure 2.7: Pearce travel career ladder

Source: Pearce (1991)

2.5.3 Pull and push factors

Dann (1977) developed the theory of push and pull factors as another way of alternative way of reflecting to this process. Pull and push factors stems from similar motivations, which lead to tourists' behaviour. These two factors are linked by theory of emotions, which are the psychological aspects. Tourists are pushed by their (emotions) to have a need and these

emotions still play as catalyst in pulling the tourists to tourism destinations, thus experiential and psychological needs are related to leisure needs and also tourists (Goossen 2000). From this viewpoint, it is sensible to consider tourist behaviour, for instance, tourists base their considerations to leisure experiences and enjoyable feelings. Tourists are most definitely motivated to plan or organize a trip based on feelings and emotions. Tourists are pushed internally by needs including relationships, adventure and thrill, mental and physical health and escaping every-day boredom.

According Goossens (2000) as well as Dann (1977) pull and push factors are socio-psychological factors that pull and push individuals' emotions. The author further noted that a tourist is pulled by the benefits of their emotions and pushed by their emotional needs. These push factors include seeking novelty, relationships, respect, escaping everyday life and to relax. Crompton (1979) explains push motives as the desire to travel while pull factors are achieved by the services and attractions at a destination and also awareness/ marketing of the destination.

Gnoth (1997) and Lee (2009) added by stating that "these factors can be described as internally generated drives, causing the tourist to search for signs in objective situations and events that contain the promise of reducing prevalent drives". Kim (2006), distinct pull and push factors as the desire /longing to travel. While Klenosky (2002) regards push factors as being related with whether to travel or not Klenosky (2002:387) added by defining push factors as "being associated with whether to go, while pull factors are related to where to go"..

Uysal and Jurowski (1994) and Lee (2009) defined pull factors as manifestation of destination attractiveness as perceived by those with ability to travel. These pull factors include tangible aspects such as recreational facilities, beaches and culture while it also include intangible aspects such as tourists expectations and perceptions. Kim (2006) regard pull factors as the optimal selection of a destination. Tourists are pulled externally by aspects including artificial or natural amenities found at a tourism destination Kim (2006).

Tourist's decision to travel is taken subconsciously or consciously in two sequence stages, meaning that these two set of forces (pull and push) are highly dependent on one another (Kim 2007:75). Chon (1989:4) proposes that immediately when an individual has a motive to travel a primary image about the destination is already created. And this image is based on pull and push factors of the destination (See Table 2.3). Chon (1989:5) further added that these images of a

destination develop in the minds of the tourists only if they want to travel to that particular destination.

Table 2.3: Push and pull attributes of tourism motivation

PUSH TO TRAVEL NEEDS	PULL TO TRAVEL ATTRACTIVENESS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Love and belonging • Physiological • Safety and security • Esteem • Self-realization • Acquiring knowledge • Aesthetic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Static- landscapes, climate and culture • Dynamic-food, access accommodation • Current decision- price, promotion.

Source: Adapted from Chon (1989:4)

2.5.4 Socio-psychological motives according to Crompton's

The study conducted by Crompton in 1979 was found to be very vital in the tourism industry as the study identified the pull and push factors which form a big part of travel motivations (Kim 2007:75). Making use of unstructured in-depth interviews, Crompton study identified 9 consequential motives which are recognised as either cultural motives or socio-psychological motives.

The socio-psychological motives included:

- Regression
- Prestige
- Solidification of family ties
- Facilitation of social interaction
- Escape from an everyday life
- Relaxation /recreation and
- Discovery and evaluation of an individual

The cultural motives included:

- Education
- Novelty

Saayman (2006) and Iso-Ahola (1980) distinct the motivates for optimal arousal into either tactic (in search of) and escaping and noticed that when a tourist realises a need, their behaviour could be motivated by exiting the usual day to day situation for the longing to acquire psychological or inborn benefits.

Crompton and McKay (1997) stated that pursuing and evading services are further separated by Iso-Ahola into interpersonal and personal. Holidaymakers tend to be influenced or motivated avoidance reality (e.g. family responsibilities) and pursuing individual benefits (statues) or to evade their relational world (e.g. families) pursuing solitary rewards such as communal contact with important people (Saayman 2006).

Bhatia (2007) noted that the main reason behind engaging in tourism is to be somewhere else and to escape for a limited time span, from the unchanging daily activities and stress and strains of daily life. There are two major and separate motivations which might be regarded to as central.

2.5.5 Sunlust and Wanderlust

Gray's openly accepted theory (1980) is also studied. Gray differentiates between two main motives behind travel, viz. Sunlust and Wanderlust. These binary motives may be related to Maslow's pyramid of needs theory (Steyn 2002).

Bhatia (2007) expresses the latter as the elementary characteristics in anthropology which results a few individuals having the want to escape their daily lives and visit exotic and unusual locations and cultures. Wanderlust is comparable to self-actualisation in the Maslow's pyramid of needs that embraces the desires for aesthetics, for information and to please one's drive. Wanderlust includes visits to various destinations to partake in new and unusual activities. This forms of vacation has different destinations and the nature of the vacation is extra informative and less soothing. It is usual for intercontinental trips where persons travel to distant destinations to explore diverse arts and culture, fashion and local communities (Steyn 2002).

With regards to sunlust, it is viewed as an influencer, and it relies on the survival of varied or improved amenities with an explicit reason beside the ones available locally (Bhatia 2007). Tourists with social-relationships and dignity are likely to choose a sunlust vacation. These types are characterised by a single destination, not much traveling is involved and it is expected for people to rest and relax. A high number of tourists are travelling being motivated by, sea and sun and sand vacations are a form of Sunlust motivations.

2.5.6 Plog's model of allocentricity and psychocentricity

A psychocentricity and allocentricity model has been developed by Stanley Plog. This model has been used greatly in the tourism industry studies and even used in the hospitality sector as well (Holden 2005; Litvin 2006; Cook *et al.* 2010:39). Collectively, the model is not for predicting places where individuals would like to visit, but it outlines the types of places they would like to visit. Plog (2002) shows that by understanding tourism behaviour patterns, possibilities exist to use individual characteristics by categorizing tourists. Allocentric present the one end and psychocentric the other end. Allocentric tourists are looking for adventure when traveling and psychometrics are pursuing the comfort of acquainted environments in their tourism encounters (Cook *et al.* 2010:37).

2.5.7 Iso-Ahola's social psychological of tourism motivation

Iso-Ahola (1982) developed a theory for pursue/avoidance based on a psychological perspective. A motivation is an inner influence that distresses an individual's behaviour (Murray, 1964 as cited in Iso-Ahola, 1982). The core factors can be related to potential execution. Hence, individuals partake in leisure activities to develop a sense of fulfilment by seeking or escape. The knowledge of possible fulfilment of taking trips leads persons to create desires or motives to take trips (for instance pursue or escape). Therefore, Iso-Ahola suggested people involve themselves with thoughts about intrinsic rewards. There are two categories for grouping intrinsic rewards which are: seeking, here a person may find a feeling of mastery or competence: and escaping, here a person tries to escape their everyday life or their unchanging activities (Iso-Ahola, 1982). Iso-Ahola contended both pursue and avoidance features are apparent: and under certain circumstances, one may be tougher than the other. The two categories of forces that motivates are also affected by individual and solitary factors.

Iso-Ahola stated ‘it was pointless to try and distinct motives and rewards due to reasons (for instance seeking novelty) also e.g. escaping from routine can be reasons for tourism behaviour” (Kara Lea Wolfe, 2002:12). See Table 2.4.

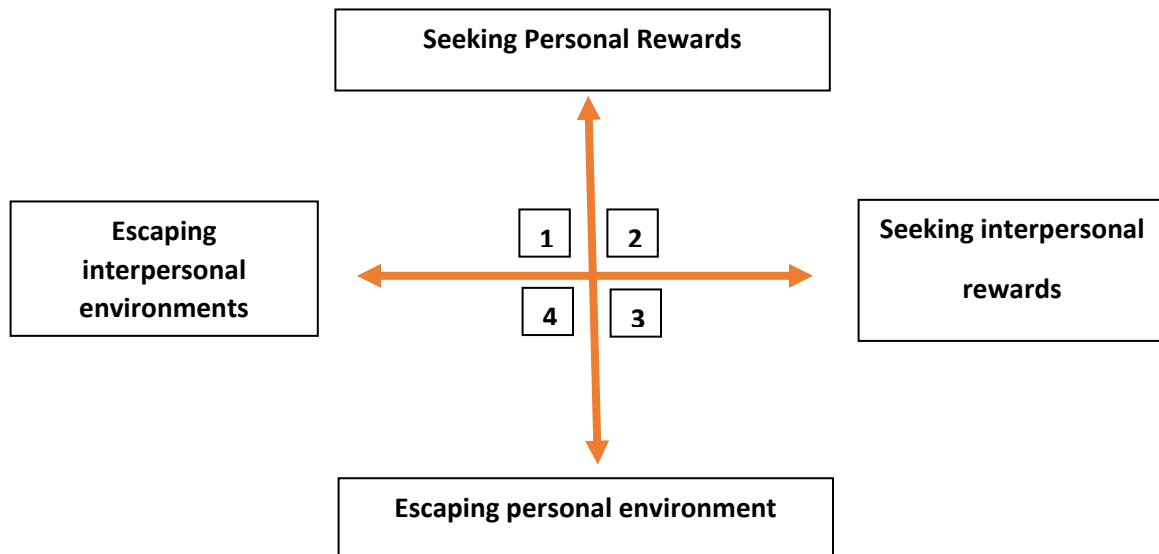


Table 2.4 Social psychological model of tourism motivation

Source: Iso-Ahola (1982)

Quadrant 1: Need to escape interpersonal environment

Quadrant 2: Desire to seek personal rewards

Quadrant 3: Need to escape personal environment

Quadrant 4: Desire to get away from the everyday environment.

Iso-Ahola (1984) later proposed a variation of the tourism motivation dimensions. Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1986) stated the leisure dimensions demonstrated how tourists could escape their routine, by leaving personal and interpersonal troubles behind and seeking intrinsic rewards, such as mastery-competence (e.g. challenge, learning, exploring), can be achieved through social interaction (Kara Lea Wolfe 2002:33).

It is clear that from the literature that travel motivations are important information that can direct current and future behaviour and the value thereof should not be underestimated. Travel motivation will also play a role in intention to revisit a destination.

2.6 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to conduct an in-depth literature review on travel behaviour and decision-making and the relevance thereof to this study. The elements visible in tourism behaviour such as the travel decision-making process, the aspects influencing travel behaviour and the various motivation theories will directly contribute to revisit intentions. Travel behaviour entails a number of decisions related to activities, ideas or experiences that satisfy a certain set of needs. A tourist goes through a process to decide where to travel to and in this process there are various internal (motivation, perceptions, learning, beliefs, attitudes etcetera) and external driving forces (pull factors, attractiveness etcetera) facilitating the final decision. To get tourists to visit South Africa is not the challenge but to get them to revisit is a challenge. It is clear from this chapter that one needs to understand all the facilitating factors to optimise the intention to return and that continuous research is needed to understand the tourist in how they make decisions.

Chapter 3 deals with elements and variables relevant to intention to return.

CHAPTER 3

ANALYSING INTENTION TO RETURN TO A TOURISM DESTINATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry in many countries have a great effect on the economic growth of tourism destinations at large, leaving countries competing amongst one another (Song, Dwyer, Li & Cao 2012; Tugcu 2014; Webster & Ivanov 2014). In the case of South Africa, travel and tourism industry directly contributed seven percent (7%) to the gross domestic product (GDP), prominent to national economic performance of seventeen point three percent (17.3%), creating 340,500 jobs (9.4% of total employment) and generating 12.2 billion rand of imperceptible exports (9.4% of total exports) in 2014 (South African Tourism 2015). It is therefore safe to say that travel and tourism industry have significant role in the economy of South Africa and it is of most importance to ensure continuous growth thereof.

According to Kozak and Rimmington (1999), it is ideal that repeat visitations become a natural phenomenon for successful vacation/holiday destinations. Securing repeat visitation is a vital measure since it is generally approved that repeat visitors behave differently at a destination related to first-time visitors (Alcare & Cledera 2010) and it cost less to attract these tourists if the previous experience was positive. Zhang, Fu, Cai and Lu (2014) stated that repeat visitors is a desirable market segment for tourism destinations since it is cost effective and Lau and McKercher (2004) indicated that such a segment stabilizes the market. In the academic environment and the tourism industry revisit intentions have therefore been viewed as an important research topic. Thus it is relevant to observe tourists revisit intentions to a destination due to the fact that intentions often change over a period time (Smith 2011) and that it is influenced by a number of factors.

Repeat visitation play an important role in increasing revenue for tourism destinations. This also apply to South Africa where a significant part of the market is still first-time visitors (SAT 2014;

2015). This situation has many benefits but it is also important to encourage these visitors to visit again. An in-depth study on the predictors of intention of repeat visit may provide the ground to improve the tourist numbers to a destination (Chen & Gursoy 2010) such as South Africa. It is the purpose of this chapter to analyse literature concerning tourist's intentions to return to tourism destinations (see Figure 3.1).

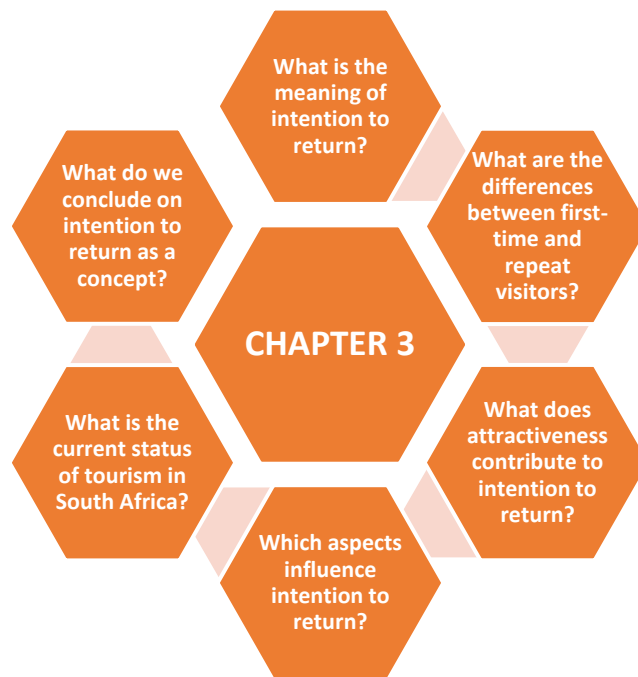


Figure 3.1: The layout of chapter 3

3.2 UNDERSTANDING THE MEANING OF INTENTION TO RETURN TO A TOURISM DESTINATION

Han and Kim (2010) defined revisit intentions to a tourism destination as person's promptness or readiness to revisit the destination, verifying the precise forecast of a choice to visit a tourism destination for instance taking a holiday package to the destination that one visited previous year. While Cole and Scott (2004) regarded intentions to visit a similar tourism destination as the aspiration to visit a destination for the second time the timeframe should be considered. On the other hand Um, Chon and Ro (2006) debated that "revisit intentions has been regarded as an extension of satisfaction rather than an initiator of the revisit decision-making process". Morais

and Lin (2010) stated that repeat visitors (Repeaters) are seen as those that have visited a destination two or more times.

Due to intense competition in the tourism industry, many countries sustain records of arrival number of tourists on an annual basis, also of their domestic arrivals and departures, making use custom controls at harbours and airports. The growth of the tourism industry and forecasting of future demand analysis are done using these statistical data. It is also possible to gather information on the sum of repeat visitors to a destination which can assist in profiling these visitors.

Findings concerning the behaviour and characteristics of first-time and repeat visitors differ. A study conducted by Phelps and Gyte (1989) in Spain stated that the percentage of first-time and repeat visitors was fifty-five percent (55%) and forty five (45%) respectively. While Kozak also conducted studies (2000, 2001, 2002) of which it was discovered that about seventy one percent (71%) of the tourists have visited Mallorca in Spain at least once meaning that they were not first-time visitors. Kruger, Saayman and Ellis (2010) also reported that seventy-seven percent (77%) of the visitors to the Klein Karoo National Art Festival in South Africa were actually repeat visitors whilst, Mat Som, Marzuki, Yousefi and AbuKhalufeh (2012) revealed that forty-two point nine percent (42.9%) of their participants had visited Sabah. However in the case of South Africa fifty-three point four percent (53.4%) of the visitors from Europe, forty-three percent (43%) of the visitors from Asia and Australasia, sixty-one (61%) of the visitors from the Americas and twenty-five percent (25%) of the visitors from Africa were first-time visitors (South African Tourism 2015); thus the repeater rate is not high.

Intention to revisit to a destination is influenced by past behaviour, perceived value and level of satisfaction (Patrick *et al.* 2001). Kozak (2000; 2001) resolved that many tourists/visitors have a tendency to revisit a specific destination when they feel that they were satisfied with the destination attributes during their initial time visit. Still other visitors/tourists even when they are satisfied they opt not to revisit the same destination; the reason being that they want to explore new places when they take another trip/holiday (Gitelson & Crompton 2014). However dissatisfied tourists/visitors may opt to return to the same destination and ultimately convert to repeat visitors and their satisfaction levels may end up being improved.

Many scholars have intensively gave attention to factors that constitute revisit intention (Alegre & Garau 2011; Baloglu 2000; Chen & Tsai 2007); the reason being that it is much cheaper and

easier to retain repeat tourists/ visitors than to market for possible first-visitors. In a comparable manner, there are indications that tourists have a need for variety and alternatives while at a destination. Equally, tourists who pursue novelty tend to revisit a destination (Assaker & Hallak 2013). It is clear from the above that repeat visitors form an important part of the market, and knowledge regarding these visitors is needed.

3.3 UNDERSTANDING THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FIRST-TIME AND REPEAT VISITORS TO TOURISM DESTINATIONS

Formica and Uysal (2008) information relating to tourists' status as repeat or first-time visitors can be helpful in market segmentation. Understanding their differences might assist in the development of marketing and management strategies (Lau & McKercher 2004; Petrick 2004). Tourism scholars report differences between repeat and first-time visitors in terms of their travel motivations, destination perception, perceived value, demographics and tripographics.

First-time visitors are often motivated by novelty while repeat tourists might want to enjoy the familiarity of the destinations and the stability thereof (Li, Cheng, Kim & Petrick 2007). It might also be that repeat tourists travel to the same destination for novelty purposes as they have not visited selected attractions on previous visits. Research on repeat and first-time visitors was conducted by Gitelson and Crompton in (2014), suggesting that repeat and first-time visitors have different motivations on visiting a destination, resulting in a differently projected set of activities between these two groups. Kruger *et al.* (2010) as well as Mat Som *et al.* (2012) confirmed, based on the outcomes of subsequent tourism research on repeat and first-time visitation, that repeat visitors are more likely to choose the same destination for their future holiday than will first-time visitors. The most significant differences between repeat and first-time visitors comprise aspects such as travel motivations, destination perceptions, image, satisfaction, behaviour characteristics and well as socio-demographic characteristics (length of stay, nationality, age, spending patterns) (Lau & McKercher 2004).

McKercher and Wong (2014) identified huge differences when analysing socio-demographic factors between repeat and first-time visitors and their study was based on nationality, spending patterns, length of stay and age. Gitelson and Crompton (2014) discovered that first-time visitors are probably single, visiting friends or relatives and are younger. Furthermore, the first-timers are more likely to be pursuing new cultural experiences and variety, while repeat visitors are more

likely to be older and pursue relaxation options. Opperman (1996) noted that first-time visitors prefer to visit more places and attractions in the visited destination area while repeat visitors are much more focused on fewer locations while at the visited destination. Overall, first-time visitors appear to be much more energetic during their visit, discovering more places and sites. Repeat visitors are not actively involved in the planning of the holiday as are first-timers who are active planners which indicates that they are more involved in the travel decisions. In 1997 Opperman conducted a research on international first-time and repeat visitors to New Zealand. He noted that the two groups revealed different patterns in terms of purchasing behaviour and length of stay: first-time visitors stayed for short periods and spent more than repeat visitors. Differing discoveries concerning length of stay were stated by Li, Cheng and Petrick (2008) who concluded that repeat visitors are more likely to take weekend trips, visiting friends and family whilst first-timers are most likely to travel longer distances and stay for longer periods.

Table 3.1: Comparison of first-time and repeat visitor characteristics

CHARACTERISTICS OF FIRST-TIME VISITORS	CHARACTERISTICS OF REPEAT VISITORS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Younger (Gitelson & Crompton 1984) • Single (Gitelson & Crompton 1984) • Not visiting friends or relatives (Gitelson & Crompton 1984) • Seek variety, new cultural experiences (Gitelson & Crompton 1984) • Pursue to visit more attractions and location within the destination area (Opperman 1996) • More active planners during the visit, discovering more sites and places (Li et al. 2008) • Stay for shorter periods (Opperman 1996) Stay for longer periods (Li et al. 2008) • Spent more (Alegre & Juaneda 2006; Opperman 1996; Li et al. 2008; Petrick 2004). • Travel greater distances (Li et al. 2008) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seek relaxation (Gitelson & Crompton 1984) • Older (Gitelson & Crompton 1984) • More concentrated in numbers in fewer locations (Opperman 1996) • Take weekend trips (Li et al. 2008) • Visiting friends and relatives (Li et al. 2008) • More likely to spend more (Opperman 2000; Wang 2004) • More positive in post-trip evaluations (Li et al. 2008)

To date, the results of studies relating to sum total money consumed by the two groups of travellers are indecisive, even though a limited number of academics have proposed that revisit visitors are more likely to spend more than first-timers (Oppermann 2000; Wang 2004). To clarify

this behaviour, the researchers relate it to the overall value for money spent and satisfaction received from the trip (Kozak & Rimmington 2010; Baker & Crompton 2010). Repeaters tend to spend more but regardless of that they look for cheaper if not lower prices and are more sensitive in this regard compared to the first-timers (Li *et al.* 2008; Petrick 2004). Some researchers have shown that first-time visitors actually spend significantly more than repeaters (Alegre & Juaneda 2006).

Results on the characteristics of repeat visitors and first-time visitors are thus inconclusive but it is clear that there are differences and that it should be continuously investigated. In the next section destination attractiveness is discussed as an important element of visitors' intentions to return to a specific tourism destination.

3.4 THE CONTRIBUTION OF DESTINATION ATTRACTIVENESS TO INTENTION TO RETURN

Destination attractiveness discloses visitors'/tourists state of mind and attitudes about the destination's perceived competency to satisfy their needs and wants. Tourists are more likely to choose a destination that is capable of meeting their needs and wants; they regard a destination as attractive when it is able of satisfying their needs. Mayo and Jarvis (2008) understand attractiveness to be the perceived ability of the destination to provide for visitors' needs and wants. This is achieved through the destination attributes, i.e. those aspects that form part of a destination and openly affect the decisions and perception of potential tourists (demand side). These attributes are of importance because they assist individuals when evaluating the destination attractiveness and these facilitate the decision-making process. Individuals are motivated to revisit or visit, even spend less or more days if a tourist destination is attractive. Thus the attractiveness of a destination has a pulling effect on individuals (linked to the push and pull motivation theory). Attractiveness plays a vital role in the tourism industry, without it tourism does not exist and there would be little or no need for tourist services and facilities. If people are attracted to a destination they can decide whether or not to visit it (Ferrario 2009).

Backman, Uysal and Backman (2011) explain that tourism policymakers, practitioners and researchers have given much attention to the theories of destination attractiveness and dimensions. Some of these theories focused on the inventory of existing destination attractions and resources while other theories focused on destination attractiveness as a whole. Researchers

such as Ritchie and Zins (2008) stated the importance of the perceptions tourists have of destination attractions and resources. Formica and Uysal (2006) also noted the importance of both destination attractiveness and attributes.

The complex nature of a destination makes it very difficult to adjust the tourism attractions and resources with preferences and motivations of tourists (Piperoglou, as cited in Formica & Uysal 2006). Two major categories of destination attributes were identified by Laws (2015). The primary category consists of inborn characteristics such as historical architecture, culture, natural resources, ecology and climate. The secondary category comprises characteristics such as entertainment, activities, transport and hotels. The primary and secondary attributes are important because they make tourists to enjoy the destination and also assist in strengthening the destination attractiveness. Van Raaij's (2016:10) observation of tourist destinations is all about a set of attributes available to tourists that are partly man-made and partly natural resources. There are a number of natural features which tourism destinations can utilise in selling their attractiveness such as mountains, beaches, scenery and the climate. With regard to man-made, it consists of features such as facilities for sports and recreation, packaged tours, transportation facilities and hotels, which can be altered to consumer preferences, subject to budget limitations. This is comparable to the view of Laws (2015).

Destination attractiveness has a strong influence on determining an individual's decision to visit a destination but also their anticipations of satisfaction and intentions to revisit (Henkel, Agrusa, Agrusa & Tanner 2006). Due to the fact that travellers are fascinated to visit a destination due to its attributes, it is assumed that the destination with many attractive attributes will have a greater chance of being revisited and chosen. Nevertheless, there are numerous attributes related to precise types of tourist destinations and some attributes may not be attractive to some tourists and others might be attractive. This increases a necessity to classify which attributes lead tourists to select one destination over another or to take part in one form of tourism activity over another. More than that, the question can be posed as to which attributes lead to revisits.

It is, however, argued that destination attractiveness and revisit intentions differ according to whether a tourist is a first-timer or repeat visitor (Kaplanidou 2007). There are components that form part of destination attractiveness and influence decisions such as natural scenery, hospitality, special events, pleasant weather and climate, accessibility, price, culture and entertainment to be discussed below (see Figure 3.2).



Figure 3.2: Attractiveness of tourism destination

Source: Adapted from Kaplanidou (2007)

3.4.1 Natural resources

Formica (2000) defined tourism as a landscape industry and also considered it as completely incorporated with the destination's environment. Leisure tourists particularly are the ones who are more likely to enjoy natural view and scenery while at the destination. On the other hand, Buckley (2014:14) defined natural scenery as the natural resources found at the destination with an environmental structure which the visitors highly enjoy while at the destination. These include aspects such as scenery, fauna and flora, other physical assets and climate. Natural scenery as a foundation of competitive advantage has been highly emphasised by Porter and Ahola (2011:25), considering that a destination's natural or endowed resources are vital for the tourism industry and also for visitors' choice of natural resources.

Appealing landscapes and natural scenery have continuously been regarded as main attributes that influence attractiveness of a destination in the tourism industry (Formica 2000). It has been discovered that landscape is the most important destination attribute, even more vital than price. These were the findings of Lohmann and Kaim (2009) in their study on German citizens evaluating

the importance of some attributes found at the destinations. Comparable findings by Hu and Ritchie (2003) were found in their study when evaluating the vital role of destination attributes. Their findings resulted in climate and natural beauty as important in defining the attractiveness of a tourism destination. Therefore natural scenery could be considered an important attribute for a destination to attract large numbers of tourists.

In a tourism framework natural resources have a considerable ability to attract visitors, irrespective of any 'value added' by human suppliers. South Africa is a country on the southernmost tip of the African continent, consists of numerous different ecosystems and thus offers various experiences in natural settings. Some of the well-known attractions include the Kruger National Park, 3 000km of coastline, various private and public parks to name only a few (South African Tourism 2015). What is significant about natural scenery is that it is "alive"; thus the experience is always different – this is a great motivation for repeat visitation to South Africa.

3.4.2 Cultural Assets

Smith (2013) argued that for the past years cultural tourism is growing rapidly and has become the main motivator for individuals to travel. Shenkar (2011) clarified this growth of cultural tourism in two ways. Firstly, increasing levels of education is encouraging the demand for cultural tourism to be specific. Secondly, the increasing effect of disposable income has improved tourism in general and in turn increased cultural tourism as a whole. In essence, tourists are pursuing cultural aspects in the destinations.

According to Miller (2007:7) cultural tourism has grown into the mass market in the tourism industry. McKercher (2012:30) noted that seventy percent (70%) of Europe visitors are Americans who are interested in partaking in a cultural heritage experience (visits to archaeological sites, historical monuments, museums etc.) and some of the tourists visit UK pursuing cultural heritage tourism experiences as well. The choices tourists make are highly influenced by the type of products that a cultural tourism destination offers.

Since high numbers of tourists are increasingly showing interest in cultural tourism, destination planners, marketers and managers are competing with one another in developing outstanding cultural tourism destinations that will attract tourists and influence them to choose their destination over the other (Richards, 2004). Nowadays destinations with higher numbers of visitors are boosted by culture since it is one of the major attractive attributes for tourists. This is also the case

in South Africa, as tourists are curious about the people, their way of life and their culture. This is one of the main reasons for travelling to South Africa (South African Tourism 2017).

3.2.3 Hospitality

The tourism industry is composed of components such as health/medical tourism, sex tourism, sports tourism, cultural tourism, ethnic tourism, ecotourism and others. Various forms of tourism result in change of experiences (Long 2014). One of the central functions of the tourism industry is to offer food, community friendliness, welcoming the guest etc. and these are all focused on the hospitality component. Previous studies have revealed that visitors spend almost forty percent (40%) of their budget on food, tipping the community members for the services and also just pledging to the community members while at the destination (Boyne, Williams & Hall 2012).

Graziani (2013) points out that in 2004 hospitality, food services and restaurant market research and books indicated that fifty percent (50%) of revenue made from tourism was generated from hospitality. These reveal the symbiotic relationship between tourism and hospitality. Hjalager and Richard (2002) emphasize that hospitality has been highly recognized as a key to positioning and promoting a tourism destination also with regard to an increase in interest of aspects such as local cuisine as the main attraction of tourists to destinations and as a core tourism product. For instance, holiday destinations such as those in Italy, Thailand and France are known for their local/national cuisine and they have been marketing gastronomic tourism due to cuisine being highly regarded by tourists (Hobsbawn & Ranger 2013). This is a selling point that has unique elements in different countries.

The tourism industry has been supported greatly by hospitality services such as accommodation, beverages and food and in this regard hospitality was measured as an essential component of the product mix. Nevertheless, hospitality alone is regarded as not strong enough to be a motivation for tourists to visit a destination (Gunn 2013). In that sense Godfrey and Clarke (2000) differentiated between major or supporting resources and destinations' resources, which he regarded as principal resources, being those attributes with the strongest drawing power which motivate tourists to revisit a destination. Secondary resources in turn are those that complement a destination's attractiveness, but do not motivate an individual to revisit a destination. Nowadays hospitality is being considered a principal resource, attracting persons to travel and revisit or visit a destination (Godfrey & Clarke 2000).

Numerous scholars have shown that hospitality has a great impact on travellers' decision-making when selecting their holiday destination. Hospitality, friendliness, welcoming and food/cuisine of the host destination can attract tourists to a certain tourism destination. For instance Boyne *et al.* (2012) noted that the main attractiveness of Italy to tourists is its cuisine. Hjalager and Corigliano (2010) also emphasized that Italian cuisine and wine has increased the growth of the Italian tourism industry. While Frochot (2013) noted that the image of France as a tourism destination has been associated with their hospitality, in particular cuisine, and the welcoming host community.

Hong Kong also boosted its tourist arrival numbers by offering and marketing many different kinds of foods as noted by Au and Law (2012). In Turkey Rimmington and Yuskel (2008) found in their results that the overall satisfaction of tourists was based on hospitality in particular the local food/cuisine. Hu and Ritchie (2008) stated that aspects such as food/cuisine, accommodation, scenery, host friendliness and welcoming play a vital role in retaining tourists to a tourism destination. Ryan (1997) and Smith (1991) proved that hospitality has a great effect on tourists' level of satisfaction and also revisit intentions.

Quan and Wang (2004) established typologies of food consumption and further stress the vital role of food in the tourism industry as part of tourists' experiences while at a destination. The typologies are as follows: a tourist can consume food as part of peak experience (main attraction), a tourist can consume food as part of secondary or supporting experience and food may be consumed as a tourist's daily routine. Referring to these authors, recognition of the importance of hospitality as part of the main tourism industry infers higher opportunities for expansion of destination attractions, such as food as a source of sustainable tourism, food festivals for destination identity, food as a sub-event within a mega-event with local themes for agro-tourism and cultural tourism events.

In South Africa the local communities and the tourism industry employees are welcoming and the hospitality level is very high. Tourists can have tours in the local communities enjoying the local dances and gastronomy. South Africa has many cultural villages, township tours such as Soweto in Johannesburg, local Tshisanyama such as Mzolis in Cape Town Gugulethu wherein tourists can interact with the local communities and enjoy the friendliness and hospitality (South African Tourism, 2012).

3.4.4 Special events

Getz (2011) defined a special event as "a one-time or infrequently occurring event outside the normal program or activities of the sponsoring or organising body. To the individual, a special event is an opportunity for leisure, social, or cultural experiences outside the normal range of choices or beyond everyday experience". Special events capture all activities in a form of events that visitors are more likely to be attendees of, for instance, a Mardi Gras, a World Fair, cultural event such as art festivals or even those events where merely "being there" is of most importance, for example Wimbledon tennis. These events are however drawcards for tourists and a well-established event such as the October-Fest in Germany attracts high numbers of tourists and generate income.

There are differing views on the impact and influence of these events. Dwyer, Forsyth, Spurr and Ho (2003), however, documented that the economic impacts and net benefits generated through the capability of special events tourism is frequently exaggerated. Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis and Mules (2000) on the other hand identified that events and festivals are internationally recognised as contributing to economic growth and further hold the potential of growing tourism destinations. In South Africa a large number of special events attract tourists from all over the world such as The Kaapse Klopse, or Cape Carnival that dates back to the 19th century, various arts festivals, community festivals, sport events, cultural events and many more. These are some of the special activities that attract tourists to South Africa (South African Tourism, 2014). Reoccurring events can be successful in creating return visits if visitors enjoyed the experience. Once-off events, such as a Soccer World Cup, can also lead to return visits to the destination even if the event is not taking place again.

3.4.5 Entertainment

Nightlife, gambling and outdoor activities etc. form a large part of destination entertainment attributes. Cultural sites and museums are some of the entertainment places tourists enjoy visiting while at the destination (to be Global Insight Inc. 2004). Formica (2000) explains that entertainment has become valuable attributes for tourists while at their respective destinations. An investigation conducted by Richard (2012) indicated that forty-six (46%) of participants visiting cultural sites were travelling for the purpose of entertainment. Aalst (2002) in a competition to attract visitors survey, discovered that many capital cities are selling themselves to tourists as destinations of entertainment such as Las Vegas. In excess of the past years the United States of America's (USA) entertainment destinations have been growing significantly. For instance,

destinations such as Branson and Missouri in USA have been the second most famous tourist destinations. Petrick *et al.* (2001) stated that the actual reason for individuals to travel is that they seek to run away from their daily routine by consuming inauthentic and shallow experiences. Individuals are tired of the labour of their daily reality. They travel for relaxation, fun and entertainment. Therefore entertainment could be considered an attractive attribute for a destination to fulfil the needs of their tourists.

Entertainment can be offered in many ways, from a tourist's perspective, with a number of entertainment events available at a tourism destination to perhaps be less important than its perceived uniqueness or quality. Equally vital to tourism destination travel choices is the extent to which the destination entertainment attributes best suit the destination. Crouch, Hudson and Ritchie (2000) considered that the Oberammergau passion about a tourism destination is highly associated with the mind-set of a consumer about a certain destination. South Africa offers a diversity and variety of entertainment to be enjoyed by visitors.

3.4.6 Price

Price is a main attribute in a tourist's choice to select one destination over another. According to Christie and Crompton (2011) for tourists to choose one destination over another it is often based on price as it plays a major role as a destination attribute. These often occur in the case of tourists wanting to purchase tourist products and services in the form of a package. Most tourists consider the total cost of the package when selecting a destination. Two categories of price were identified by Dwyer and Kim (2003), namely ground fee relating to commodity prices within the destination and travel cost relating to travel to and from a destination. Equally these price categories can affect tourist decisions on selecting a destination to visit. In essence, price alone does not add any value when it comes to attracting tourists. It is only when it is related to a tourism destination or a tourism product or service and quality that it is perceived to be an important attribute for tourists' purchasing concerns. Gooroochurn and Sugiyarto (2013) said that price attractiveness is generally viewed as one of the utmost significant attributes that make a destination to outshine other destinations.

3.4.7 Shopping

Norma (2009:78) noted that shopping as a main motivator for travel has become an important part of the travel and tourism industry; the reason being that it contributes to various retail markets worldwide and its power to boost the economy. Even though shopping occasionally is not

considered the main reason for travel it adds value to tourists' experiences (Snow, 2013). The Travel Association of America stated that shopping remains a widespread and popular leisure activity among the US resident travellers (Travel Association of America, 2015).

Studies indicated that travellers spend approximately one-third of their travel expenditure on retail shopping (Littrell *et al.* 2014). On the other hand textile crafts and apparel items accounted for a major portion of the consumer products purchased by tourists. There are a number of tourists who just travel all over the world because they are attracted by shopping and thus shopping can be seen as an attribute that attracts tourists to destinations (Littrell 2016; Traveler's Notes 2015).

According to Moscardo (2014) shopping tourism have attracted a high number of scholars' attention in current years. He further noted that there are two comprehensive schools of consideration among tourism shopping scholars. Although many scholars regard shopping as an essential activity of travel experience, some studies considered shopping to be an influencer in tourists' experiences in the destination and destination choice. However, shopping is an important and cherished component of tourists' travel experiences. In South Africa there is a variety of shopping malls such as Mall of Africa, Victoria and Alfred Waterfront Cape Town where tourists can buy souvenirs (South African Tourism, 2016) and many more. Due to the exchange rate visitors find this country to be fairly priced once you reach the destination.

It is evident that components such as natural scenery, hospitality, special events, pleasant weather and climate, accessibility, price, culture and entertainment form part of destination attractiveness and influence tourists' decision-making and also destination revisit intentions. Still it is relevant and important to also acknowledge the additional aspects that influence intentions to return to a destination, which will be discussed in the subsequent section.

3.4.8 Weather and Climate

Martin (2005) defined weather as "the state of the atmosphere in a given place at a given time, and can be described by one particular weather station or for a specific area of the earth's surface. By contrast, climate is the prevailing condition of the atmosphere deduced from long periods of observation". Tourists' activities and behaviour can be significantly influenced by climate and weather, the same as they affect individuals' everyday lives. Tourists often base their decisions concerning a destination and the activities in which to participate on climate and weather since these two attributes could become a single attraction to attract tourists to visit a destination.

Attributes such as price, entertainment and services are compared by tourists when deciding to visit a tourism destination. The weather and climate are also assessed in this process, as they could be considered as the natural resources that generally form part of the product (Martin 2005). 'Warm climate' is regarded as an important pull attribute to a destination particularly for tourists travelling for suntan and relaxation, as stated by Klenosky (2002) in his study of "the pull of tourism destinations". Climate is perceived as having greater importance than any other destination attributes as well as being cherished highly by tourists when deciding on certain tourism destinations (Martin 2005). In the case of South Africa the weather is a significant drawcard, especially for tourists to visit the coastline during summer time. Visitors from Europe enjoy the summer season and actually escape their cold winters when visiting South Africa over December.

Tourism destination marketers and planners have absolutely no control over climate and weather, no matter how these two attributes are perceived as most important to the tourism destinations. Nevertheless, it is of utmost importance for tourism destination marketers and planners to understand how visitors perceive a destination's weather and climate since the awareness of this would assist in better positioning tourism resources and activities. It is also important to utilise the weather to attract certain niche markets during certain times of the year.

3.4.9 Internal/ External access

Kim (2008) defined accessibility as the "relative ease or difficulty with which tourists can reach the destination of their choice". Tourists are more likely to choose a destination that will be more convenient in a sense of accessibility to them. For instance, if a tourist is given a choice between comparable destinations, a tourist will more likely choose a destination that is convenient and accessible. Hence, destinations which are more accessible, tend to be more accepted than the destinations offering similar products, services etc. but not accessible (McKercher 2008). Crouch and Ritchie (2009) maintain that destination accessibility is governed by many different influences, of which many are dependent on aspects such as competition among carriers, airport capacities, landing slots, hubs, route connections, entry visas and permits, and the airline industry. From this perspective, accessibility of a destination cannot be assessed based on supply-side only. McKercher (1998) recommended that accessibility could be assessed based on comparative difference in distance, cost, effort required to access different destinations or time based on demand-side. Thus it is safe to say accessibility can be an attractive attribute for some destinations. For example, Hong Kong was identified as one of the countries where accessibility was a pulling power for tourists from mainland China. Hong Kong, this was discovered by Zhang

and Lam (1999) in their study of mainland Chinese travellers' motivation to visit Hong Kong, based on the 'push-pull' framework.

The issue of accessibility in South Africa is a challenge, since it is considered a long-haul destination but due to the favourable exchange rates it is still a popular destination. This country is known for its best “first world” amenities and luxuries. It has a well-developed financial market and some of the most developed infrastructure in the world. In 2016, South Africa received ten million tourists and this is slowly increasing. According to the Minister of Tourism, South Africa remains a “Must see” tourism destination (South African Tourism 2017).

Air access is also an obstacle, as it remains a barrier to tourism growth due to its long-haul status which is linked to higher prices for air travel. The Minister of Tourism also noted that “the Western Cape must be commended for the Cape Town Air access which initiated an increase in arrivals to Western Cape. 2017 is the year in which the African Ministers of Transport agreed that Africa’s airspace would be liberalised”. Various countries with South Africa signed the declaration of Solemn Commitment in ensuring that the tourism industry benefits from greater aviation access. Air access will increase the number of tourist arrivals (South African Tourism 2017).

South Africa is the best-valued vacation destination for the British. This is according to the country’s annual report, which surveyed prices in 34 cities and resorts. Bali was overhauled by Cape Town for the very first time, with the last having been at the top three (3) for the past years before price increases in 2016. The report used prices researched by long-haul holiday specialist: Travelbag.

3.5 ASPECTS INFLUENCING INTENTION TO RETURN TO A TOURISM DESTINATION

In the past a number of studies have been done on revisit intentions to a tourism destination, with varying results. Authors such as Gitelson and Crompton (2012) noted reasons why limited research has been performed on destination revisit intentions. Firstly they noted that “research on repeat business has focused on repurchase intentions of products rather than first-time purchase. While repurchase intention of a product and/or brand are highly recognized in consumer behaviour research”. Bigne (2011) supported his statement by stating that “it is difficult to measure revisit intentions to a destination since it is a sector in which consumption is infrequent

and on occasion and tourists prefer to visit new places". Secondly, Um (2009) added by explaining that "the major stream of previous research in this area is related to the satisfaction construct model". There are however differences between first-time and repeat visitors (as recognized earlier in this chapter) and therefore there is a need for research to focus on modelling repeat destination choice process as it was done for the first-time destination choice process. Thirdly, Um (2011) also noted that the operationalization of the key constructs related to revisit intentions remains limited where single-item scaling was done. There is a need for a multidimensional approach. Reichel (2009) noted that much focus is based on risk, "the focus has been on the way perceived risk relates to general previous travel experiences and affinity for novelty".

Kozak (2010) noted that it is difficult to understand tourists' revisit intentions due to it being influenced by many factors. For this reason it is difficult to base tourists' revisit intentions on tourist motivations, attitudes and intentions in general. Nevertheless, previous visit experience could also be an important influence on tourist' revisit intentions in the future. Barros, Butler and Correia (2010) explain that the intentions to revisit a destination can be influenced by tourists being familiar with a particular destination, comfortability and the number of previous visits. They further noted that future visits can also be enforced by a positive destination image. Facilities in a particular tourism destination and other destination attributes were identified as some of the important factors that can influence revisit intentions.

Petrack (2012) discovered that several studies identified that aspects such as loyalty, tourist satisfaction and past experience as part of the influencers to revisit a destination are closely related. Moreover, other researchers concluded that tourists who are satisfied are more likely to revisit and also spread positive word-of-mouth communication about the destination. On the other hand Opperman (2010) empirically surveyed the effect of past experiences on the future tourists' visitation behaviour and as a result he noted that there were loyal tourists who visited at least every third year and very loyal ones who visited annually and biannually. This indicated the strong relationship between these two variables. Comparable findings concerning the close relationship between future behavioural intentions and previous travel experiences to revisit the similar destination were also stated by other studies and it was debated by other scholars that repeat tourists were anticipated to be interested in revisiting the same destination in the future.

The destination maturity and the number of previous visits are also of importance in motivating tourists to revisit the same destination (Kozak 2010:34). Assaker and Hallak (2013), Baker and

Crompton (2000) as well as Choo and Petrick (2014) noted increasing economic profits, reduction of prices, improving cost-effectiveness, reduction of marketing cost and positive word-of-mouth as the benefits of repeat visitors. There are thus a number of aspects that can influence intentions to return to a destination both from destination management organisations (DMO) and tourist point of view (see Figure 3.3). Safety and security for example is important for both tourists and DMO's.

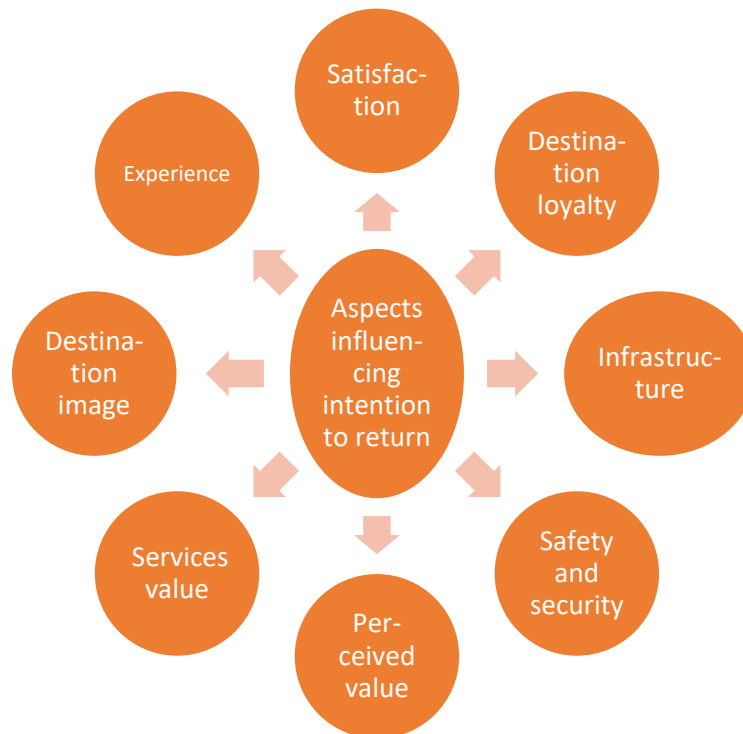


Figure 3.3: Aspects influencing intention to return

Source: Author's own compilation

3.5.1 Satisfaction

Consumer satisfaction is one of the major contributing factors of customer loyalty (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser & Schlesinger 2008; Lin & Wang 2006). Oliver (2011) defined tourists' satisfaction as tourists pre-purchase assessment of a tourism destination. Gotlieb, Grewal and Brown (2014) noted that positive tourist satisfaction has a positive influence on the tourists' revisit intentions. Other studies also confirm that tourists' revisit intentions are highly influenced by tourists' satisfaction (Chen & Tsai 2007; Choi & Chu 2001; Petrick 2002; Petrick 2004; Tam 2000; Yuksel 2001). Petrick and Backman (2002) also confirmed that if a tourist engages in one activity

and has a good positive experience they are more likely to repeat the activity and tell others about their experience.

Many researchers have analysed the customer satisfaction and its antecedents as variables to predict tourists' future buying behaviour (Petrick 2002; 2004), but yet a limited number of researchers have focused on consequences of satisfaction (Anderson & Sullivan 1993) and others still try to predict revisit intentions in the case of tourist destinations. For instance, a study performed by Anderson and Sullivan (1993) analysed the probability of repurchasing in the service sector. However, they centred this study on customer satisfaction without considering any other factors that can influence revisit intentions/repurchasing. Baker and Crompton (2000) related their investigation to tourist destination, of which demand-oriented characteristics was least important in their study although they included the unique features of the holiday products. Thus some key features interconnected to tourist satisfaction should be regarded as: a) how do both concepts influence tourists' satisfaction with respect to revisit intentions; b) which variables influence this process; and c) how do tourists rate them.

According to Anderson, Fornell and Lehmann (1994) tourists base their satisfaction level on the entire travel and visit experience. Therefore tourists make a comprehensive evaluation of all the services and products consumed or experienced while at a destination. Churchill and Surprenant (1982) stated that worldwide satisfaction can be measured based on all attributes tourists experience while at a tourism destination. Oliver (2008) developed a classic paradigm of the disconfirmation of expectations theory; this is one of the theoretical approaches that regulates how tourists rate products and services. Moreover Parasuraman *et al.* (2015) and Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (2008) also applied this theory in the SERVQUAL study. According to this theory, tourists do not simply assess the result of a purchase, but the outcome in relation to their expectations of it. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) noted that when tourists evaluate destinations they are highly influenced by expectations; thus tourists are highly disappointed due to high expectations and tourists with lower expectations are more likely to be satisfied. Tourists' expectations develop over a period of time based on their personal characteristics, the individual's experience of the product in the past, word-of-mouth communications and marketing.

Satisfaction highly influences probabilities of tourists remaining loyal to a tourism destination. This was shown by empirical studies in literature. Baker and Crompton (2000), Petrick (2004) and Pritchard and Howard (1997) identified similar empirical evidence of which satisfaction played a

major role in influencing positive tourists' future intentions. Equally, numerous scholars such as Dube, Renagham and Miller (2014) have discovered that tourists who are not satisfied are more likely to never visit the destination again.

Marterson (2007:547) noted that satisfaction is normally used when measuring customer loyalty, brand loyalty and even tourists' loyalty. Nevertheless Soderlund (2008) argued that even though satisfaction can be higher it does not mean that tourists' loyalty might be higher as well. In the same regard, the study done by Lee, Yoon and Lee (2007) on intentions to revisit a festival concert did not find a great relationship between revisiting intentions to a festival and satisfaction. Thus the greatness of the relationship may vary, subjected to other variables that might influence that formation of tourists' expectations and also depending on service analysed. Lee *et al.* (2007) noted variables such as interaction between the visitor and other tourists, the tourists and their travel companions, personal requirements derived from interaction among the destination aspects and tourists' experiences of the service. Therefore according to authors such as Chen and Tsai (2007); Kazak (2001) and Yoon and Uysal (2005), overall satisfaction is one of the key majors influencing repeat visitation to tourism destinations. Alegre and Cladera (2006) stated that although repeat visitors are more expected to revisit than first-time visitors, the level of satisfaction still plays an important role in this decision.

3.5.2 Destination loyalty

Destination loyalty is often linked to tourists making repeat purchases or recommendations to others (Yoon & Uysal 2013). Destination loyalty thus takes effect when tourists recommend the destination to other potential tourists such as family and friends or when they revisit a tourism destination (Murphy, Mascardo & Benckendoff 2010). Chen and Gursoy (2011) added that marketers should have an understanding of tourists' needs and wants so as to stay competitive in the tourism industry and in turn this will assist in securing repeat visitation and positive word-of-mouth advertising.

Scholars such as Alegre and Garau (2010); Chen and Chen (2010); Chi and Qu (2008) as well as Yoon and Uysal (2005) are more concerned about improving tourists' loyalty to tourism destinations due to increased competition in the worldwide marketplace and the pressure on tourism destinations that are striving to sustain a successful long-run economic growth. Oliver (2009:392) defined destination loyalty as intensely held commitment to revisit a destination regardless of any circumstances that may cause the tourists to switch behaviour. On the other

hand Rauyruen and Moller (2007) proposed that the creation of a loyal list of visitors is not just about the number but about taking care of the relationship that will encourage future visits.

Reley *et al.* (2001) identified three approaches to assess loyalty, namely behavioural loyalty, attitudinal loyalty and composite loyalty. Chen and Gursoy (2001) stated that behavioural loyalty discloses an accurate measurable degree of loyalty, but then again does not reflect an attitudinal dimension, reflecting support for a specific destination, such as the 'degree to which a tourist regards the destination as recommendable. Oppermann (1999) emphasized that revisit intentions may reveal habitual behaviour but still not loyalty. Nonetheless, the significance of behavioural loyalty appears too clear from a tourist's point of view, presenting immediate, objectively traceable returns to the destination (Croes *et al.* 2010; Oppermann 2000). There is no consensus about which indicator to use.

Day (2009) argued that certain types of tourists may lack any commitment to the destination but simply visit a destination based on psychological costs of discontinuation, lack of information on substitutes, lack of substitutes, monetary rewards, and convenience. A number of different attitudinal loyalty measures have been proposed, but authors such as Pritchard, Howard and Havits (2012) suggested that psychometrically sound instruments to measure attitudinal loyalty were still missing – one whereby consumers were judged to be loyal to the mentioned brand. On the other hand, Guest (2015) later suggested that such a positive preferential attitude needs to exist over time. While Jarvis and Wilcox (2016) suggested other measures called cognitive loyalty, which is distance between rejection and acceptance of (brands) destinations and intent to purchase.

Composite as an approach for attracting customers seems to be very attractive and has been used a number of time settings. It also has serious inherent limitations simply because of the weighting applied to both behavioural people for instance show making word-of-mouth to family and friends, further exploration of destination and emotional attachments to a place. Composite loyalty assimilates mutually attributional and behavioural dimensions. In earlier studies Day (2009) contended that if a customer buys a brand and also has a positive attitude towards it, it makes the consumer to be truly loyal. Authors such as Backman and Crompton (2011), Pritchard and Howard (2007), Selin and Howard (2008) stated that the composite approach is regarded as highly attractive and has been used numerous times in leisure experiences.

In tourism research, the concept *destination loyalty* is frequently measured by indicators such as 'willingness to recommend the destination to others (attitudinal indicator and reflecting destination advocacy), intention to visit more attractions of the same destination and repeat visits (behavioural measures) or intention to continue revisiting the same destination. Destination loyalty is operationally defined as making a 'repeat visit', which is an objective indicator of present and past behaviour, showing an existing degree of loyalty and proven in several tourism studies by authors (Correia & Oliveira 2008; Kozak 2001; Ninimen *et al.* 2004; Wang 2003). Other scholars in different industries such as retailing, in services, e-marketing have acknowledge that destination loyalty improve business performance (Heskett *et al.* 2007; Lee & Cunningham 2011) or in the e-marketing context (e.g. Reichheld & Scheffer 2000).

Repeat visitation and referencing a tourism destination are significantly used in assessing destination loyalty. These were reported by Yoon and Uysal (2005). In this regard, Chen and Gursoy (2001) also indicated the importance of repeat visits as a major instrument for measuring destination loyalty. Research carried out in different industries have revealed that a five percent (5%) rise in customer retention can produce a profit increase of twenty-five to ninety-five percent (25-95%) (Reichheld 2016; Kastenholz 2004; Oppermann 2010; Shoemaker & Lewis 2009). Destination loyalty cannot only be achieved through repeat purchase but also through positive word-of-mouth communications. In addition Croes *et al.* (2010) stated that repeating tourists are familiar with the destination and the community which adds to increased levels of communication between tourists and locals and the sustainable development of tourism even if some studies show that first-time visitors tend to spend more than repeat visitors.

3.5.3 Infrastructure

Adebayo (2014) defined infrastructure, established to cater for tourism industry, as the physical elements that are designed and created to serve the needs and wants of the tourists. He further indicated that there has been a great relationship between infrastructure and tourism development in recent years. Tourism infrastructure includes aspects such as complementary and ancillary facilities, processes, systems, specific equipment and resources that are significant for the operation of every tourism destination. These mainly include airports, harbours, railways, roads etc., and these are the aspects that make the destination more accessible to tourists. Popesku (2011) noted that infrastructure also includes elements such as public services, other services and health care systems, development of infrastructure, superstructure which includes building amenities which only exist because of tourism activities. The most important infrastructure is

accommodation, which adheres to the needs and wants of the tourists in a form of campsites, B&Bs, guesthouses, sport facilities and restaurants.

For the tourism destination to operate smoothly in production and supplying of tourism products and services, infrastructure plays a major role, because infrastructure spurs the tourism products and services to reach the tourists and make tourists' vacation to be more enjoyable. The arrival of tourists improves the productivity of human resources at the destination with tourists wanting certain services or products to enlighten their stay at a particular tourist destination (Ritchie & Crouch 2005:8).

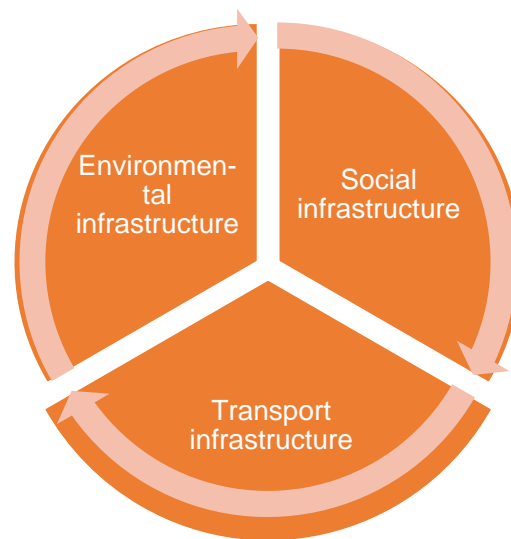


Figure 3.4: Type of tourism infrastructure

Source: Tourism & Transport Forum (TTP) (2012)

Tourism and Transport Forum (Tourism & Transport Forum, 2012:78) noted that environmental, social and transport infrastructure are the three tourism infrastructures in the supply chain (See Figure 3.4). These structures work together at worldwide, national and regional level to create a tourism destination that is attractive and competitive. Environmental infrastructure includes elements such as game reserves, marine parks and national parks that tourists can explore. Environmental infrastructure is composed of pure nature, whilst social infrastructure consists of aspects such as complementary physical structures for different types of tourist services and activities that are most attractive to tourists and accommodation amenities in a form of rooms to accommodate visitors and transport which provide both national and international tourists with destination accessibility in the form of railways, airports and roads. Nonetheless, distribution of tourism services and products is made simple because these three types of tourism infrastructure

consist of networking of national, regional and states tourism organisations, wherein they collaborate with other tourism destinations. As indicated in Figure 3.4 different types of infrastructure play a vital role in influencing intentions to return.

3.5.4 Safety and security

Pizam and Mansfeld (2016) noted that one of the tourists' major concerns when deciding to visit a tourism destination is safety compared to other many attributed in a tourism destination, they further indicated "safety, tranquillity and peace are necessary conditions for prosperous tourism since most tourists will not spend their hard earned money to go to a destination where their safety and well-being may be in jeopardy". Safety and security has been largely accepted to be one of the most important determinants of revisit intentions. Components of safety and security take account of prevalent disease outbreaks and quality/unreality of medical services, corruption of police officers/administrative service, record of transportation safety, crime rates, probabilities of terrorism and political instability/unrest (Dwyer & Kim 2003).

Christie and Crompton (2001:29) noted that in this era of globalization, when crimes are formed against tourists while at tourism destinations hit international headlines, these could destroy the image of the destination as time goes on. For instance, the 1992 Florida (USA) tourist murders, resulted in a remarkable decline in the tourism industry because it attracted a large amount of media attention (Dimanche & Lepetic 1999). The travel and tourism industry is very profound to crisis events. It is still extremely difficult to recover the number of tourists ever since the terrorist attacks of September 11, to date. Certain destinations, including countries of the Middle East and USA, encountered a high number of turndowns of tourists compared to others, the reason being that other countries consider safety and security a priority (Dwyer & Kim 2003).

Authors such as Scott *et al.* (1978) and Milman and Pizam (1995) have urged that intentions to visit or to revisit a destination, and destination image, are significantly affected by tourist perceptions of a destination's safety and security, which indicates that destination image can highly impact on a tourist destination choice. Thus good safety and security image can retain and attract a great number of tourists to visit a particular destination. Dwyer and Kim (2003) indicated that local support for tourism development can nurture a competitive destination. Residents' attitudes towards tourists is also vital to the sustainable management of the tourism destination. If tourists are welcomed with unfriendliness in their destination they question the worth of revisiting

the destination. Steyn (2016) stated that safety remains a problem in South Africa and a concern for tourists travelling to and in South Africa.

3.5.5 Perceived values

Scholars such as McDougall and Levesque (2010), Zeithaml (2008) and Woodruff (2007) noted that even though perceived value has received a considerable amount of attention by many researchers, these authors highly differ in defining and understanding this concept. For instance, Cracens (2008) stated that perceived value is initially regarded as the trade-off or share amount versus price and quality. The utmost general referred to definition of perceived value is that of Zeithaml (2008), who outlined four types of values (What I get for what I give, the quality matching the price I paid, whatever I want in a product, and low price) and synthesizes the four dimensions into one overall concept. Zeithaml (2008:4) defined perceived value as “consumer” general evaluations of what the consumer consumed/experienced while at a tourism destination and the value of the product base. For example, authors such as Bradley and Sparks (2012), Gallarza and Saura (2006) and Sweeney and Soutar (2001) noted that “The conceptualization of values as a trade-off between “get” and “give” has boosted a universal interest in the composite nature of consumer value” .

Gallarza and Saura (2006) noted that perceived value was initially measured with a single-item gage such as “value for money” but this did not capture the completed concept of perceived value. Based on social judgment theory Bolton and Drew (2011) suggested that value is the main connection among the basic elements of behavioural intentions, perceived quality or performance and perceived monetary sacrifices. Perceived value is seen as a “richer measure of customers” overall assessment of perceived service quality than just a service.

Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991) developed a hypothetical framework of perceived value, followed by Sweeney and Soutar (2001) who also developed perceived value, based on a retail purchase context. When it comes to on-site perceived value, scholars suggested four (4) different dimensions, namely: price/value for money, quality/performance, social and emotional values. Outcomes showed that “value for money” is not as highly regarded as are other multiple value dimensions. Chen and Chen (2010) stated that monetary price and perceived quality are two key antecedents of perceived value in the tourism services.

According to Baker (2002), many scholars have supported the theory that perceived value is best predicated by quality, meaning that perceived value is positively affected by quality. On the other hand Cronin, Brady and Hult (2000) stated that perceived value is affected negatively by perceived price. Brandy and Sparks (2012) analysed the quality value satisfaction loyalty chain, which shows factors which form part of change perceived value antecedents, which are product, consumer, learning experiences and consumption experiences.

Williams and Soutar (2009) noted that of the benefits received by tourists while at the destinations are greater than costs invested in travel, tourists consider it as a positive value. Lee, *et al.* (2007:56) added by stating that visitors assess whether the benefits they received are comparable to effort, time and money they had invested,, which at a later stage affects their revisit intentions and satisfaction level. Gallarza and Saura (2006) also noted that tourists measure certain benefits by using destination features and benefits in seeking to establish whether they will be equivalent. Tourists can perceive sufficient benefits while staying at the destination, but the effort, money and time spent in traveling to the destination can decrease the overall perceived value and thus decrease the probability of revisiting the destination and of recommending it to others.

3.5.6 Services Value

Service quality as a generic perception of marketing and customer behaviour research has been well-defined and explained by numerous academics. For instance, service quality can be defined as customer expectations compared to services and performance after consumption of a specific product or service (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1985). The idea of service quality may be defined as the overall assessment of service performance' (Santos 2003) or an overall assessment of the badness or goodness of a service or product experienced during a stay. This is measured by the use of services the tourists will remember (Kayat & Hai 2014). In other words, it is all about the tourists' evaluation of the performance of service consumed in a given tourist destination.

Destination services value found at a destination is important in relation to tourists' destination choice. A high number of tourists regard a fully functional destination based on destination services value. Therefore the sustainability of a tourism destination is strongly linked to the availability of supplementary services which are aligned with the value of those services (Dwyer & Kim 2003). In the same regard service value is based on aspects including administration, accommodation, food and beverages, shopping and transportation. Delivery of responsive and

reliable tourist services can significantly boost a destination's competitive advantage and lead to higher intentions to return. According to Haber and Lerner (2008) studies have shown that an array of service values is the key feature in the increase or decrease in growth of many destinations.

Chadee and Mattsson (1996) noted that service quality influences tourists' satisfaction level while at a destination. If a tourist is offered low-quality service while at a destination, he/she is more likely to be dissatisfied with the entire vacation and they are more likely discouraged to re-visit the destination, while high-quality services offered to a tourist at a destination are more likely to boost the perception of "trip-value" and thus increase the chances of re-visit behavioural intentions and even positive word-of-mouth communication to family and friends. Therefore it is safe to say service quality is one of the key attributes for destinations to attain a higher number of visitors.

Boo, Busser and Baloglu (2009) and Zabkar, Brenc and Dmitrovic (2010) considered service quality in the form of destination quality with a single dimension in destination-related studies. However, it needs to be emphasised that while the quality owned by a destination is related to the services controlled and produced by tourism products and attractions, it also consists of natural factor endowments. That being said, services are an amalgam of factors that can be generated by destination management organisations. In this context Stepchenkova and Mills (2010) stated that knowledge of how the destination is perceived by potential visitors is important in future planning and development. In summary, it is clear that a need exists to determine service quality at the destinations to determine the effect thereof on intention to return to a specific destination such as South Africa.

3.5.7 Destination image

Destination image plays an important role in the decision-making process of the tourist (Bonn, Joseph & Dai 2005). Besides influencing the destination choice of tourists, destination image also has an effect on revisit intentions (Kandampully, Juwaheer & Hu 2011; Ozturk & Ou 2008). Moreover, emotional assessments regarding past experiences can have an effect on the determination of the future behaviour of tourists (Gitelson & Crompton 1984; Dedeoglu, Balioglu & Kuclikergin 2015). Tourists who already have a positive image of a destination will demonstrate these positive perceptions (Lee, Lee & Lee 2005; Stepchenkova & Mills 2010).

Gartner (1993) stated that destination image consist of conative, affective and cognitive aspects. Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez (2009), Del Bosque and Martin (2008) as well as Stylos and Andronikidis (2013) emphasized that cognitive image is revealed through a number of beliefs acknowledging reflective assessment of the destination's perceived attributes. In the same concept, Pike (2008) argued that it depends on what is believed or known by a tourist in relation to the tourism destination, also including relevant experience that cannot be resulting from past visits.

Hallmann, Zehrer and Muller (2014) defined affective element are referring to the emotional replies or assessments of the persons, reflecting the tourists' feelings towards the destination. While Baloglu and McCleary (1999) defined affective components as how individuals feel about what they know and understand. Vellas and Bécherel (1999) added that these components are also acknowledged as the emotional components, in which it reveals feelings that are either negative or positive. Boulding (as cited in Tasci *et al.* 2007) explains that the term *conative components* refers to individuals' reactions to the information. Pike and Ryan (2004) defined the conative component as comparable to behaviour, because it is an action or intent component. Therefore, conation can be referred to as the probability of travelling to a destination in a certain period of time. All three components of image contribute to visitors' intentions to return to certain destinations.

Gartner (1993) maintains that destination image signifies tourists' great reflection on a place as a probable destination of choice. George (2004) added that due to the fact that the tourism product is mainly intangible, tourists are highly dependent on media showing positive images about certain destinations, which might result in revisit intentions. On the other hand, authors such as King *et al.* (2015), Pike and Ryan (2004), Prayag (2009) and Woodside and Dubelaar (2002) considered destination image to be equal to behavioural intentions, revealing why and how feelings and knowledge of first or return tourists contribute to choosing a certain holiday destination. Pike and Ryan (2004) as well as Tasci *et al.* (2007) provided evidence that destination image and revisit intentions are distinct constructs representing how and why knowledge and feelings of new or repeat visitors contribute to the selection of a specific destination for vacation. There also are however indications that destination images and intentions are different concepts (Perugini & Bagozzi 2004; Prestwich, Perugini & Hurling 2008; White 2014).

3.5.8 Experience

Tourism is an experience-intensive sector in which customers seek and pay for experiences above everything else (Barnes, Mattsson & Sorensen 2016). There is consensus in the literature about the need to create experiences for tourists (Laing, Wheeler, Reeves & Frost 2014). Tourists purchase a promise, a notion, a socially constructed image of what constitutes an interesting experience (Curtin 2005:2). Pine and Gilmore (1999) developed the four dimensions of experience where destinations firstly offer an escapist experience by providing tourists the feeling of escaping from their daily life. Oh, Fiore, and Jeoung (2007) identify three types of escapes: getting away (distance from daily routines), immersing into-destination (escape to a particular destination), and partaking-a-different-character (actively involved in activities). Secondly, an entertainment experience occurs when tourists passively observe activities taking place in a destination. Thirdly, an aesthetic experience is obtained when they enjoy and passively appreciate being in the destination environment (Oh *et al.* 2007). Lastly, an educational experience is acquired when tourists increase their knowledge or skills. The literature has often shown that tourist experience directly promotes revisit intention (Kim, Borges & Chon 2012).

It is clear from the above analysis that satisfaction, destination loyalty, infrastructure, safety and security, perceived value, service value and destination image and experience are commonly used as aspects that influence revisit intentions to a tourism destination. However, each destination will be visited for its own set of influential aspects.

3.6 AN OVERVIEW OF TOURISM TO AND IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa is a popular tourist destination and the industry contributes a large amount of money to the country's revenue. South Africa caters for both international and national visitors with activities ranging from game reserves, heritage sites, wine routes, natural landscapes and many more. The highest number of tourist arrivals to South Africa is generated from the neighbouring southern African development community (SADC) countries, accounting for more than 73% of arrivals in 2011. Another significant source of income is local tourists, which contributes 52% of total tourism consumption.

Table 3.2: Summary of South African tourism performance report

VARIABLE	2012	2013	2014	2015
TOTAL TOURISM PERFORMANCE				
Total tourist arrivals	9,188,368	8,961,565	9,549,236	8,903,773
FOREIGN TOURISM PERFORMANCE				
Total Foreign Direct Spend in SA	R76,2 billion	R66,7 billion	R65,0 billion	R68,2 billion
Average Spend in SA per foreign tourist	R8,500.00	R7,600.00	R7,000.00	R8,100.00
Average length of stay in SA	7.7 nights	8.7 nights	8.6 nights	9.5 nights
Average number of provinces visited	1.15	1.14	1.12	1.18
Bednights	67.5 million	73.4 million	78.8 million	81,3 million
Tourism to GDP (Direct)	R93,3 billion	R103.6 billion	R111.6 billion	-
DOMESTIC TOURISM PERFORMANCE				
Total Domestic trips	25.4 billion	25,2 million	28,0 million	24,5 million
Total Direct Domestic Spend	R21,8 billion	R24,3 billion	R26,8 billion	R23,6 billion

Sources: SAT (2012; 2013; 2014; 2015)

It is clear from Table 3.2 that tourist arrivals to South Africa is fluctuating with a record number of arrivals in 2014 (9,549,236). There was a 6.8% decrease in arrivals compared to arrivals in 2015. It is also alarming that the total foreign direct spend in South Africa has decreased up until 2014 but that a 6.2% growth was realized in 2015 with a R68,2 billion spend. Even though less tourists visited South Africa in 2015 they spent R2 billion more. This is an ideal situation as the pressure on natural and other resources is less but the income is higher. This is also implied by the increase in the average spend by tourists. It is also clear that tourists stay for longer periods in South Africa which can explain the increase in spending. With regard to the domestic market there was a clear growth pattern up until 2014 but 2015 showed a decline in the total domestic trips as well as the total direct domestic spend. Given the fact that the domestic market is considered the backbone of the industry it is important to find ways that will encourage this market to travel repeatedly.

3.6.1 Satisfaction with the South African tourism product

It is clear from Figure 3.5 that tourists are satisfied with the hospitable people of South Africa, followed by value for money, general infrastructure and service levels in 2013. In 2015 general infrastructure, hospitable people, value for money and service levels were highly regarded. It is evident that public transport, accommodation, natural attractions and availability of information showed a significant increase in satisfaction levels during 2015.

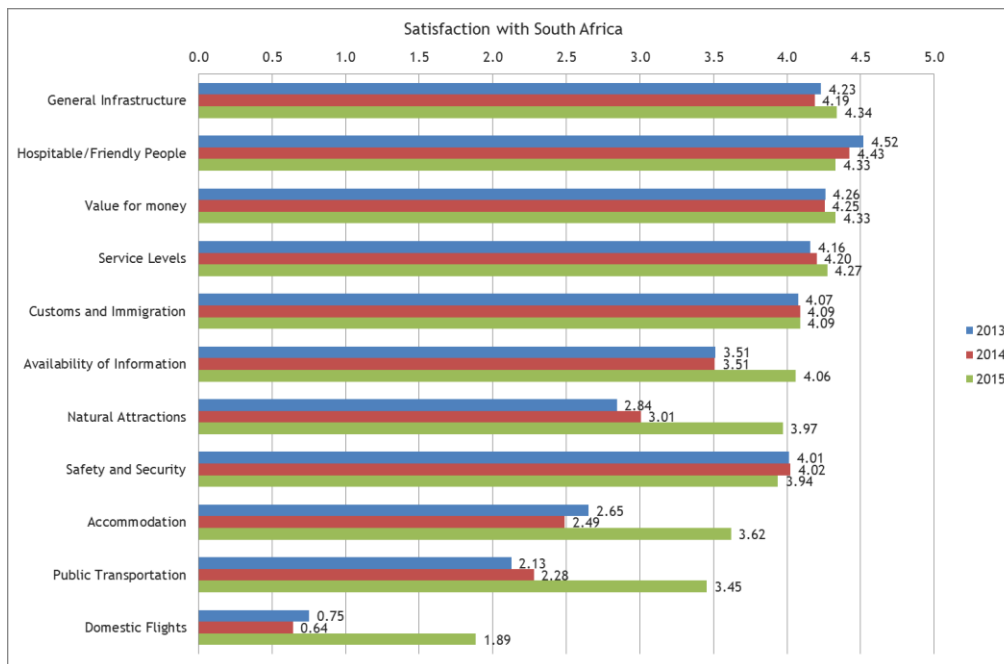


Figure 3.5: Satisfaction with South Africa

Source: SAT (2015)

3.6.2 Activities undertaken in South Africa

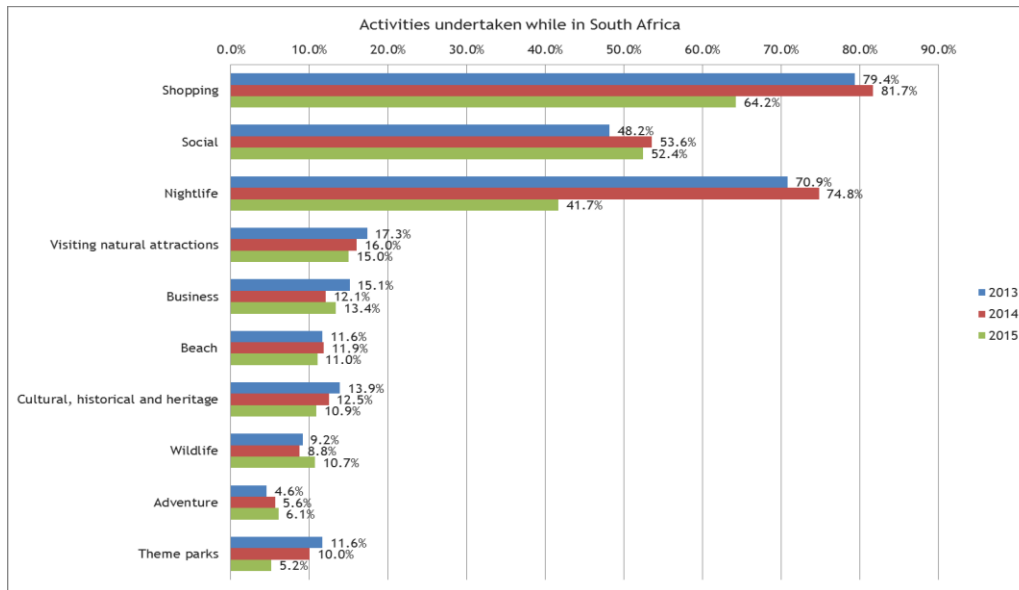


Figure 3.6: Activities undertaken in South Africa

Source: SAT (2015)

In 2013 tourists preferred and participated mainly in shopping, nightlife and social activities. In 2014 the trend was the same. However in 2015 there was a decline in participation in these activities but a growth in business, wildlife, adventure and social activities (see Figure 3.6).

3.6.3 Experiences whilst visiting South Africa

In 2013 the most positive experience related to hospitality and friendly people, which was also the case in 2014. However, in 2015 the most positive experience was visiting family and friends. In general visitors experienced less positive experiences in 2015 compare to 2015 with much lower ratings (see Figure 3.7).

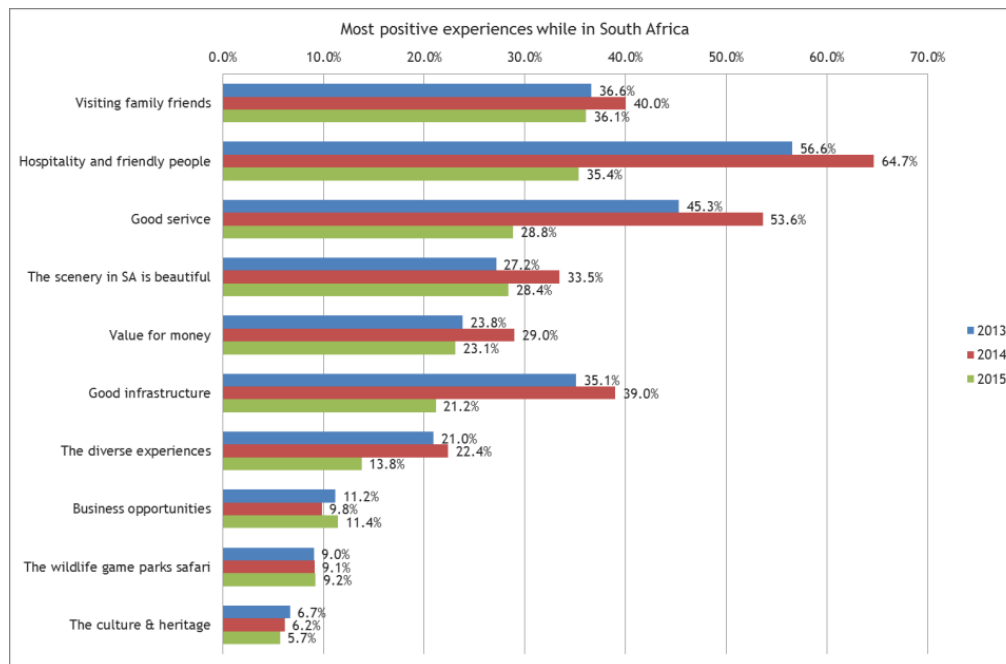


Figure 3.7: Positive experiences in South Africa

Source: SAT (2015)

It is encouraging to note that very few tourists had negative experiences in 2013 to 2015. It was, however, evident that a higher percentage of visitors experienced negative experiences in terms of personal safety, safety and security and poverty beggars. This should be addressed so that these negative experiences do not develop further as that will definitely reduce repeat visits to South Africa (see Figure 3.8).

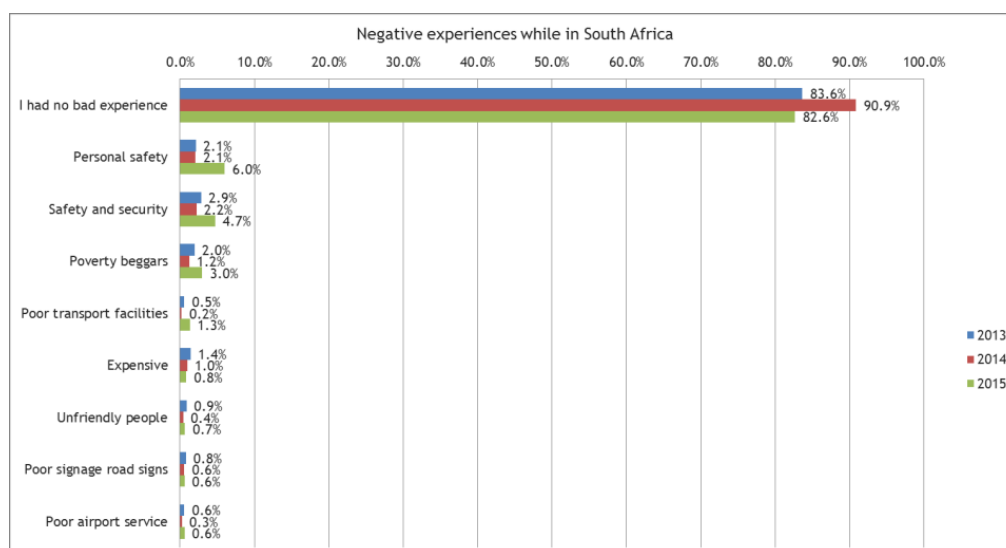


Figure 3.8: Negative experiences in South Africa

3.6.4 Repeater Rate

Table 3.3: Repeat visitation to South Africa 2013 - 2016

NUMBER OF VISITS	YEAR	AFRICA (LAND)	AFRICA (AIR)	AMERICAS	ASIA & AUSTRALIA	EUROPE
First-time	2016	2.7%	34.9%	66%	44.7%	52.8%
	2015	2.4%	31.5%	65.2%	44.7%	52.8%
	2014	1.1%	24.7%	61.7%	43.4%	53.2%
	2013	1.6%	29.3%	59.5%	51.2%	49.5%
2-3 times	2016	8.2%	27%	19.6%	28.4%	23%
	2015	8.7%	29.2%	19.1%	28.4%	23%
	2014	3%	37.9%	22.4%	32.3%	23.2%
	2013	4.5%	43%	25.8%	31.2%	26.3%
4-5 times	2016	10.4%	12.9%	7.1%	11.5%	10.2%
	2015	10.8%	15.2%	7.8%	11.5%	10.2%
	2014	7.8%	22.2%	9%	14.9%	11.3%
	2013	9%	15.8%	8.2%	10.7%	11.1%
6-9 times	2016	14.4%	9.8%	4.2%	10.2%	7.8%
	2015	16.1%	10.9%	4.8%	10.2%	7.8%
	2014	13.6%	8.1%	4.7%	6.3%	7.9%
	2013	11.1%	6.4%	4%	4.7%	7.7%
10+ times	2016	64.3%	15.4%	3.1%	5.2%	6.2%
	2015	62.1%	13.2%	3.1%	5.2%	6.2%
	2014	74.5%	7%	2.2%	3.1%	4.4%
	2013	73.7%	5.5%	2.4%	2.2%	5.4%

Source: South African Tourism (2015; 2014)

It is clear from Table 3.3 that a high percentage of visitors are first-time visitors to South Africa when the repeat figures for Africa (Land) is not taken into account. It seems that a number of respondents have visited South Africa between 2 and 3 times. Given the benefits of repeat visitors it is important to increase the number of repeat visitors to this country. Even 52.8% of the visitors from Europe were first-time visitors and these are regarded as important target markets for South Africa where marketing is done on a continuous basis.



Figure 3.9: Repeat rate of all land tourists 2013/2014

Source: SAT (2014)

When comparing the repeat rate of all land tourists (Figure 3.9) and all air tourists (Figure 3.10) between 2013 and 2014 it is clear that, tourists reaching South Africa by land, has a significantly higher repeat rate than tourists reaching this country by air. It is in actual fact the opposite of each other. Almost 50% of the air tourists to South Africa are first-time visitors.

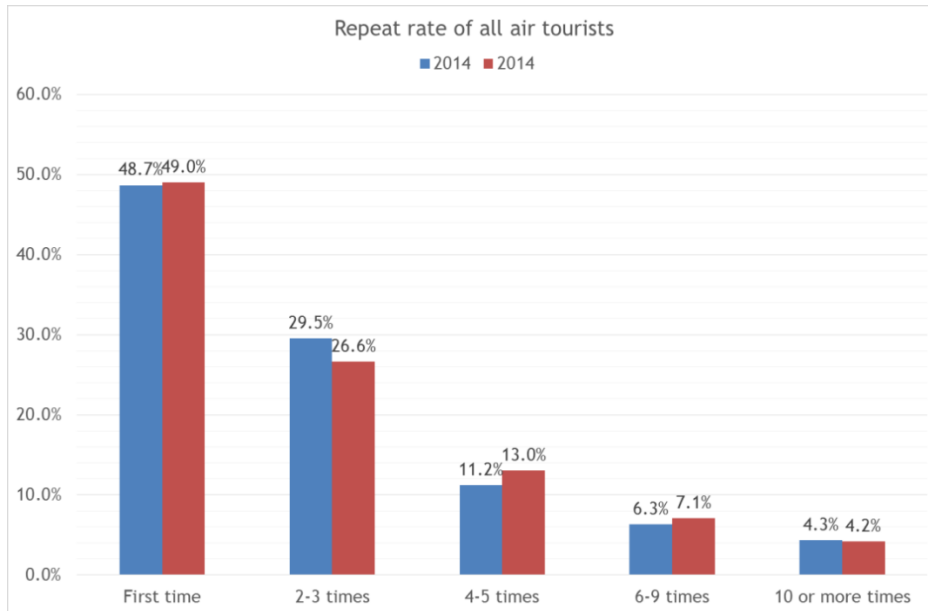


Figure 3.10: Repeat rate of all air tourists 2013/2014

Source: SAT (2014)

3.7 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to analyse literature concerning tourists' intentions to return to tourism destinations. Firstly, it can be concluded that revisit intention to tourism destinations is a very important concept in both practice and scholarly research. There is, however, potential and need to analyse this concept in the South African context due to a lack of research and the contribution this information can make to the growth of the industry in this country. Secondly, some conflicting views exist on the characteristics of first-time and repeat visitors but the value of repeat visitors was realized. Thirdly, destination attractiveness plays an important role in intention to visit and re-visit and it is important to provide re-visitors with new and exciting experiences at the destination. The number and integration of attractiveness factors were also evident as well as the implications thereof in the travel decision-making process. Fourthly a number of aspects influence intention to revisit and again the integration and importance of these aspects were evident. The next chapter will discuss the methodology employed in conducting this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Consumer (tourist) behaviour involves certain decisions, activities, ideas or experiences that satisfy needs and wants (Solomon 2010). It is concerned with all activities directly involved in obtaining, consuming and disposing of products and services, including the decision processes that precede and follow these actions (Engel, Blackwell & Miniard 2015). It is important to research this behaviour in order to evaluate tourists' destination choices which will provide information on tourists' travel motivations and intentions to return to a destination. This can influence future marketing choices and long-term market development of destinations.

This research analysed tourist behaviour with reference to travel motivations, tourists decision-making to optimise return intentions by means of quantitative research. The research was conducted at the Cable Way in Cape Town, where the questionnaires were distributed face-to-face to the international tourists at this attraction (part of Table Mountain National Park, South Africa). Eight hundred questionnaires were distributed of which seven hundred and twenty were completed in full. The respondents participated willingly and completed the questionnaires on their own. Where they needed assistance the fieldworkers were present to assist.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research design and methodology applied in the research, including sampling, population, establishing rigor during and after data collection, ethical considerations and data analyses used in this study. Firstly, the research design of this study is discussed.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is selected based on how much knowledge exists concerning a research problem (Churchill & Brown 2007). Research design assists the researcher in discovering the most suitable method for testing the hypothesis (Bless *et al.* 2006) and/or to reach the objectives of the study. Burns and Grove (2003) define research design as “a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings”. Parahoo (1997:142) defined research design as “a plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analysed”. On the other hand, Polit and Hungler (2001:167) stated that research design is “the researcher’s overall method for answering the research question or testing the research hypothesis”. If not much is known about the problem, the appropriate research design to use then is exploratory research (Kolb 2008:26). Research design thus has two main functions, namely the identification and/or development of procedures to undertake a study and secondly the importance of quality in these procedures is emphasized (Kumar 2005). The following can be distinguished with regard to research designs:

4.2.1 Descriptive research design

According to Burns and Grove (2003:201), descriptive research is designed to provide a picture of a situation as it naturally happens. It may be used to explain current practice and make decisions and also to develop theories. Descriptive research provides a snapshot of the prevalence of a phenomenon and helps to understand trends in behaviour and attitudes (Adams & Lawrence 2015). For purposes of this study, descriptive research was applied to obtain a picture of predictors of tourists’ intentions to return to South Africa as a tourism destination as well as to analyse the demographic detail of the respondents. This was done by means of frequency tables as well as the calculation of mean values and standard deviations.

4.2.2 Exploratory research design

Polit *et al.* (2001) and Cooper and Schindler (2014) explain that exploratory studies are undertaken when a new area is being investigated or when little is known about an area of interest. It is used to investigate the full nature of the phenomenon and other factors related to it. This form of research design is important since exploration might be needed in different contexts. In this study, the factors contributing to intention to return as well as the reasons for visiting South Africa were analysed by means of exploratory factor analysis. No standardized questionnaires existed

for these variables and a new instrument was thus developed and assessed. This, however, was based on the wealth of information available on this and related topics.

4.2.3 Causal research design

In research this design focuses on whatever one variable causes or determines the value of another variable. Hypotheses can also be developed for this type of design (Tustin, Lighthelm, Martins & Van Wyk 2005; Cooper & Schindler 2014). Inferences are made although they may neither be permanent nor universal. These inferences build knowledge of presumed causes over time. It was applied to this study by means of *t*-tests, One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Spearman Rank Order correlations to determine the aspects influencing intention to return and travel motivations to South Africa as a tourism destination. Hence, for purposes of this study, a combination of descriptive, exploratory and causal designs are used.

4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology can be approached from three perspectives, namely quantitative research, qualitative research or a mixed methods approach. Altinay and Paraskevas (2008) state that quantitative research leads to identifying how one variable affects another in a population, by determining the relationship between two or more variables. Taylor, Thielke and Conde (2006:59) adds that determining it can also be used to test hypotheses. Questionnaires are most often used to gather the data and as the data are standardized, comparisons can easily be drawn.

Quantitative research is thus used to quantify the problem by way of generating numerical data or data that can be transformed into useable statistics. It is used to quantify attitudes, opinions, behaviours and other defined variables and generalize results from a larger sample population. Quantitative research uses measurable data to formulate facts and uncover patterns in research. Quantitative data collection methods are much more structured than qualitative data collection methods. Quantitative data collection methods include various forms of surveys – online surveys, paper surveys, mobile surveys and kiosk surveys, face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, longitudinal studies, website interceptors, online polls and systematic observations (Smith 2005). Quantitative research thus attempts precise measurement of something utilizing computerized analysis (Cooper & Schindler 2014).

Qualitative research on the other hand focuses on describing and understanding the nature of phenomena and the end result is tentative answers to hypotheses about what has been observed. The most common qualitative methods include case studies, focus groups and interviews (Denscombe 2007). This method of research is primarily exploratory in nature. It is used to gain an understanding of underlying reasons, opinions and motivations revealing the how (process) and why (meaning). It provides insights into the problem or assists in developing ideas or hypotheses for potential quantitative research. The aim of qualitative research may vary with the disciplinary background such as psychologists seeking to gather an in-depth understanding of human behaviour and reasons governing such behaviour. Cooper and Schindler (2014) describe qualitative research as drawing data from sources such as people, organisations, texts, settings, objects and events.

In the conventional view of statisticians, qualitative methods produce information only on the particular cases studied and any more general conclusions are considered propositions (informed assertion). It may begin as a grounded theory approach with the researcher having no previous understanding of the phenomenon, or the study may commence with propositions and proceed in a scientific and empirical manner throughout the research process (Bogdan & Taylor 1990).

Qualitative research is also used to uncover trends in thought and opinions, and dive deeper into the problem. Qualitative data collection methods vary using unstructured or semi-structured techniques. Some common methods include focus groups (group discussion), individual interviews and participation/observation. The sample size is typically small and respondents are selected to fulfil a given quota (Cooper & Schindler 2014). Given the availability of information on the topic qualitative research was not considered for this research study. Therefore an analytical survey method was used, based on a two-pronged approach namely a literature review and quantitative study.

4.3.1 Literature review

The importance of literature review is to evaluate and analyse previous research studies focusing on the existing theme to carefully understand what tourists behaviour is and what influences that behaviour. This step in the research process acts as a basis for the proposed study (Cooper & Schindler 2014). Information was collected from various journal articles, textbooks, scientific databases (for example Emerald, Tourism and Hospitality Index and Science Direct) and other information sources (research reports). Furthermore the Internet was used to search for relevant

and reliable literature. No similar research projects were found on the Nexus Database System of the Human Sciences Research Council's website. The keywords used in this study include *tourists' behaviour*, *travel decision-making process*, *loyalty*, *motivation* and *intention to return*. The results of the literature study were reported in Chapter 2 and 3. The first literature chapter focused on travel behaviour and destination choice. It was mainly found that tourist's motivation and typology may be the key to understand how to attract more visitors, satisfy the needs of current visitors and provide a better understanding of what influences travellers' future decision-making.

The more the destination operators know about travellers' behaviour, such as motivation, intention to return and decision-making process, the better they can plan and satisfy more tourists and then increase repeat visitation. While reviewing all relevant previous research done on travel behaviour, it became clear that it follows patterns and it is important to analyse these aspects to improve the number of tourists repeating visitation. The second literature chapter focused on analysing intentions to return. It was mainly found that intention to return work hand in hand with consumer/tourists' behaviour, which is used to classify these tourists. It was also evident that there are a number of aspects that can influence intention to return and thus a combination of aspects contribute to this phenomenon.

4.3.2 Quantitative Study

As indicated previously, this type of research is in the form of numbers which helps to explain something of interest (Finn *et al.* 2000). These authors indicated that quantitative research is impersonal, controlled and manipulative. In the case of this research it was decided to use questionnaires to collect that data mainly due to the type of respondents and the fact that the research is carried out consistently (Tustin *et al.* 2005). Questions are asked in a formal manner in order to produce the desired information.

4.3.2.1 Questionnaire development

When designing the questionnaire it is important to ensure that the instrument will enable the collection of relevant, comparable data, minimization of biases and motivation of the respondents to participate in the survey (Tustin *et al.* 2005). The validity and reliability of the collected data and the response rate achieved largely depend on the design of the questions, the structure of the questionnaire and the effectiveness of pilot testing (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 1997). The questionnaire (Appendix A) was partially based on a questionnaire developed by Slabbert, Saayman and Van der Merwe (2012), Van Vuuren & Slabbert (2011) and Saayman *et al.* (2009)

which measures the travel behaviour of tourists in various contexts. Different versions have already been tested by the author and other authors in various studies. However, for the sections on travel motivations and intention to return resulted from the in-depth literature review which revealed the aspects to be included in the questionnaire.

This data collection method (questionnaire) has the advantage of being relatively cheap and respondents remain anonymous. Since the essence of the study is explanatory, it also makes a contribution to the development of a questionnaire in this field of study and context of South Africa. Since a pre-test was done among 15 international tourists (international students visiting North-West University and Vaal University of Technology) to South Africa to determine the validity of the questionnaire and whether the respondents understood the questions. Minor adjustments, such as wording and formatting, were made to the questionnaire where necessary and the data was not included in the main dataset.

The questionnaire was divided into four sections, namely Section A: Demographic information, Section B: Factors influencing intentions to return to South Africa, Section C: Reasons for visiting South Africa and Section D: Aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa.

Section A: Demographic Information

Section A consisted of questions on gender, age, country of residence, level of education, marital status, occupation, number of days in South Africa, type of accommodation, number of visits to South Africa, mode of transport to and in South Africa and the number of travel group. Mostly closed-ended questions were used to determine responses concerning demographic information (Moutinho, 2013:5). This was based on the questionnaires of Slabbert *et al.* (2012); Van Vuuren & Slabbert (2011) and Saayman *et al.* (2009).

Section B: Intentions to return to South Africa

This section questions willingness to return to South Africa, willingness to recommend South Africa to family and friends, positive image about South Africa as a holiday destination and bringing more people with when visiting South Africa again. This part was implemented on a 5-point Likert-scale where *1 was totally disagree, 2 was disagree, 3 was not sure, 4 was agree and 5 was totally agree*. This was based on the work of authors such as Bigné *et al.* (2009), Shanka *et al.* (2010), Li and Carr (2004), Yoon and Uysal (2005), Alexandris *et al.* (2006), Chi and Qu (2008) and Shanka *et al.* (2010).

Section C: Reasons for visiting South Africa

Respondents were asked to rate their reasons for visiting South Africa such as to meet new people, to find thrill and excitement, to participate in new activities and so on. This part implemented Likert-scale questions. For travel motivations, a 5-point Likert-scale was implemented, where *1 was totally disagree, 2 was disagree, 3 was not sure, 4 was agree and 5 was totally agree*. This was based on the work of Slabbert *et al.* (2012); Van Vuuren & Slabbert (2011); Saayman *et al.* (2009) and Randle (2011).

Section D: Travel behaviour aspects

Respondents's travel behaviours to and whilst in South Africa were assessed by means of open- and close-ended questions. Aspects influencing respondents' willingness to return to South Africa such as the influence of the Internet, Word-of-mouth, Television programmes about South Africa and so on were assessed on a Likert Scale. For these aspects, a 4-point Likert-scale was implemented where *1 was not at all, 2 was very little, 3 was somewhat and 4 was to a great extent*. This was based on the work of Slabbert and Van Vuuren (2011) and Steyn (2015).

4.3.2.2 Sampling method

Burns and Grove (2003:31) refer to sampling as a process of choosing a group of people, events or behaviour with which to conduct a study. Polit *et al.* (2001:234) confirm that in sampling a portion that signifies the entire population is selected. Sampling is closely linked to generalizability of the findings. There are two categories of sampling, namely probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling utilizes some form of random selection. In order to have a random selection method, one must set up some process or procedure that assures that the different units in the population have equal probabilities of being chosen (Lam & Hsu, 2006).

A core characteristic of non-probability sampling is that samples are selected based on the subjective judgment of the researcher, rather than random selection (i.e. probabilistic methods). Racino (1999) explain that non-probability sampling does not meet this criterion and as any methodological decisions should adjust to the research question one envisages to answer. Non-probability sampling techniques cannot be used to infer from the sample to the general population in statistical terms and thus answer "how-many"-related questions. However, the number of questionnaires also contributes to the generalizability of the data.

In this study the sampling was non-probable and purposive. According to Parahoo (1997:223), in non-probability sampling researchers use their judgment of the phenomenon. Cooper and Schindler (2014:359) describe purposive sampling as a method of sampling by means of which the researcher samples members to conform to some criterion. The rationale for choosing this approach was motivated by the fact that international visitors were the focus of the study and a list of these visitors are not available. Thus in this study only international tourists who were at Table Mountain National Park and more specifically Cableway were purposively chosen to participate in this study.

Table Mountain National Park, located in Cape Town, was proclaimed on 29 May 1988 for the purpose of protecting the natural environment of the Table Mountain Chain and in particular the rare fynbos vegetation. The park is managed by South Africa National Parks and the property is included as part of the UNESCO Cape Floral Region World Heritage Site. Cableway receives a high number of tourists, both domestic and international. Visitor numbers have been meticulously recorded since Table Mountain Cableway started operating on 4 October 1929. In 1957 Cableway recorded its millionth visitor 28 years after it had started operating and by the time the rotating Cable cars were introduced in 1997, the Cableway had hosted 11 million visitors. The 22nd millionth visitor, recorded on 6 November 2012, marked the shortest time taken, namely 15 months, to reach a million visits. Table Mountain Cableway hosted a record-breaking 855 595 visitors between July 2012 and June 2015. Twenty-four million visitors were welcomed on 20 June 2015 (South African National Parks, 2016).

Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) set out the sampling procedure that was used as a guideline for research activities, and the recommended sample was (n) 384 for a population (N) of 1 000 000. Due to the significant number of visitors to the Cableway it was decided to target 800 international respondents to complete the questionnaire and make provision for uncompleted questionnaires.

4.3.2.3 Administration of the questionnaire

Eight hundred questionnaires were thus distributed over a period of two weeks (28 October - 10 September 2016) at the Cable Way (Table Mountain National Park). This provided for different types of international tourists to be included in the sample. Visitors to the Cableway have to queue to gain access to the attraction and after seeking permission from Aerial Cableway the fieldworkers approached the visitors while waiting. If a visitor did not want to participate in the survey the next international visitor in the queue was asked to participate. A screening question

namely: *Are you an international tourist to South Africa?* was asked before handing out the questionnaire. The questionnaires were collected after completion and if there were questions related to the questionnaire the fieldworkers answered these. Since no reference was made to the identity of the respondents they completed the questionnaires anonymously. This process resulted in 720 questionnaires which were completed in full and formed part of the statistical analyses.

4.3.2.4 Statistical analyses

After the questionnaires were collected they were numbered and captured in Microsoft Excel to facilitate the input of the data. The data was then transferred to SPSS (Version 23) and the data was cleaned by correcting data capturing mistakes. Data was then processed by Statistical Services of North West University (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.

4.3.2.4.1 Frequency tables

Frequency tables are used to summarise grouping of data into mutually exclusive classes and the number of occurrences in a class. Frequency tables are thus mainly used to report the quantitative data (Day 2003) as it provides the number pertaining to different categories (Wetcher-Hendricks 2011). In the case of this research frequency tables were used for reporting the demographic information and also information related to the travel behaviour of respondents.

4.3.2.4.2 Factor analysis

In social sciences certain things are measured which can actually not be directly measured (so-called latent variables) and a factor analysis can be used for this purpose. Factor analysis is a multivariate analysis technique used in statistics (Asparouhov & Muthen 2009). It is used to describe variability among observed, correlated variables in terms of a potentially lower number of unobserved variables called factors. For example, it is possible that variations in six observed variables mainly reflect the variations in two unobserved (underlying) variables. Factor analysis searches for such joint variations in response to unobserved latent variables. The observed variables are modelled as linear combinations of the potential factors, plus "error" terms. Factor analysis looks for independent dimensions. Followers of factor analytic methods believe that the information gained about the interdependencies between observed variables can be used later to

reduce the set of variables in a dataset. Factor analysis is used in marketing, product management and operations research. This method of analysis is thus used to reduce a large number of related variables to a more manageable number, prior to using them in other analyses such as multiple regression analysis. Factors are estimated using a mathematical model, whereby only the shared variance is analysed (Pallant 2010).

The factor analysis can thus assist in (Chakrapani 2000):

- Determining the underlying factors, which explain the correlations among a set of variables;
- Identifying a new, smaller set of uncorrelated variables to replace the original set of correlated variables in subsequent multivariate analysis; or
- Identifying a smaller set of relevant variables from a larger set for use in subsequent multivariate analysis.

There are basically two types of factor analysis: exploratory and confirmatory

- Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) attempts to discover the nature of the constructs influencing a set of responses – used in this study.
- Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) tests whether a specified set of constructs is influencing responses in a predicted way.

Exploratory factor analysis is used when the researcher is unsure of the number of factors that will be made up by the existing variables (Zikmund & Babin 2007). This method has proven to be useful in test development, evaluating validity, developing theory and computing factor scores for use in subsequent analysis (Larsen & Warne 2010).

Initial considerations when analysing data by means of a factor analysis relates to the sample size with the reliability of a factor analysis dependent on sample size. The common rule suggests that a researcher has at least 10-15 participants per variable but different opinions exist on this (Field 2005). It has been stated that having 300 is a good sample size for a factor analysis. Therefore the sample size should be adequate to perform a factor analysis and in the case of this study with a sample size of 720 it was deemed appropriate. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) can be used as alternative with the KMO statistic varying between 0 and 1. A value close to 1 indicates that pattern of correlations are relatively compact and the analysis should yield distinct and reliable factors. Values between 0.5 and 0.7 are mediocre,

between 0.7 and 0.8 are good, between 0.8 and 0.9 are great and above 0.9 are superb (Field 2005).

Secondly, it is important to look at the inter-correlation between variables. Variables that do not correlate with any other variables should be excluded before running the factor analysis. SPSS tests this using Bartlett's test of sphericity which should be <0.000 . In the case of this research, exploratory factor analyses were used to analyse respondents' willingness to return, aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa, and reasons for visiting South Africa.

4.3.2.4.3 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

An analysis of variance is used to test for significant differences between two or more samples or groups (Finn *et al.* 2000). Altinay and Paraskevas (2008) explain ANOVA as an analysis technique used to measure the significant mean difference between more than two groups of variables on an interval or ratio level of measurement. ANOVA is used for hypothesis testing regarding the differences among the means of several independent groups (McDaniel & Gates 2002). This involves one independent variable at a number of different levels. An F-ratio is calculated, which represents the variance between the groups divided by the variance within groups. A large F-ratio indicates that there is more variability between the groups than there is within each group (Pallant 2010). In the case of this study ANOVA's were used to compare travel motivations and willingness to return by marital status and occupation.

4.3.2.4.4 *t*-tests

A *t*-test compares the values on some continuous variable for two groups or on two occasions (Pallant 2010). It is used to determine the mean difference between two unrelated groups, for example male and female (Bryman & Cramer 2008). The means of two sets of data and their standard deviations are compared to determine the differences between the two groups (Denscombe 2007; Altanay & Paraskevas 2008; Brotherto 2008). In the case of this study *t*-tests were used to analyse travel motivations and willingness to return by gender, type of accommodation and type of transport.

4.3.2.4.5 Spearman Rank Order Correlations

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. Spearman 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 correlations 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

In the case of this study relationships were determined between travel motivations, between willingness to return factors and between travel motivations and willingness to return factors.

4.4 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the research design and methodology applied in the research. The research design used for this study was mostly descriptive in nature by implementing a quantitative research method, namely a survey. The research process was well-structured and followed a specific plan. From the 800 distributed questionnaires 720 were used in the statistical analysis. A variety of statistical analyses were done which include frequency tables, exploratory factor analyses, *t*-tests, ANOVA's and Spearman Rank Order correlations. Each method was utilized to gain information that would solve the question. The research results will be presented and discussed next in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL ANALYSES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of research is to discover answers to questions by applying scientific procedures. The main aim of research is to establish the hidden truth and which has not been discovered as yet (Creswell 2013). Research in common parlance refers to a search for knowledge. One can also define research as a scientific and systematic search for pertinent information on a specific topic. In fact research is art of scientific investigation (Huberman 2014).

Though each research study has its own specific purpose there are some general research objectives such as to gain familiarity with a phenomenon or to achieve new insights into it (studies with this objective in view are termed as exploratory or formulative research studies), to portray accurately the characteristics of a particular individual, situation or group (studies with this objective in view are known as descriptive research studies), to determine the frequency with which something occurs or with which it is associated with something else (studies with this objective in view are known as diagnostic research studies) and to test a hypothesis or a causal relationship between variables (such studies are known as hypothesis-testing research) (Yin 2013).

In the previous chapter's background, literature was obtained regarding travel behaviour, travel motivation and intentions to return to a destination as well as predictors of returning to a destination. The purpose of this chapter is to analyse the empirical data gathered at Cable Way (Table Mountain National Park, South Africa) to assess the predictors of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa as a tourism destination. Discussions on the quantitative research results will assist in realising the above-mentioned purpose of the study. Eight hundred questionnaires were distributed of which seven hundred and twenty (720) questionnaires were usable for statistical analyses. The first section of Chapter 5 focuses on the descriptive results of the study.

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS

Before analysing the travel behaviour of respondents it is important to understand who the respondents are. In this section attention is given to the demographic information and travel behaviour of respondents.

5.2.1 Demographic information

Table 5.1: Demographic information of respondents

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	PERCENTAGE
Gender	Male	55%
	Female	45%
Age	25 years and younger	11.4%
	26-35 years	30.8%
	36-45 years	27%
	46-55 years	13.5%
	56-65 years	11.1%
	66+ years	6.2%
	Average age of respondents	40.74 years
Country (Only main countries listed)	Australia	8.9%
	France	6.5%
	Germany	7%
	Netherland	8.7%
	United States of America	16.9%
	United Kingdom	10.4%
Education	No school	0.7%
	Matric	3.9%
	Diploma/Degree	53.6%
	Postgraduate	39.4%
	Other	2.4%
Marital status	Single	18.4%
	In a relationship	13.1%
	Engaged	3.5%
	Married	61.8%
	Divorced	1.5%
	Widow/er	1.5%

	Other	0.2%
Occupation	Professional	24.1%
	Management	17.4%
	Self-employed	6.4%
	Technical	12.0%
	Sales	4.5%
	Administration	5.6%
	Civil service	3.3%
	Education	10%
	Pensioner	6.4%
	Student	6.4%
	Other	3.9%

5.2.1.1 Gender

It is clear from Table 5.1 that the majority of respondents were males (55%) and forty-five percent (45%) of the respondents were females.

5.2.1.2 Age

Age was captured as an open question and it was thus categorised according to certain groups. More specifically age was sub-divided into six (6) categories. Most of the respondents were between ages 26 and 35 years (30.8%) followed by those between ages 36 and 45 years (27%). Very few respondents were younger than 25 (11.4%) and older than 66 (6.2%). The average age of respondents was 40.74 years.

5.2.1.3 Country of residence

The majority of respondents that participated in the research as indicated in Table 5.1 originate from USA (16.9%) followed by respondents from the United Kingdom (10.4%). Australian respondents represented 8.9% of the sample, France 6.5%, the Netherlands 8.7% and Germany 7%. These are the main target markets to South Africa (only the main countries of origin are reported and thus the total does not add up to 100%).

5.2.1.4 Level of education

According to Table 5.1 the majority of respondents holds a diploma/degree (53.6%) and 39.4% holds a post-graduate qualification. It is evident that international visitors to South Africa are well-educated since only 3.9% have matric and 0.7% had no schooling.

5.2.1.5 Marital status

The majority of respondents to South Africa are married (61.8%) with 18.4% being single. Thirteen point one percent (13.1%) was in a relationship, 3.5% was engaged, 1.5% were widow/er and 1.5% were divorced (see Table 5.1).

5.2.1.6 Occupation

It is clear from Table 5.1 that the majority of the respondents to South Africa were professionals (for example a doctor or lawyer) (24.1%) followed by 17.4% that were in management positions. It is also evident that 12% of the respondents were in technical occupations and 10% in education.

Thus respondents in this study were mainly 40 years old, married males from the USA, with either a degree or a diploma in either professional or management positions. This agrees to a large extent with the data analysed by South African Tourism (South African Tourism 2015).

5.2.2 Analysing travel behaviour

In this section attention is given to respondents' travel behaviour such as length of stay in South Africa, type of accommodation and number of visits to South Africa.

Table 5.2: Travel behaviour of respondents

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	PERCENTAGE	
Length of stay in South Africa	1-7 days	12.8%	
	8-14 days	37.6%	
	15-21 days	34.1%	
	22-28 days	8.5 %	
	29-37 days	5.6%	
	43+ days	1.5%	
	Average length of stay	16 days	
Type of accommodation		YES	NO
	Family & friends	20%	80%
	Guesthouse or B&B	35.8%	64.2%
	Hotel	71%	29%
	Backpackers	7.8%	92.2%
	Lodges	45.4%	54.6%
	Other	4.1%	95.9%
Number of visits to South Africa	First-time	73.8%	
	2-5 times	23%	
	6-13 times	2.4%	
	14+ times	0.8%	
	Average number of visits	1.68	
Reasons for visiting South Africa (Could choose more than one option)	Holiday/Leisure	85.7%	
	Business	8.6%	
	Visit friends or family	6.8%	
	Sport	1.1%	
	Shopping	1.3%	
	Adventure	13.2%	
	Culture/Historic	6.9%	
	Medical	3%	
Mode of transport to and in South Africa.		YES	NO
	Airline	100%	0%
	Rental car	41.3%	58.7%
	Bus	45.6%	54.4%
	Train	3.6%	96.4%
	Other	88.1%	11.9%
	1 person	10.7%	

Number of people in the travel group to South Africa	2 persons	44.6%
	3 persons	12.3%
	4-5 persons	18.1%
	6-10 persons	9.2%
	11+ persons	5.1%
	Average number of people in the travel group	3.71

5.2.2.1 Number of days in South Africa

The number of days spent in South Africa was formulated as an open question and thus categorisation was deemed appropriate. Thirty-seven point six percent of the respondents spent between 8 and 14 days in South Africa followed by those that spent between 15 and 21 days (34.1%). The average length of stay in South Africa was 16 days. The latter was longer than the 9.5 days as determined by South African Tourism in 2015 (South African Tourism 2015) and 9.2 days in 2016 (South African Tourism 2016).

5.2.2.2 Type of accommodation

The most preferred type of accommodation as indicated by Table 5.2 was hotels (71%) followed by lodges (45.4%). Guesthouses or B&Bs represented thirty-five point eight percent of the sample and family and friends twenty percent. There is a clear preference for serviced accommodation in South Africa by international visitors.

5.2.2.3 Number of visits to South Africa

The number of visits to South Africa were sub-divided into four categories, first-time, visited 2-5 times, 6-13 times and 14+ times. From Table 5.2 it can be seen that the majority of the respondents to South Africa were visiting for the first time (73.8%). Twenty three percent (23%) of the respondents were visiting for between the second and fifth time. These respondents thus are fairly new to South Africa as a tourism destination (average number of visits is 1.68). This correlates very well with the market research discussed in earlier chapters.

5.2.2.4 Reasons for visiting South Africa

Table 5.2 revealed that 85.7% visited South Africa for holiday and leisure reasons, followed by those that travelled here to experience adventure (13.2%), to conduct business (8.6%), visit cultural/historic attractions (6.9%) and visit family and friends (6.8%). (More than one option could

be chosen which is why the percentages do not calculate to 100%). In this regard according to South African National Department of Tourism: Tourism quarterly factsheet 20 November 2017, international (global) tourism arrival performance (Apr-June 2017) there was an increase recorded in the key inbound tourism indicators of which leisure (69.1%), business (18.2%), medical (1.4%) and religion (2.2%).

5.2.2.5 Mode of transport to and in South Africa

From the table (Table 5.2) above it can be seen that hundred percent (100%) of respondents used airplane as their mode of transport to South Africa. When travelling in the country forty-five point six percent (45.6%) of the respondents preferred a bus and 41.3% used car rental as their mode of transport. The least preferred mode of transport was by train (3.6%).

5.2.2.6 Number of people in the travel group

The number of people in the travel group was sub-divided into six categories, one person, two persons, three persons, four to five persons, six to ten persons (6-10), eleven and more persons. From the results shown in the table above it can be observed that 44.6% of the respondents travel in pairs, followed by those travelling in groups of four to five people (18.1%) and three people (12.3%). The average number of people in the travelling group was 3.71.

In summary these respondents were mainly visiting South Africa for the first time, travelling in groups of 3.17 people and they stay on average 16 days. They arrived in South Africa by air, preferably stay in hotels and visit mainly for leisure purposes. This information agrees with the research done by South African Tourism (2016).

5.2.3 The South African visiting experience

This section focuses on travel motivations, communication of South Africa as well as attractions and experiences in South Africa.

5.2.3.1 Travel motivations to South Africa

According to Table 5.3 respondents *totally agreed* to the following reasons for visiting South Africa: to appreciate natural resources (67.4%), while (65.4%) to enjoy the beautiful scenery, to sightsee tourists sports (58.6%), others to visit a place that have not visited before and (48.7%) to learn something new and interesting.

Respondents *agreed* to the following reasons for visiting South Africa: to enjoy the good physical amenities (44.7%), to participate in new activities (43.2%), to satisfy the desire to be somewhere else (43.2%) and to view historical cultural attractions (42.9%).

According to Table 5.3 respondents totally disagreed with the following reasons for visiting South Africa: to visit friends and relatives (45.8%), to live or stay temporarily with local communities (43.2%) and to increase social status (42.8%). South African Tourism (2016) indicated that foreign visitors travel to South Africa mostly for leisure purposes and to visit family and friends.

Table 5.3: Specific travel motivations

TRAVEL MOTIVATION	TOTALLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NOT SURE	AGREE	TOTALLY AGREE	MEAN & STANDARD DEVIATION
To relax	4.3%	6.8%	10.7%	35.7%	42.5%	4.05 (±1.09)
To relax spiritually	5.1%	11.4%	21.8%	31.9%	29.8%	3.70 (±1.16)
To participate in new activities	1.9%	1.8%	8.4%	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	1.7%	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%	3.10 (±1.06)
To interact with unknown local residences	4%	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%	17.7%	2.45 (±1.58)
To live or stay temporarily with local communities	43.2%	17.5%	11.8%	16.0%	11.5%	2.35 (±1.45)
To increase my social status	42.8%	19.9%	14.3%	12.2%	10.8%	2.29 (±1.40)
To visit a destination that would impress friends & family	18.9%	11.9%	12.9%	33.8%	22.5%	3.29 (±1.43)
To satisfy the desire to be somewhere else	9.7%	5.3%	14.4%	43.2%	27.4%	3.73 (±1.20)
To fulfil my dream of visiting a foreign country	8.3%	13.6%	21.5%	35.1%	21.5%	3.48 (±1.20)
To have an enjoyable time with my travel companion(s)	5.8%	3.1%	11.1%	35.6%	44.4%	4.10 (±1.10)
To be away from home	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 (±1.18)
To learn something new and interesting	5.1%	3.2%	8.5%	35.0%	48.2%	4.18 (±1.06)
To visit a place that I have not 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 (±0.10)

To visit historical cultural attractions	2.9%	5.7%	16.8%	42.9%	31.7%	3.94 (± 0.99)
To enjoy 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)
Because it is a safe destination	3.1%	11.0%	29.2%	36.8%	20.0%	3.60 (± 1.22)
Because It is easy to access as a tourism destination	1.9%	6.9%	24.8%	39.7%	26.7%	3.82 (± 0.97)

The mean values revealed that respondents travel to South Africa to appreciate its natural resources ($\bar{x} = 4.54$) followed by enjoying the beautiful scenery ($\bar{x} = 4.49$). Respondents also highlighted the importance of sightseeing tourist spots ($\bar{x} = 4.43$), participating in new activities ($\bar{x} = 4.27$) and to find thrills and excitement ($\bar{x} = 4.25$). The lowest mean value was obtained for travelling to increase one's social status ($\bar{x} = 2.29$). The results published by South African Tourism (2016) indicated preferences for shopping, eating out and night life activities.

5.2.3.2 Communication about South Africa

Table 5.4: Heard about South Africa

COMMUNICATION ABOUT SOUTH AFRICA	MEDIA	PERCENTAGE
Heard about South Africa (Respondents could choose more than one option and therefore percentage do not calculate to 100%)	Television	29%
	Radio	1.7%
	Internet website	29.4%
	Newspaper	8.2%
	Word-of-mouth	51.1%
	Social media	6.7%
	Travel agent	10.3%
	Travel guide	7.1%

It is clear from Table 5.4 that the majority of the respondents had heard about South Africa through word-of-mouth (51.1%), followed by the Internet website (29.4%) and television (29%). Travel agents (10.3%) also played a role in news/information about South Africa as well as newspapers (8.2%) and travel guides (7.1%). Interesting to note is that social media is among those with the lowest percentage (6.7%).

5.2.3.3 Attractions and experiences in South Africa

According to Table 5.5 the most popular attraction visited by respondents was Table Mountain National Park (100%) followed by Victoria and Alfred Waterfront (92.9%), National Parks (81%) and Robben Island (65.7%). Three of these are situated in Cape Town (Western Cape) where the survey was conducted. These popular attractions were followed by visits to Johannesburg (60.6%) and the Garden Route (60.3%). The least visited attractions were Cradle of Humankind (34.4%) and the winelands (35%).

Respondents had to indicate their favourite attraction. It was clear from the responses that Table Mountain was the most favoured by the respondents, followed by National Parks, V & A Waterfront and lastly Robben Island. Lest favoured by the respondents was winelands and cradle of humankind.

Table 5.5: Visited attractions

VISITED ATTRACTION	PERCENTAGE
Table Mountain National Park	100%
Garden Route	60.3%
V & A Waterfront	92.9%
JHB	60.6%
Robben Island	65.7%
Winelands	35%
Cradle Of Humankind	34.4%
National Parks	81.3%
Durban Beach Front	35.7%
Sun City	40.7%
Cultural Villages	40.8%

(Respondents could choose more than one option and therefore percentage do not calculate to 100%)

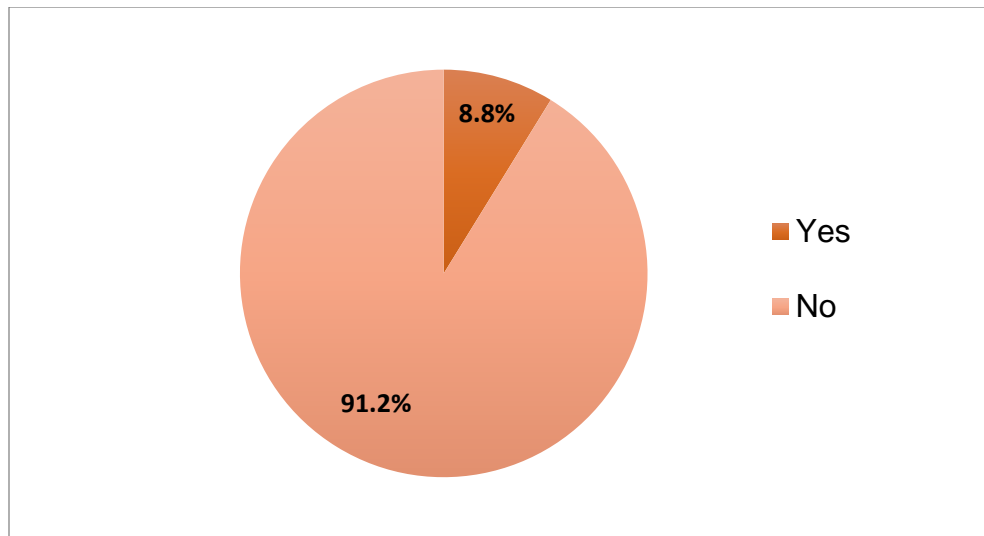


Figure 5.1: Negative experiences in South Africa

It is clear from Figure 5.1 that the majority of the respondents agreed that they had no negative experiences in South Africa (91.2%) with only (8.8%) indicating exposure to negative experiences in South Africa. Some of the negative impacts stated by the respondents were poor customer service, acts such as xenophobia, problems with meter taxis leading to over-charging and Uber-drivers not arriving on time and lastly crime such as robbery, corrupted police officers and crime.

5.2.4 Descriptive analyses of intentions to return to South Africa

In this section attention is given to respondents' willingness to return to South Africa as a tourism destination.

5.2.4.1 Rating of willingness to return to South Africa

According to Table 5.6 respondents *totally agreed* with the following statements: I am willing to recommend South Africa to family & friends (57.9%), I am willing to return to South Africa in the future (52.8%), I will visit new attractions other than those that I already visited (44.7%) and I want to bring more people with me when visiting South Africa again (44%).

Table 5.6: Rating of willingness to return to South Africa

INTENTION TO RETURN	TOTALLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NOT SURE	AGREE	TOTALLY AGREE	MEAN & STANDARD DEVIATION
I am willing to return to South Africa in the future	0.4%	0.8%	7.8%	38.2%	52.8%	4.42 (± 0.71)
I am willing to recommend South Africa to family & friends as a holiday destination	0.5%	1.1%	7.6%	32.9%	57.9%	4.47 (±0.72)
I have positive image of South Africa as a holiday destination	0.7%	0.6%	18.5%	41.4%	38.8%	4.17 (±0.80)
I will visit new attractions other than those that I already visited in South Africa	0.7%	1.8%	14.3%	38.5%	44.7%	4.25 (±0.82)
I feel I am loyal to South Africa as a destination choice	1.7%	6.7%	30.8%	35.7%	25.1%	3.76 (±0.96)
I spend more money during this trip than anticipated	2.6%	14.3%	31.4%	26.3%	25.4%	3.58 (±1.10)
When I visit South Africa again I will stay longer than the current trip	1.4%	5.4%	25.8%	27.4%	40%	3.10 (±1.00)
I will return to the same attractions that I visited during this trip	2.6%	6.7%	35.8%	24.6%	30.3%	3.73 (±1.05)
I want to bring more people with me when visiting South Africa again	1.7%	4.5%	21.3%	28.5%	44%	4.09 (±0.10)

According to Table 5.6 respondents *agreed* with the following statements: I have a positive image of South Africa as a holiday destination (41.4%) and I feel I am loyal to South Africa as a destination choice (35.7%). Respondents were *not sure* of the following statements: I will return to the same attractions that I visited during this trip (35.8%) and I spend more money during this trip than anticipated (31.4%).

On a positive note it is clear that respondents are willing to recommend South Africa to friends and family ($\bar{x} = 4.47$) and that they themselves are willing to return to this country ($\bar{x} = 4.42$). When visiting South Africa again respondents will visit other attractions than those they have visited already ($\bar{x} = 4.25$) and it is good to know that they have a positive image of South Africa as a holiday destination ($\bar{x} = 4.17$).

5.2.4.2 Aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa as a tourism destination

According to Table 5.7 respondents *agreed to a great extent* that the following aspects influence their willingness to return to South Africa: own tourism experience (66.3%), the fact that one cannot experience all in one trip (64%), satisfaction with the tourism products in South Africa (49.2%), and the type of tourism products offered in South Africa (37.1%).

Respondents *agreed somewhat* that the following aspects influence their willingness to return to South Africa: image of South Africa (54.2%), safety and security (47.9%), political climate (46.3%) and the people of South Africa (45%).

According to Table 5.7 respondents *agreed very little* with the following aspects that influence their return to South Africa: television programmes about South Africa (40.7%) and news/media on South Africa (34.3%).

Table 5.7: Aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa

ASPECTS INFLUENCING WILLINGNESS TO RETURN	NOT AT ALL	VERY LITTLE	SOMEWHAT	TO A GREAT EXTENT	MEAN & STANDARD DEVIATION
News/Media on South Africa	22.5%	34.3%	28.9%	14.3%	2.35 (± 0.98)
Family and friends (word-of-mouth)	14.8%	31.4%	26.4%	27.4%	2.66 (± 1.03)
The exchange rate	10%	29%	36.8%	24.2%	2.75 (± 0.93)
The type of tourism products offered by South Africa	5.7%	20.4%	36.8%	37.1%	3.05 (± 0.90)
The people of South Africa	4.7%	22.7%	45.0%	27.6%	2.96 (± 0.83)
Television programmes about South Africa	22.9%	40.7%	21.8%	14.6%	2.28 (± 0.97)
Political climate	9.5%	21.0%	46.3%	23.2%	2.83 (± 0.89)
Safety & security	5.1%	16.4%	47.9%	30.6%	3.04 (± 0.82)
Own tourism experiences in South Africa	2.4%	7.1%	24.2%	66.3%	3.54 (± 0.73)
The fact that one cannot experience all in one trip	2.2%	9.8%	24.0%	64%	3.45 (± 0.76)
Internet	25.2%	30.6%	28.1%	16.1%	2.35 (± 1.03)
My image of South Africa	1.5%	10.7%	54.2%	33.6%	3.20 (± 0.68)
Satisfaction with the tourism products in South Africa	1.9%	9.7%	39.2%	49.2%	3.35 (± 0.74)

It is clear from the mean values that respondents' own tourism experiences influence their willingness to return ($\bar{x} = 3.54$) as well as the fact that everything cannot be seen in one trip ($\bar{x} = 3.45$). Respondents' satisfaction with the tourism products in South Africa also contributes to their willingness to return ($\bar{x} = 3.35$). The least influential aspects were television programmes ($\bar{x} = 2.28$), the media ($\bar{x} = 2.35$) and the Internet ($\bar{x} = 2.35$).

5.3 EXPLORATORY AND INFERENCE STATISTICS

Exploratory research refers to research into an area that has not been studied before to the same extent as the current study (Struwig & Stead 2004). Exploratory data analysis is generally cross-classified in two ways. First, each method is either non-graphical or graphical. Second, each method is either invariable or multivariable (usually just bivariate) (Polit & Hungler 2001).

Exploratory data analysis is an approach to data analysis that postpones the usual assumptions about what kind of model the data follow with a more direct approach of following the data itself to reveal its underlying structure and model (Painter & Rigsby 2005). It is not a mere collection of techniques: exploratory data analysis is a philosophy pertaining to how a data set is analysed: what to look for, how to look and how to interpret. It is true that exploratory data analysis heavily uses the collection of techniques called “statistical graphics” but it is not identical to statistical graphics per se (Randle 2011). For purposes of this study factor analyses were conducted to explore certain patterns in the data. This included exploratory factor analysis of reasons for visiting South Africa and willingness to return to South Africa.

Inferential statistics are used to infer from the sample data, what the population might think or to make judgements of the probabilities that an observed difference between groups is a dependable one or one that might have happened by chance. With inferential statistics, the researcher is attempting to reach conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data alone (Charmaz 2000). In the case of this study ANOVA's were used to compare travel motivations and willingness to return by marital status and occupation. *t*-tests were used to analyse travel motivations and willingness to return by gender, type of accommodation and type of transport. Spearman Rank Order Correlations were used to analyse the relationships between travel motivations, between willingness to return factors and between travel motivations and willingness to return factors.

5.3.1 In-depth analysis of reasons for visiting South Africa

To examine the factors underlying travel motivations, a principal axis factor analysis with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was undertaken. The twenty five motivations yielded five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Field 2005). The Scree plot in Figure 5.2 represents travel motivation factors. These factors explained 58% of the variance and were labelled: *Relax and novelty*, *Social motivations*, *Cultural motivations*, *Personal motivations* and *Product motivations*. All aspects had factor loadings of over 0.30. Stevens (1992) stated that the significance of a factor

loading will depend on the sample size and recommends that for a sample size of 1 000 it should be larger than 0.162. Reliability (Cronbach's α) was computed to verify the internal consistency of aspects with each factor. Besides one factor, all the other factors had a Cronbach Alpha above 0.65 which was deemed acceptable for purposes of this exploratory study (Pallant 2010). The Bartlett test of sphericity was significant ($p < 0.001$) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure sampling adequacy (KMO) was 0.857, which is acceptable.

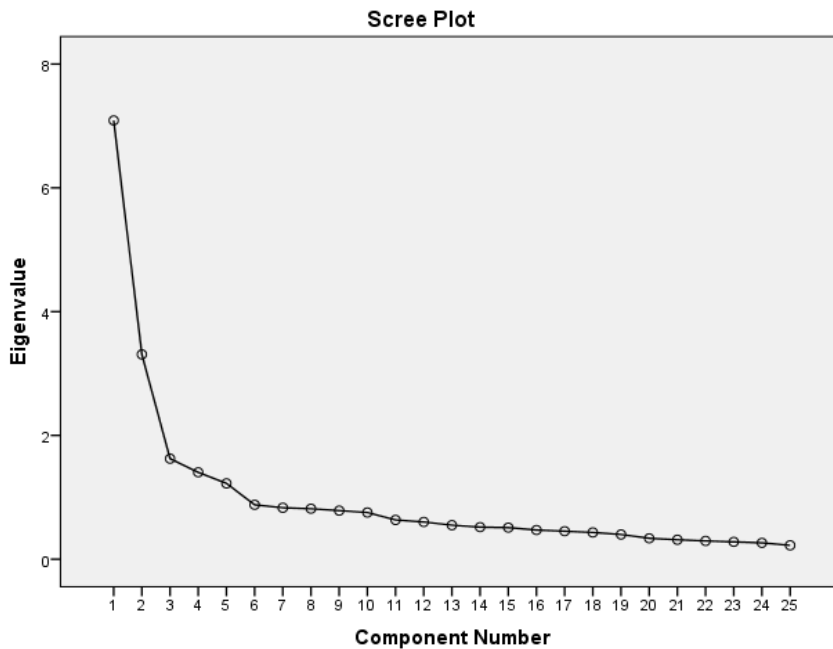


Figure 5.2: Scree plot for travel motivation factors

Table 5.8: Factor analyses for travel motivations

TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS TO SOUTH AFRICA	FACTOR LOADINGS				
FACTOR LABELS	RELAX AND NOVELTY	SOCIAL MOTIVATIONS	CULTURAL MOTIVATIONS	PERSONAL MOTIVATIONS	PRODUCT MOTIVATIONS
RELAX AND NOVELTY					
To meet new people	.745				
To find thrills and excitement	.744				
To participate in new activities	.684				
To relax spiritually	.662				
To interact with unknown local residents	.603				
To relax physically.	.541				
To sightsee touristic spots	.530				
To appreciate natural resources	.461				

TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS TO SOUTH AFRICA	FACTOR LOADINGS				
FACTOR LABELS	RELAX AND NOVELTY	SOCIAL MOTIVATIONS	CULTURAL MOTIVATIONS	PERSONAL MOTIVATIONS	PRODUCT MOTIVATIONS
SOCIAL MOTIVATIONS					
To increase my social status		.793			
To stay temporary with local communities		.780			
To visit friends and relatives		.688			
To seek solitude in foreign land		.652			
CULTURAL MOTIVATIONS					
To visit historical and cultural attractions			.632		
To enjoy local cuisine			.631		
To visit a place that I have not visited before			.574		
To enjoy beautiful scenery			.354		
PERSONAL MOTIVATIONS					
To satisfy the desire to be somewhere else				.786	
To be away from home				.574	
To have an enjoyable time with travel companion (s)				.556	
To fulfil my dream of visiting a foreign country				.553	
To visit a destination that would impress my friends and family				.472	
To learn something new and interesting				.424	
PRODUCT MOTIVATIONS					
Because it is easy to access as a tourism destination					.837
Because it is a safe destination					.825
To enjoy the good physical amenities					.319
Cronbach Alpha Value	.821	.718	.574	.682	.652
Inter-item correlations	.418	.273	.269	.305	.384
Mean value and Standard Deviation	4.12 (±0.66)	2.89 (±0.94)	3.91 (±0.76)	3.75 (±0.80)	3.78 (±0.76)

Table 5.9: Component Correlation Matrix

Component	Relax and Novelty	Social motivations	Cultural motivations	Personal motivations	Product motivations
Relax and Novelty	1.000	.071	.262	.362	.345
Social motivations	.071	1.000	-.012	.035	.161
Cultural motivations	.262	-.012	1.000	.213	.085
Personal motivations	.362	.035	.213	1.000	.265
Product motivations	.345	.161	.085	.265	1.000

The component correlation matrix indicates small to medium correlations (0.392) between the factors and therefore they can relatively be seen as individual factors (Table 5.9).

Factor 1 was labelled *Relax and Novelty* with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.821 and an inter-item correlation of 0.418. *Relax and Novelty* had a mean score of 4.12 (± 0.66) which shows that respondents' travel motivations were to relax and seek novelty when they travel. The factor included motivations such as to meet new people, to find thrill and excitement, to participate in new activities, to relax spiritually, to interact with unknown local residents, to relax physically, to sightsee touristic spots and to appreciate natural resources. Crompton (1977) identified rest and relaxation as escaping from everyday environment as a travel motivation with Locker and Perdue (1992) as well as Scheider and Backman (1996) only referring to it as escape. Chang (2007) labelled these items as relaxation and pleasure and Saayman, Slabbert and Van Der Merwe (2009), Backman, Uysal and Sunshine (1995), Mohammad and Som (2010), Zolton and Masiero (2012) and Som, Marzuki, Yousefi and AbuKhalifeh (2012) all identified travel motivations related to rest and relaxation. It is important that this should be a key aspect in the development of an effective and successful marketing plan. South Africa as a tourism destination should focus on these aspects, which indicate ultimate resting and relaxation for tourists visiting the destination, when developing marketing strategies.

Factor 2 was labelled *Social motivations* with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.718 and an inter item correlation of 0.273. *Social motivations* had a mean score of 2.89 (± 0.95) which shows that respondents' travel motivations were to socialise. Social motivations constituted aspects such as: increasing social status, staying temporarily with local communities, visiting friends and relatives and seeking solitude in a foreign land. Social motivations indicated similarities with research done

by Crompton (1977), Backman, Backman, Uysal and Sunshine (1995), Correia, Oom do Valle and Moco (2007), Lee, Lee and Wicks (2004) and Schneider and Backman (1996), Swanson and Horridge (2006), Chang (2007), Mohammad and Som (2010) and Som, Marzuki, Yousefi and AbuKhalifeh (2012). All these authors found socialization to be an important and relevant travel motivation. It is important to consider the social aspects and develop opportunities for tourists to socialise.

Factor 3 was labelled *Cultural motivations* with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.574 and an inter-item correlation of 0.269. *Cultural motivations* had a mean score of 3.91 (± 0.76) which included aspects such as visiting historical and cultural attractions, enjoying local cuisine, visiting a place not visited before and enjoying beautiful scenery. Cultural tourism has been suggested as a major tourism activity that contributes to host residents and communities (Gretzel, 2010; Kasavana, Nusair & Teodosic 2010). The same type of activities was identified as History and Culture and Variety Seeking by Mohamad and Som (2010).

Factor 4 was labelled *Personal motivations* with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.682 and an inter-item correlation of 0.305. *Personal motivations* had a mean score of 3.75 (± 0.80) which shows that respondents' travel motivations were related to satisfying the desire to be somewhere else, to be away from home, to have an enjoyable time with travel companion(s), to fulfil a dream of visiting a foreign country.

Factor 5 was labelled *Product motivations* with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.652 and an inter-item correlation of 0.384. Product motivations had a mean score of 3.78 (± 0.76) showing the importance of this groups of motivations including easy access to SA, safety at the destination and enjoying the good physical amenities. It is important to adhere to the needs of tourists as product motivations make the product more accessible (Cox, 2009). Fourie (2015) found safety to be one of the deterrents to travel to South Africa that needs to be addressed.

Based on the mean values it was clear that *Relax and novelty* was the most important travel motivation to South Africa, followed by *Cultural motivations*. When potential tourists make choices concerning destinations, in this case South Africa, these motivations influence the choices.

5.3.2 In-depth analysis of aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa

To examine the factors underlying the aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa, a principal axis factor analysis with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was undertaken. The thirteen aspects yielded four factors with eigenvalues larger than 1.0 (Field 2005), see the scree plot (Figure 5.3). These factors explained 62.71% of the variance and were labelled: *Communication, Experience, Safety and Tourism Offering*. All aspects had factor loadings of over 0.40. Stevens (1992) stated that the significance of a factor loading will depend on the sample size and recommends that for a sample size of 1 000 it should be larger than 0.162. Reliability (Cronbach's α) was computed to verify the internal consistency of aspects with each factor. All factors with a Cronbach Alpha above 0.61 were deemed acceptable for the purposes of this exploratory study (Pallant 2010). The Bartlett test of sphericity was significant ($p < 0.001$) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure sampling adequacy (KMO) was 0.772, which are acceptable.

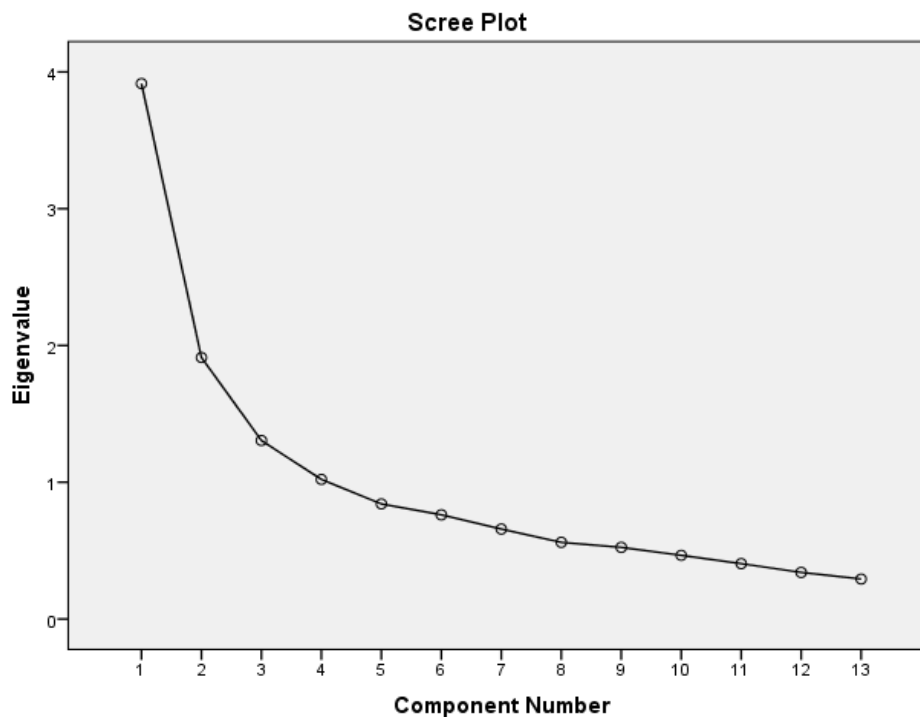


Figure 5.3: Scree plot of factors

Table 5.10: Component Correlation Matrix

COMPONENT	COMMUNICATION	EXPERIENCE	SAFETY	TOURISM OFFERING
COMMUNICATION	1.000	.041	-.186	-.334
EXPERIENCE	.041	1.000	-.117	-.149
SAFETY	-.186	-.117	1.000	.204
TOURISM OFFERING	-.334	-.149	.204	1.000

The component correlation matrix indicates small to medium correlations between the factors indicating their independence (see Table 5.10).

Table 5.11: Factor analyses for aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa

WILLINGNESS TO RETURN ASPECTS	FACTOR LOADINGS			
FACTOR LABEL	COMMUNICATION	EXPERIENCE	SAFETY	TOURISM OFFERING
Communication				
Internet	.836			
Word-of-mouth	.653			
Television programmes about South Africa	.634			
News/Media on South Africa	.632			
Experience				
My own tourism experiences in South Africa		.710		
My satisfaction with tourism products		.685		
One cannot experience all in one trip		.669		
My image of South Africa		.537		
Safety				
Political climate			-.863	
Safety and security			-.804	
Tourism offering				
The type of tourism products offered by South Africa				-.891
The exchange rate				-.697
The people of south Africa				-.405
Cronbach Alpha Value	.775	.640	.792	.610
Inter-item correlations	.464	.308	.658	.342
Mean value and Standard Deviation	2.41(±0.78)	3.40(±0.50)	2.91(±0.78)	2.10(±0.67)

Factor 1 was labelled *Communication* with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.775 and an inter-item correlation of 0.465. *Communication* had a mean score of 2.41 (± 0.78) showing that willingness to return to South Africa is influenced by aspects such as Internet, Word-of-mouth messages, Television, programmes about South Africa and News/media on South Africa. So much money is spent on marketing and it is important to ensure return-on-investment in this regard. Organisations rely on communication with tourists through various channels to market their products and build customer relationships (Poon 1993). Kasavana, Nusair and Teodosic (2010) highlighted the importance of communication as a tool for promoting products and services in tourism marketing.

Factor 2 was labelled *Experience* with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.640 and an inter-item correlation of 0.308. *Experience* had a mean score of 3.40 (± 0.50) which includes aspects such as own tourism experiences about South Africa, satisfaction with South African tourism products, the fact that one cannot experience all in one trip and the image of South Africa. Satisfaction with the travel experience was also highlighted as important by Chi and Qu (2008), Jang and Feng (2007) as well as Alexandris *et al.* (2006). Factor 3 was labelled *Safety* with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.792 and an inter-item correlation of 0.658. *Safety* had a mean score of 2.91 (± 0.78) which shows the influence on willingness of respondents to return to this destination.

Factor 4 was labelled *Tourism offering* with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.610 and an inter-item correlation of 0.342. *Tourism offering* had a mean score of 2.10 (± 0.67) which included aspects such as the type of tourism products offered by South Africa, the exchange rates and the people of South Africa. The importance of destination attributes was emphasized by Mostafavi Shirazi and Mat Som (2010).

5.3.3 In-depth analysis of factors influencing travel motivations and willingness to return

The influence of demographic characteristics on travel motivation preferences and willingness to return to South Africa is analysed by means of *t*-tests or ANOVA's below.

5.3.3.1 Comparison of travel motivations by gender

Table 5.12: Comparison of travel motivations by gender

GENDER	MALE	FEMALE	p-value
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	
Relax and Novelty	4.10 (± 0.66)	4.14 (± 0.67)	0.450
Social motivation	2.80 (± 0.91)	2.98 (± 0.97)	0.010*
Cultural motivation	3.85 (± 0.75)	3.98 (± 0.77)	0.015*
Personal motivation	3.68 (± 0.78)	3.84 (± 0.81)	0.009*
Product motivation	3.78 (± 0.70)	3.78 (± 0.84)	0.907

* $p < 0.05$

It is evident from the *t*-test results reflected in Table 5.12 that three significant differences exist for travel motivations and gender. Females considered social motivations (Female: $\bar{x}=2.98$; Male: $\bar{x}=2.80$), cultural motivations (Female: $\bar{x}=3.98$; Male: $\bar{x}=3.85$) and personal motivations (Female: $\bar{x}=3.84$; Male: $\bar{x}=3.68$) more important than did males.

5.3.3.2 Comparison of travel motivations by type of accommodation

Table 5.13: Comparison of travel motivations by type of accommodation

TYPE OF ACCOMMODATION	YES	NO	
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
FAMILY OR FRIENDS			
Relax and Novelty	4.21 (± 0.63)	4.10 (± 0.67)	0.060
Social motivation	3.26 (± 0.88)	2.79 (± 0.93)	0.000*
Cultural motivation	3.88 (± 0.70)	3.91 (± 0.77)	0.642
Personal motivation	3.89 (± 0.76)	3.71 (± 0.80)	0.016*
Product motivation	3.91 (± 0.80)	3.75 (± 0.75)	0.018*

TYPE OF ACCOMMODATION	YES	NO	
GUESTHOUSE OR BED & BREAKFAST			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Relax and Novelty	4.13 (± 0.67)	4.12 (± 0.66)	0.886
Social motivation	2.96 (± 0.92)	2.84 (± 0.95)	0.094
Cultural motivation	3.97 (± 0.73)	3.87 (± 0.78)	0.099
Personal motivation	3.81 (± 0.71)	3.72 (± 0.84)	0.147
Product motivation	3.73 (± 0.73)	3.81 (± 0.79)	0.186
HOTELS			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Relax and Novelty	4.13 (± 0.65)	4.11 (± 0.70)	0.693
Social motivation	2.82 (± 0.92)	3.02 (± 0.97)	0.011*
Cultural motivation	3.89 (± 0.75)	3.98 (± 0.76)	0.113
Personal motivation	3.98 (± 0.75)	3.73 (± 0.77)	0.399
Product motivation	3.75 (± 0.75)	3.85 (± 0.79)	0.104
BACKPACKERS			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Relax and Novelty	4.09 (± 0.81)	4.12 (± 0.65)	0.742
Social motivation	2.28 (± 0.96)	2.85 (± 0.93)	0.001*
Cultural motivation	3.10 (± 0.87)	3.90 (± 0.75)	0.372
Personal motivation	3.79 (± 0.82)	3.75 (± 0.89)	0.678
Product motivation	3.78 (± 0.75)	3.78 (± 0.84)	0.721
LODGES			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Relax and Novelty	4.20 (± 0.63)	4.06 (± 0.69)	0.003*
Social motivation	2.76 (± 0.84)	2.98 (± 1.01)	0.001*
Cultural motivation	4.00 (± 0.69)	3.83 (± 0.81)	0.002*
Personal motivation	3.87 (± 0.67)	3.65 (± 0.88)	0.000*
Product motivation	3.78 (± 0.68)	3.77 (± 0.83)	0.854

p<0.05*

No significant differences were found on travel motivations for those that stayed in guesthouses or Bed and Breakfast establishments. It is evident from the results of the t -tests as displayed in Table 5.13 that three significant differences exist for travel motivations and being accommodated by family or friends. Those that stayed with family or friends rated social motivations (Yes: $\bar{x}=3.26$; No: $\bar{x}=2.79$), personal motivations (Yes: $\bar{x}=3.89$; No: $\bar{x}=3.71$) and product motivations (Yes: $\bar{x}=3.91$; No: $\bar{x}=3.75$) more important than those that did not.

It is evident from Table 5.13 that one significant difference exists on travel motivations and those staying in hotels and one for those staying in backpacker establishments. Those that stayed in hotels (Yes: $\bar{x}=2.82$; No: $\bar{x}=3.02$) and in backpacker establishments (Yes: $\bar{x}=2.28$; No: $\bar{x}=2.85$) considered social motivations less important than those that did not. Four significant differences exist for travel motivations and those staying in lodges. Those that stayed in lodges rated relax and novelty (Yes: $\bar{x}=4.20$; No: $\bar{x}=4.06$), cultural motivations (Yes: $\bar{x}=4.00$; No: $\bar{x}=3.83$) and personal motivations (Yes: $\bar{x}=3.87$; No: $\bar{x}=3.65$) more important than those that did not. In the case of social motivations (Yes: $\bar{x}=2.76$; No: $\bar{x}=2.98$) those that did not stay in lodges rated these motivations as more important.

5.3.3.3 Comparison of travel motivations by type of transport

Table 5.14: Comparison of travel motivations by type of transport

TYPE OF TRANSPORT	YES	NO	
RENTAL CAR			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Relax and Novelty	4.01 (± 0.70)	4.20 (± 0.63)	0.000*
Social motivation	2.84 (± 0.97)	2.91 (± 0.91)	0.308
Cultural motivation	3.89 (± 0.82)	3.92 (± 0.72)	0.635
Personal motivation	3.70 (± 0.82)	3.79 (± 0.78)	0.148
Product motivation	3.75 (± 0.79)	3.80 (± 0.75)	0.369
BUS			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Relax and Novelty	4.25 (± 0.58)	4.01 (± 0.70)	0.000*
Social motivation	2.71 (± 0.77)	3.02 (± 1.04)	0.000*
Cultural motivation	3.90 (± 0.68)	3.91 (± 0.82)	0.869
Personal motivation	3.84 (± 0.69)	3.68 (± 0.87)	0.008*
Product motivation	3.79 (± 0.69)	3.77 (± 0.83)	0.837
TRAIN			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Relax and Novelty	4.33 (± 0.73)	4.11 (± 0.66)	0.108
Social motivation	3.07 (± 0.66)	2.87 (± 0.95)	0.295
Cultural motivation	4.05 (± 0.58)	3.90 (± 0.78)	0.340
Personal motivation	3.95 (± 0.69)	3.74 (± 0.80)	0.201
Product motivation	3.83 (± 0.73)	3.78 (± 0.77)	0.713

p<0.05*

No significant differences exist for travel motivations for those that use train as mode of transport. It is evident from the *t*-test results in Table 5.14 that three significant differences exist on travel motivations and respondents using buses and one difference for those that use rental services. Those that did not use car rental services rated relax and novelty motivations (Yes: \bar{x} =4.01; No: \bar{x} =4.20) more important than those that did. Those that used buses rated relax and novelty motivations (Yes: \bar{x} =4.25; No: \bar{x} =4.01) and personal motivations (Yes: \bar{x} =3.84; No: \bar{x} =3.68) more

important than those that did not. Those that did not use buses rated social motivations (Yes: $\bar{x}=2.71$; No: $\bar{x}=3.02$) more important than those that did.

5.3.3.4 Comparison of travel motivations by marital status

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the effect of marital status on travel motivations. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated the significant differences.

It is evident from the ANOVA in Table 5.15 that one significant difference exists for travel motivations and marital status and more specifically on social motivations. It is clear that divorced respondents ($\bar{x} = 3.40$) considered social motivations more important than engaged respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.50$). It might be that divorced respondents seek companionship; therefore enjoy social interactions.

Table 5.15: Comparison of travel motivations by marital status

MARITAL STATUS	SINGLE	IN A RELATIONSHIP	ENGAGED	MARRIED	DIVORCED	WIDOW/ER	F- VALUE	p- VALUE
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation		
Relax-novelty	4.03 (±0.71)	4.02 (±0.71)	4.11 (±0.62)	4.16 (±0.64)	4.32 (±0.55)	4.15 (±0.89)	1.699	0.132
Social motivation	3.18 (±0.94)	3.03 (±0.92)	2.50 (±0.68)	2.76 (±0.92)	3.40 (±1.19)	2.67 (±0.58)	6.305	.000*
Cultural motivation	3.88 (±0.81)	4.05 (±0.74)	3.91 (±0.59)	3.88 (±0.77)	4.11 (±0.66)	4.00 (±0.55)	1.027	.401
Personal motivation	3.73 (±0.78)	3.87 (±0.78)	3.70 (±0.54)	3.73 (±0.82)	3.90 (±0.73)	3.87 (±0.69)	.622	.683
Product motivation	3.82 (±0.77)	3.68 (±0.92)	3.77 (±0.71)	3.79 (±0.73)	4.00 (±0.82)	3.63 (±0.43)	.645	.665

p<0.05*

5.3.3.5 Comparison of travel motivations by occupation

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the effect of occupation on travel motivations. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated the significant differences.

It is evident from Table 5.16 that three significant differences exist for relax and novelty, social motivations and personal motivations. Pensioners considered relax and novelty more important than any of the other occupations. On social motivations it was evident that students ($\bar{x} = 3.32$) considered this type of motivation more important than those in administrative positions ($\bar{x} = 2.82$), in civil services ($\bar{x} = 2.57$) and in education ($\bar{x} = 2.73$). Pensioners considered ($\bar{x} = 4.11$) personal motivations more important than self-employed ($\bar{x} = 3.43$) respondents.

Table 5.16: Comparison of travel motivations by occupation

OCCUPATION	PROFESSIONAL	MANAGEMENT	SELF-EMPLOYED	TECHNICAL	SALES	ADMINISTRATIVE	CIVIL SERVICES	EDUCATION	PENSIONER	STUDENTS	F-VALUE	p-VALUE
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation		
Relax-novelty	4.01 (±0.70)	4.10 (±0.54)	3.93 (±0.67)	4.08 (±0.76)	4.14 (±0.64)	4.11 (±0.57)	4.14 (±0.58)	4.19 (±0.53)	4.67 (±0.48)	4.09 (±0.58)	5.29 9	.000*
Social motivation	2.92 (±0.94)	2.84 (±1.00)	2.89 (±0.99)	2.83 (±0.81)	2.51 (±0.67)	2.82 (±0.91)	2.57 (±0.86)	2.73 (±0.89)	2.85 (±0.79)	3.32 (±0.97)	2.32 5	.014*
Cultural motivation	3.83 (±0.81)	3.96 (±0.64)	3.85 (±0.78)	3.86 (±0.70)	3.98 (±0.90)	3.83 (±0.80)	3.77 (±0.63)	3.91 (±0.75)	4.21 (±0.66)	4.02 (±0.74)	1.50 8	.141
Personal motivation	3.63 (±0.81)	3.85 (±0.73)	3.43 (±1.07)	3.71 (±0.69)	3.80 (±0.75)	3.75 (±0.75)	3.87 (±0.92)	3.72 (±0.75)	4.11 (±0.49)	3.89 (±0.81)	2.97 2	.002*
Product motivation	3.63 (±0.78)	3.82 (±0.73)	3.75 (±0.90)	3.83 (±0.73)	3.65 (±0.82)	4.13 (±0.73)	3.68 (±0.40)	3.80 (±0.75)	3.82 (±0.63)	3.86 (±0.83)	1.73 9	.077

p<0.05*

5.3.3.6 Comparison of willingness to return by gender

Table 5.17: Comparison of willingness to return by gender

GENDER	MALE	FEMALE	p-value
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	
Communication	2.28 (± 0.73)	2.57 (± 0.81)	0.000*
Experience	3.38 (± 0.47)	3.43 (± 0.54)	0.159
Safety	2.85 (± 0.76)	3.03 (± 0.79)	0.002*
Tourism Offering	2.88 (± 0.65)	2.97 (± 0.68)	0.079

p<0.05*

It is evident from Table 5.17 that two significant differences exist for willingness to return and gender. It is clear that females ($\bar{x} = 2.57$) considered communication a more important factor than males ($\bar{x} = 2.28$). It can also be seen from the above table that females ($\bar{x} = 3.03$) considered safety as more important than did males ($\bar{x} = 2.85$).

5.3.3.7 Comparison of willingness to return by type of accommodation

Table 5.18: Comparison of willingness to return by type of accommodation

WILLINGNESS TO RETURN	YES	NO	
FAMILY OR FRIENDS			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Communication	2.48 (± 0.79)	2.39 (± 0.77)	0.250
Experience	3.35 (± 0.58)	3.41 (± 0.49)	0.234
Safety	2.97 (± 0.77)	2.93 (± 0.78)	0.559
Tourism Offering	2.95 (± 0.73)	2.91 (± 0.65)	0.496
GUESTHOUSE/BB			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Communication	2.41 (± 0.74)	2.41 (± 0.80)	0.962
Experience	3.36 (± 0.54)	3.42 (± 0.48)	0.147
Safety	2.95 (± 0.76)	2.93 (± 0.79)	0.666

WILLINGNESS TO RETURN	YES	NO	
Tourism Offering	2.92 (± 0.66)	2.92 (± 0.67)	1.000
HOTELS			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Communication	2.41 (± 0.79)	2.42 (± 0.75)	0.841
Experience	3.41 (± 0.51)	3.36 (± 0.49)	0.186
Safety	2.93 (± 0.80)	2.93 (± 0.74)	0.928
Tourism Offering	2.92 (± 0.67)	2.93 (± 0.65)	0.798
BACKPACKERS			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Communication	2.56 (± 0.87)	2.40 (± 0.77)	0.128
Experience	3.33 (± 0.59)	3.41 (± 0.50)	0.260
Safety	2.88 (± 0.86)	2.94 (± 0.77)	0.551
Tourism Offering	2.83 (± 0.82)	2.93 (± 0.65)	0.279
LODGES			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Communication	2.34 (± 0.72)	2.45 (± 0.82)	0.026*
Experience	3.43 (± 0.48)	3.37 (± 0.52)	0.094
Safety	2.95 (± 0.72)	2.92 (± 0.83)	0.608
Tourism Offering	2.95 (± 0.62)	2.49 (± 0.70)	0.252

p<0.05*

Only one significant difference exists for willingness to return and type of accommodation. Those that did not stay in lodges rated the importance of communication (Yes: \bar{x} = 2.34; No: \bar{x} = 2.45) more important than those that did make use of this type of accommodation.

5.3.3.8 Comparison of willingness to return by mode of transport

It is evident from Table 5.19 that three significant differences exist for willingness to return and mode of transport. It is clear that those respondents that did not use a bus (\bar{x} = 2.56) as mode of transport considered Communication more important than those that did (\bar{x} = 2.23).

Table 5.19: Comparison of willingness to return by mode of transport

MODE OF TRANSPORT	YES	NO	
BUS			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Communication	2.23 (± 0.78)	2.56 (± 0.74)	0.000*
Experience	3.49 (± 0.45)	3.32 (± 0.53)	0.000*
Safety	2.98 (± 0.66)	2.90 (± 0.87)	0.182
Tourism Offering	2.92 (± 0.61)	2.92 (± 0.71)	0.935
TRAIN			
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	p-value
Communication	2.71 (± 0.82)	2.40 (± 0.77)	0.052
Experience	3.59 (± 0.38)	3.40 (± 0.51)	0.054
Safety	3.19 (± 0.63)	2.93 (± 0.78)	0.087
Tourism Offering	3.22 (± 0.42)	2.91 (± 0.67)	0.020*

p<0.05*

However those respondents that did use a bus as mode of transport ($\bar{x} = 3.49$) considered Experience a more important factor than those that did not ($\bar{x} = 3.32$). It was also evident that those respondents that used train as mode of transport ($\bar{x} = 3.22$) considered the tourism offering more important than those that did not ($\bar{x} = 2.91$).

5.3.3.9 Comparison of willingness to return by marital status

It is evident from Table 5.20 that two significant differences exist for willingness to return and marital status. It is clear that divorced respondents ($\bar{x} = 3.05$) considered Experience less important than married ($\bar{x} = 3.47$) and widow/ed ($\bar{x} = 3.57$) respondents. In the case of communication it was found that Divorced respondents ($\bar{x} = 1.86$) considered this factor less important than widow/ed respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.50$) and single respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.58$).

Table 5.20: Comparison of willingness to return by marital status

MARITAL STATUS	SINGLE	IN A RELATIONSHIP	ENGAGED	MARRIED	DIVORCED	WIDOW/ER	F-VALUE	P-VALUE
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation		
Communication	2.58 (±0.79)	2.44 (±0.71)	2.26 (±0.77)	2.37 (±0.78)	1.86 (±0.58)	2.50 (±0.68)	2.914	.013*
Experience	3.27 (±0.57)	3.29 (±0.53)	3.41 (±0.31)	3.47 (±0.46)	3.05 (±0.72)	3.57 (±0.36)	5.920	.000*
Safety	2.89 (±0.80)	2.86 (±0.86)	2.78 (±0.90)	2.98 (±0.75)	2.77 (±0.85)	2.95 (±0.65)	.904	.478
Tourism offering	2.94 (±0.67)	2.91 (±0.72)	2.79 (±0.73)	2.92 (±0.64)	2.52 (±0.85)	3.30 (±0.48)	1.791	.112

p<0.05*

5.3.3.10 Comparison of willingness to return by occupation

It is evident from Table 5.21 that two significant differences exist for willingness to return and occupation. It is evident that pensioners ($\bar{x} = 3.68$) rated experience more important than professionals ($\bar{x} = 3.29$), self-employed respondents ($\bar{x} = 3.30$) and students ($\bar{x} = 3.33$). It can also be seen from the above table that pensioners ($\bar{x} = 3.31$) consider tourism offering as more important than respondents in professional occupations ($\bar{x} = 2.84$), technical occupations ($\bar{x} = 2.77$), sales ($\bar{x} = 2.82$), administrative occupations ($\bar{x} = 2.86$), civil services ($\bar{x} = 2.77$) and students ($\bar{x} = 2.92$).

Table 5.21: Comparison of willingness to return by occupation

OCCUPA- TION	PROFES- SIONAL	MANAGE- MENT	SELF- EMPLOYED	TECHNICAL	SALES	ADMINISTRA- TIVE	CIVIL SERVICES	EDUCATION	PENSIONER	STUDENTS	F-VALUE	P-VALUE
	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation	Mean value & standard deviation		
Communi- cation	2.45 (±0.73)	2.46 (±0.86)	2.43 (±0.79)	2.14 (±0.66)	2.23 (±0.65)	2.44 (±0.78)	2.19 (±0.72)	2.37 (±0.81)	2.44 (±0.80)	2.58 (±0.77)	1.94 8	.043
Experience	3.29 (±0.58)	3.45 (±0.52)	3.30 (±0.55)	3.41 (±0.40)	3.38 (±0.42)	3.51 (±0.45)	3.51 (±0.42)	3.43 (±0.42)	3.68 (±0.39)	3.33 (±0.51)	3.54 7	.000*
Safety	2.89 (±0.79)	2.99 (±0.84)	2.90 (±0.94)	2.88 (±0.76)	2.94 (±0.63)	3.11 (±0.72)	2.81 (±0.69)	2.97 (±0.67)	3.09 (±0.41)	2.83 (±0.94)	.843	.577
Tourism offering	2.84 (±0.69)	2.99 (±0.63)	2.93 (±0.75)	2.77 (±0.61)	2.82 (±0.61)	2.86 (±0.75)	2.77 (±0.70)	2.97 (±0.60)	3.31 (±0.44)	2.92 (±0.69)	3.08 0	.001*

p<0.05*

5.3.4 Relationship between travel motivations and willingness to return

The Spearman Correlation results in Table 5.22 indicate large positive correlations on personal motivations. The more important personal motivations to the respondents the more important relax and novelty ($r_s=0.523$) and cultural motivations ($r_s=0.521$) were. Several positive medium correlations exist for travel motivations which indicated that these motivations are inter-dependent and thus function together in motivating respondents to visit this country (see Table 5.22).

Table 5.22: Relationships between travel motivations

		RELAX AND NOVELTY	SOCIAL MOTIVATIONS	CULTURAL MOTIVATIONS	PERSONAL MOTIVATIONS	PRODUCT MOTIVATIONS
RELAX AND NOVELTY	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	0.216**	0.432**	0.523**	0.426**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	720	720	720	720	720
SOCIAL MOTIVATIONS	Correlation Coefficient	0.216**	1.000	0.367**	0.387**	0.338**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	720	720	720	720	720
CULTURAL MOTIVATIONS	Correlation Coefficient	0.432**	0.367**	1.000	0.521**	0.358**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	720	720	720	720	720
PERSONAL MOTIVATIONS	Correlation Coefficient	0.523**	0.387**	0.521**	1.000	0.500**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	720	720	720	720	720
PRODUCT MOTIVATIONS	Correlation Coefficient	0.426**	0.338**	0.358**	0.500**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	720	720	720	720	720

* small $r_s = .10-.29$; ** medium $r_s = .30-.49$; *** large $r_s = .50-1.0$.

Table 5.23: Relationships between willingness to return factors

		COMMUNICATION	EXPERIENCE	SAFETY	TOURISM OFFERING
COMMUNICATION	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	0.165**	0.321**	0.458**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	720	720	720	720
EXPERIENCE	Correlation Coefficient	0.165**	1.000	0.276**	0.271**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000

	N	720	720	720	720
SAFETY	Correlation Coefficient	0.321**	0.276**	1.000	0.351**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	720	720	720	720
TOURISM OFFERING	Correlation Coefficient	0.458**	0.271**	0.351**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	720	720	720	720

* small $r_s = .10-.29$; ** medium $r_s = .30-.49$; *** large $r_s = .50-1.0$.

According to Table 5.23 the results indicate large positive correlations on communication, safety and tourism offering. The more important communication to the respondents the more important was the influence of tourism offering as willingness to return factor ($r_s = 0.458$). The more important communication to the respondents the more important was the influence of safety as willingness to return factor ($r_s = 0.321$). The more important safety to the respondents the more important was the influence of tourism offering as willingness to return factor ($r_s = 0.351$).

Table 5.24: Relationships between willingness to return factors and travel motivations

		COMMUNICATION	EXPERIENCE	SAFETY	TOURISM OFFERING
RELAX AND NOVELTY	Correlation Coefficient	-0.117**	0.259**	0.084*	0.102**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.024	.006
	N	720	720	720	720
SOCIAL MOTIVATIONS	Correlation Coefficient	0.285**	-.022	.066	0.125**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.555	.075	.001
	N	720	720	720	720
CULTURAL MOTIVATIONS	Correlation Coefficient	0.220**	0.140**	0.083*	0.142**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.026	.000
	N	720	720	720	720

PERSONAL MOTIVATIONS	Correlation Coefficient	.039	0.165**	0.118**	0.142**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.297	.000	.002	.000
	N	720	720	720	720
PRODUCT MOTIVATIONS	Correlation Coefficient	-.009	0.173**	0.167**	0.129**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.814	.000	.000	.001
	N	720	720	720	720

* small $r_s = .10-.29$; ** medium $r_s = .30-.49$; *** large $r_s = .50-1.0$.

According to Table 5.24 small correlations exist between travel motivations and willingness to return factors. The more respondents were motivated by cultural motivations ($r_s = 0.220$) and social motivations ($r_s = 0.285$) the more important was the influence of communication. The more important relax and novelty to the respondents the more important was the influence of the experience ($r_s = 0.259$).

5.4 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to analyse the empirical data gathered at the Cable Way (Table Mountain National Park). This was done by means of descriptive and exploratory analyses. From the descriptive results it was clear that the respondents were male and female, mostly around the ages 26-35. The majority of the respondents were married and originated from USA and UK. The majority of respondents preferred/used hotels for accommodation and were travelling for holiday/leisure. Respondents spent on average 16 days in South Africa and the majority of the respondents were visiting for the first time.

The factor analyses on travel motivation revealed that the majority of the respondents were travelling for relaxation and novelty followed by cultural motivations. Experience and safety were the most high rated as the aspects influencing willingness to return to South Africa. Travel motivations are to a certain extent influenced by gender, type of accommodation, method of transport, marital status and occupation. Willingness to return is influenced by gender, mode of transport, marital status and occupation. Travel motivations correlate to a medium extent with themselves indicating the dependency on each other. The same applied to willingness to return

and travel motivations correlating with willingness to return. Conclusions and recommendations are made in the next chapter to research the objectives of this study.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This is the concluding chapter of this research study. This chapter's main concern is to provide conclusions and make recommendations regarding the researched topic. The aim of this study was to identify the predictors of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa as a tourism destination. To achieve the main aim of the study, the following objectives were set in Chapter 1 and met throughout the study:

The first objective was to analyse tourists' behaviour in terms of travel decision-making by means of an in-depth literature review. This objective was achieved in Chapter 2 of the study. The exploration travel decision-making was done by means of an in-depth discussion concerning the following aspects: travel behaviour, the travel decision-making process, factors influencing travel decisions and travel motivation.

The second objective was to analyse literature concerning tourists' intentions to return to tourism destinations. The analysis focused on the meaning of the concept *intention to return*, the characteristics of first-time versus repeat visitors, aspects influencing repeat visitation, the importance of destination attractiveness and an overview of travel growth and travel patterns to South Africa.

The third objective was to empirically assess the predictors of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa as a destination. 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 and intentions to return. 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 the predictors of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa. This objective is addressed in this 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 travel behaviour and decision-making:

- Travel behaviour involves certain decisions, activities, ideas or experiences that satisfy needs and wants. It can be concluded that travel behaviour is concerned with all activities directly involved in obtaining, consuming and disposing of products and services, including the decision processes that precede and follow these actions (c.f.2.2).
 - Aspects influencing travel behaviour of tourists is important for destinations and products to develop faster, leading to a more effective destination. Specifically it was determined that personal factors, psychological factors, cultural factors and social factors influence travel behaviour. When all these factors are positively or negatively met while or after visiting the destination, then that will determine the satisfaction levels and whether or not there will be repeat visits and recommendations to friends and relatives (c.f.2.3).
- The travel decision-making process of going on vacation can be seen as the overall decision-making process that includes several different decisions that all result in separate "smaller" decision-making processes. It can be concluded that in tourism, different factors influence the potential of a tourist to make his/her decision to travel. Making a decision implies that alternative choices exist and it is important to be on the top of the tourist's mind with a willingness to revisit (c.f.2.4).
- It is clear that travel motivations form part of the overall travel behaviour of a tourist and that it plays an important part in intentions to return. This was discussed based on theories such as Maslow's needs hierarchy, the travel career ladder and travel career patterns, push and pull factors and sunlust and wanderlust. The main conclusion is that people have wants and needs which can be fulfilled by the right product more than once (c.f.2.5).
- Clearly the push and pull factors are directly linked to intention to return to a destination. The push factors to tourists' travel motivation included escaping, relaxation, prestige, socialization and novelty and the pull factors include aspects such as attractions, transportations, accessibility, accommodation and activities (c.f.2.5).

6.2.2 Conclusions regarding intentions to return to a tourism destination

The following conclusions can be drawn based on the literature study done and reported on in Chapter 3.

- Intention to return or revisit a destination is a critical research topic which has not been optimised in the case of South Africa (c.f.3.1)
- Tourists' revisit intentions are seen to be their willingness to revisit a destination and are also linked to customer loyalty, similar to the willingness to purchase a certain product again (c.f.3.1).
- Repeat visitation represents an attractive, cost-effective market segment for most destinations (c.f.3.1) which is worthwhile assessing.
- The differences between first-time and repeat visitors were recognized and varying opinions and results were evident. It was however clear that the groups differ from one another and that most studies indicated the value of repeat visitors in terms of marketing cost, familiarity with the destination etc. (c.f.3.3)
- Some of the different characteristics identified were that: repeat visitors seek relaxation, they tend to be older, they are more concentrated in numbers in fewer locations, they enjoy visiting friends and relatives, spend more and hold more positive post-trip evaluations (c.f.3.3).
- Destination attractiveness plays an important role in intention to return and it is important to create new experiences for repeat visitors so as to maintain their interest in the destination. These visitors are attracted by aspects such as natural scenery; hospitality, special events, entertainment, shopping, weather and climate, accessibility, price and culture.
- Aspects that influence intention to return to a tourism destination include the following: (c.f.3.5)
 - Satisfaction: The intention has been regarded as an extension of satisfaction rather than as an initiator of the revisit decision making process.
 - Destination loyalty: Customer loyalty is often linked to customers making repeat purchase or recommendations to others.
 - Infrastructure: Tourism infrastructure can be regarded as the physical elements that are designed and erected to cater for tourists.
 - Safety and security: safety and security is one of the five forces; tourists are concerned with safety and security as the incidence of perceived violence increases.
 - Perceived value: Tourists perceive positive value when the benefits received while travelling exceed the costs invested in travel.

- Service value: The services of a destination are important in tourists' destination choice. In the eyes of many tourists, destinations function more effectively when their services are in abundance
- Destination image: Destination image is critically important component of tourists' destination choices. Besides influencing the destination choice of tourists, destination image also has an effect on revisit intentions.

6.2.3 Conclusions regarding the empirical analyses

Based on the empirical study reported on in Chapter 5, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- It can be concluded that participating respondents were on average 40 years of age, mostly male, from the USA and UK and married. They hold either a degree or a diploma and serve in professional or management occupations. This correlates well with South Africa's target markets and profile visiting the country.
- When visiting South Africa these respondents stay on average 16 days, travel in groups of 3.71 and they prefer hotels and lodges. They travel to South Africa by air.
- It was evident again in this research that respondents were mainly first-time visitors, actually emphasizing the problem which this research assesses again. On average this group of visitors have visited South Africa 1.68 times.
- Their main reason for visiting South Africa is for holiday and leisure, which indicates the type of activities they prefer when visiting, such as the Cableway.
- These visitors still make use of traditional media types such as television to gather information on South Africa, but mainly word-of-mouth communications and the Internet played a role in this.
- These respondents mostly travel to enjoy the natural attractions of South Africa since they highlighted the importance of natural resources, scenery and tourist spots as important motivators. The links to the main product of South Africa, namely the nature-based experience. They did not travel to this country to improve their social status.
- 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.
- The main travel motivations as determined by the factor analysis were: Relaxation and Novelty, Social motivations, Cultural motivations, Personal Motivations and Product motivations of which Relaxation and Novelty and Cultural motivations were rated most important.

- Females rated social, cultural and personal motivations as more important than males
- Those that stayed with family and friends rated social, personal and products motivations more important while those that stayed in lodges rated relaxation and novelty, cultural and personal motivations to be more important.
- Respondents that stayed in hotels and backpackers considered social motivations less important, which is interesting for the backpackers which is focused on socializing.
- Pensioners were motivated by relaxation and novelty as well as personal motivations while students and divorced respondents were more motivated by social motivations.
- When analysing respondents' willingness to return to South Africa it was clear that they will return and that they will recommend this country to other potential visitors. This is a very important and positive step in the right direction. This also adds to their own sources of information about South Africa, namely word-of-mouth communications.
- When visiting again they will visit attractions that they have not visited before and they hold a positive image of this country. This shows the importance of renewing the product or the marketing strategies to create new needs and wants for the products of a previously visited tourism destination.
- Respondents' willingness to return were strongly influenced by satisfaction as indicated in the literature as well, but they also highlighted the importance of own experiences and the fact that they cannot see everything on one trip.
- The main aspects contributing to willingness to return as determined by the factor analysis were: Communication, Experience, Safety and the Tourism offering of which the Experience and Safety were the most important aspects.
- For females Communication and Safety were the most important aspects to consider.
- Pensioners highlighted the importance of Experience and Tourism Offerings.
- The relationship between willingness to return and travel motivations was also established for South Africa. The integration of these two variables thus is very important in the marketing initiatives, and their inter-dependence should be exploited.
- These results add to the body of knowledge in terms of intention to return by indicating the South African context and exploring the aspects influencing intention to return.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations will be made in this section regarding tourists' intentions to return 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 the predictors of tourists' intentions to return to South Africa as a tourism destination

The following recommendations can be made based on the findings of the study:

- South Africa is a tourist destination that attracts both first-time and repeat visitors but the value of repeat visitors are not yet realized. Since the experience is so important to visitors the industry should be made aware of this through workshops and training. Even local residents should understand the value of tourists and what it means if they are treated correctly. This is a module that can be introduced in Schools for all learners to understand the value of the tourism industry and what difference it can make to a country such as South Africa.
- Both satisfied and less satisfied tourists might revisit a destination, since satisfaction and revisit intention are influenced by the attractiveness of the country's destinations as perceived by visitors. Allocating sufficient budget to make South Africa a more appealing tourist destination is a timely move in the right direction. Continuous efforts should be made to offer more interesting locations and attractions within the destination area and this can be done through interactive internet and social media sites. With more attractive and exciting destinations to visit, visitors will be persuaded to stay longer and spend more, but most importantly see the potential to revisit. The positive long-term effects of a thriving tourism industry definitely are hard to dispute. Not only will those directly involved in the tourism supply chain enjoy the increase in revenue – the nation as a whole also benefits economically.
- Tourism marketers should grasp the opportunity at airports when visitors are leaving to make a last long-lasting impression on the visitors. This can be done by providing each international visitor with a small promotion gift (something that can be utilized at home or at office) that can serve as a constant reminder of the South African culture and experience.
- Repeat visitors should have the option to choose different packages. Seeing that they have already visited South Africa before, they will be more interested in the hidden gems of this country. This provides new marketing opportunities to tour operators to package a

differentiated product with the more experienced traveller to South Africa. One should make it attractive to buy so that they do not wait to visit but shorten the intervals between visits.

- On a more practical note, repeat visitors could be offered discounts as a way to attract them and thank them for their support. There can even be a South African Fan page that provides information, keep the visitors informed and create unique packages.
- South African tourism should increase its international awareness campaigns that will draw the international tourists to come to South Africa and even consider coming again.
- It is important to sustain and/or improve the message that South Africa is a place where one can relax, visit novel attractions as well as cultural attractions. In the current stressful environments that people live, South African Tourism can build a brand around RELAXATION and link a number of products and icons to this message.
- The importance of the nature product should not be underestimated. However, more can be done in terms of marketing to focus on all the parks on offer so that there is a better distribution of tourists across South Africa.
- Tourists that wish to revisit South Africa should firstly be communicated with through various media and campaigns. Creating awareness of what is on offer and how the product has changed is important to attract attention. Secondly, what the tourists experience is South Africa should be almost 'magical' so that they talk about the experience and keep the memories safe when travel decisions should be made again. This will involve all South Africans and not only those working in the tourism industry. Thirdly, more awareness should be created around travel safety in South Africa. This can be done when visitors are entering South Africa – not as a means to scare them but as a means to make them aware. Fourthly, the tourism offering should be up to standard and renewed from time to time.

6.3.2 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 to determine what makes them return to certain attractions in South Africa. They are the backbone of the industry.

- It is recommended that this type of research be repeated so as to stay updated with the emerging trends within the market and to establish whether the repeat rate of visitors to South Africa has increased.

6.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Getting people to participate was a challenge but it was overcome by the researcher.

It can be concluded that the main aspects contributing to willingness to return were: Communication, Experience, Safety and the Tourism offering of which the Experience and Safety were the most important aspects.

REFERENCE LIST

- AALST, L.V. 2002. From museum to mass entertainment the evolution of the role of museums in cities. Service Centre for International Cultural Activities (SICA). Amsterdam: The Netherlands.
- ABELSON, K. & LEVI, B.A. 1985. AMA board approves new marketing definition, *Marketing Educator*, 30.
- ADAMS, K.A. & LAWRENCE, E.K. 2015. Research methods, statistics, and application. [Online]. Available at <http://www.adn.com/2014/03/12/3371348/brutal-idirad-inspires-bravery.html>. Accessed 10: June 2015.
- ADEBAYO, K.A. 2014. Optimizing the sustainability of tourism infrastructure in Nigeria through design for deconstruction framework. *American Journal of Tourism Management*, 3(1A):13-19.
- ALCARE, A. & CLEDERA, C. 2010. Der National Park als wohnumfeld und Naherholungsgebiet. *Naturschutz und Landschaftsplanung*, 33(5):157-160.
- ALEGRE, J. & CLADERA, M. 2006. Repeat visitation in mature sun and sand holiday destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 44(3):288-297.
- ALEGRE, J. & GARAU, J. 2010. Tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(1):52-73.
- ALEGRE, J. & JUANEDA, C. 2006. Destination loyalty: Consumer's economic behaviour. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(3):684-706.
- ALEXANDRIS, K., KOUTHOURIS, C. & MELIGDIS, A. 2006. Increasing customers' loyalty in a skiing resort: the contribution of place attachment and service quality. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(5):414-425.
- ALTINAY, L. & PARASKEVAS, A. 2008. Planning research in hospitality and tourism. Routledge.
- ANDERSON, E.W. & SULLIVAN, M.W. 1993. Customer satisfaction and retention across firms. In Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman (Eds.), Presentation in TIMS College of marketing special interest conference on service marketing. Nashville, T. N. September, 1996.
- ANDERSON, E.W., FORNELL, C. & LEHMANN, D. 1994. Customer satisfaction, market share and profitability: findings from Sweden. *Journal of Marketing*, 58:53-66.

- ANDREASEN, A.R. 1965. Life status changes and changes in consumer preferences and satisfaction. *Journal of consumer research*, 11:784-794.
- ARENTZE, T.A., BORGER, A.W.J. & TIMMERMANS, H.J.P. 1993. A model of multipurpose shopping trip behaviour. *Papers in Regional Science*, 72:239-256.
- ASPAROUHOV, T. & MUTHEN, B. 2009. Exploratory structural equation modelling. *Structural equation modelling*, 16(3):397-438.
- ASSAKER, G. & HALLAK, R. 2013. Moderating effects of tourists novelty-seeking tendencies on destination image, visitor satisfaction, and short- and long-term revisit intentions. *Journal of travel research*, 52(5):600-613.
- ASSAKER, G., VINZI, V.E. & O'CONNOR, P. 2011. Examining the effect of novelty seeking, satisfaction, and destination image on tourists' return pattern: a two factor, non-linear latent growth model. *Tourism management*, 32(4):890-901.
- AU, L., & LAW, R. 2012. Categorical classification of tourism dining. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29, 819-833.
- BACKMAN, K., BACKMAN, S.J., UYSAL, M. & SUNSHINE, K.M. 1995. Event tourism: An examination of motivations and activities. *Festival management and event tourism*, 3(1):15-24.
- BACKMAN, S.J. & CROMPTON, J.L. 1991. The usefulness of selected variables for predicting activity loyalty. *Leisure Sciences*, 13(3):205-220.
- BACKMAN, S.J. & CROMPTON, J.L. 2011. The usefulness of selected variables for predicting activity loyalty. *Leisure Sciences*, 13(3):205-220.
- BAHAR, Y., FAKHRI, B. & YE, Z. 2017. The role of travel experience and gender on travel information source selection. *Journal of hospitality & tourism technology*, 8(2):296-310.
- BAKER, D.A. & CROMPTON, J.L. 2000. Examining the effect of novelty seeking, satisfaction, and destination image on tourists' return pattern: a two factor, non-linear latent growth model. *Tourism Management*, 16(3):7-9.
- BAKER, D.A. & CROMPTON, J.L. 2000. Quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(3):785-804.
- BAKER, D.A. & CROMPTON, J.L. 2000. Quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. *Annals of tourism research*, 27(3):785-804.
- BALOGLU, S. & MCCLEARY, K. 1999. A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4):868-897.
- BALOGLU, S. 2000. The relationship between destination images and socio demographic and trip characteristics of international travellers. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 3(3):221-233.

- BARNES, S.J., MATTSON, J. & SORESENSEN, F. 2016. Destination brand experience and visitor behaviour: Testing a scale in the tourism context. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 48:121-139.
- BARROS, C.P., BUTLER, R. & CORREIA, A. 2010. The length of stay of golf tourism: a survival analysis. *Tourism Management*, 31:13–21.
- BATRA, R. 2009. When corporate image affects product evaluations: The moderating role of perceived risk. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 41(2):197-205.
- BEARD, D.D. & RAGHEB, K.W. 1983. The theory of planned behaviour. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 90(1):34-56.
- BEH, A. & BRUYERE, B.L 2007. Segmentation by visitor motivation in three Kenyan national reserves. *Tourism management*, 28(6):1464-1471.
- BHATIA, A.K. 2007. International tourism management. New Delhi: Sterling. 539 p.
- BIGNÉ, J.E., SANCHEZ, I. & ANDREU, L. 2009. The role of variety seeking in short and long run revisit intentions in holiday destinations. *International journal of culture, tourism and hospitality research*, 3(2):103-115.
- BHATIA, A.K. 2007. Satisfaction level of tourists. *International tourism management. New Delhi Sterling*, 539.
- BIGNE, .J., SANCHEZ, M. & SANCHEZ, J. 2001. On the consumption of negative feelings. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 6(2):56-70.
- BIGNE, E. 2011. Perspectives Actual Marketing. *Bases of Future*, 69–80.
- BIGNE, J., SANCHEZ, M. & SANCHEZ, J. 2009 .Tourism image, evaluation variables and after purchase behaviour: inter-relationship. *Tourism Management*, 22:607-16.
- BIGOVIC, M. 2012. The effect of perceived quality on tourist behavioural intentions. *Acta turistica*, 24(2):209-226.
- BJORK P, 2013. A tripartite model of tourist experience. *Finnish Journal of Tourism Research*, 2(5): 5-18.
- BOGDAN, R. & TAYLAR, S.J. 1990. Introduction to qualitative research methods .A guidebook and resource. Book.google.com.
- BOLTON, R.N. & DREW, J.H. 2011. A multistage model of customers assessments of services quality and value. *Journal of consumer research*, 17(4):375-384.
- BONN, M. A., JOSEPH, S. M. & DAI, M. 2005. International versus Domestic Visitors: An Examination of Destination Image Perceptions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43:294-301.
- BOO, S., BUSSE, J. & BALOGLU, S. 2009. A model of customer-based brand quality and its application to multiple destinations. *Tourism Management*, 30(2): 219-231.

- BOYNE, S., WILLIAMS, F. & HALL, D.R. 2002. On the trail of regional success: Tourism, food production and the Isle of Arran Taste Trail. *Tourism and Gastronomy*, 91:114.
- BROTHERTON, B. 2008. Researching hospitality and tourism: a student guide. SAGE.
- BRYMAN, A. & CRAMER, D. 2009. Quantitative data analysis with SPSS 14,15 and 16. A guide for social scientists. Routledge: New York.
- BURNS, N. & GROVE, S.K. 2005. The Practice of Nursing Research: Conduct, Critique & Utilization. *Elsevier Saunders*, St Louis.
- BUTLER, R. 2014. The Tourism Area Life Cycle. *Channel View Publications*.
- CHADEE, D. & MATTSSON, J. 1996. An empirical assessment of customer satisfaction in tourism. *The Service Industries Journal*, 16(3):305-320.
- CHAKRAPANI, V. 2000. A mixed methods investigation. *Harm Reduction Journal*, 2011: 8-9.
- CHANG, D.C. 2006. Meta-analysis in surgery: methodology and limitations-invited critique. *Arch Surg* 2006:141.
- CHARMAZ, K. 2000. Grounded Theory as an emergent Method. Handbook of emergent methods: New York. *The Guilford press*, 155-75.
- CHEN, C.F. & CHEN, C.F. 2010. Experience quality, perceived value, satisfaction and behaviour intentions for heritage tourists. *Tourism management*, 31(1):29-35.
- Chen, C.F. & Tsai, D.C. 2007. Customer portfolio development: modelling destination adopters, inactive and rejecters. *Journal of travel research*, 36(9):35-43.
- CHEN, C.F. & TSAI, D.C. 2007. How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions. *Tourism management*, 28(4):1115-1122.
- CHEN, J.S. & PREBENSEN, N. 2009. Wellness as tourist motivation: case of Taiwan. *New York: Cognizant Communication Corp*, 106-159.
- CHEN, J.S. & GURSOY, D. 2001. An investigation of tourist's destination loyalty and preferences. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management*, 13(2):79-85.
- CHEN, J.S. & GURSOY, D. 2010. Tourism motivations: an appraisal. *Annals of tourism research*, 8(13):189-219.
- CHEN, J.S. & GURSOY, D. 2011. The psychology of attitudes. Fort worth, TX: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich.
- CHEN, J.S. & GURSOY, M. 2010. Tourism motivations: an appraisal. *Annals of tourism research*, 8(13):189-219.
- CHEN, J.S. & GURSOY, M. 2011. The psychology of attitudes. Fort worth, TX: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich.

- CHEN, J.S. & TSAI, K. 2007. Customer portfolio development: modelling destination adopters, inactive and rejecters. *Journal of travel research*, 36(9):35-43.
- CHEN, J.S., & PREBENSEN, N. 2009. Wellness as tourist motivation: case of Taiwan. (In BUSHELL, R & SHELDON, P.J., EDS. Wellness and tourism: mind, body, spirit place. New York: Cognizant Communication Corp. p. 106-159.)
- CHEN, J.S., PREBSEN, N. & HUAN, T.C. 2008. Determining the motivation of wellness travellers. *Anatolia*, 19(1):103115-2008.
- CHI, C.G.Q. & QU, H. 2008. Examining the structural relationship of destination image, tourists satisfaction and destination loyalty: an integrated approach. *Tourism management*, 29(4):624-636.
- CHOI, T.Y. & CHU, R. 2001. Determinants of hotel guest's satisfaction on repeat patronage in Hong Kong Hotel Industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 20:271–97.
- CHON, D.S. 1998. From national competitiveness to bloc and global competitiveness. *Tourism Management*, 8(1).
- CHOO, H. & PETRICK, J. 2014. Social interactions and intentions to revisit for agritourism service encounters. *Tourism management*, 40:372-381.
- CHURCHILL, G.A. & SUPRENTANT, C. 1982. An investigation into the determinants of customer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 19:491-504.
- CHURCHILL, J.R. & BROWN, J.T. 2007. Caution in the use of difference scores in consumer research. *Journal of consumer research*, 19(4):655-662.
- COHEN, E. 1988. Authenticity and commoditization in tourism. *Annals of tourism research*, 15(3):371–386.
- COHEN, J. 1988. Statistical power analysis for behavioural sciences. 2nd ed. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- COOK, R.Y.A., YALE, L.J. & MARQUA, J.J. 2010. Tourism: the business of travel. 4th ed. Upper Saddle River, N. J: Pearson Education. 414 p.
- COOPER, D.R. & SCHINDLER, P.S. 2011. Business research methods. 11th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- COOPER, D.R. & SCHINDLER, P.S. 2001. Business research methods. New York: McGraw Hill.
- CORREIA, A. & OLIVEIRA, O. 2008. Heterogeneity in destination choice: Tourism in Africa. *Journal of travel research*, 47(2):235-246.
- CORREIA, A., OOM DA VALLE, P., MOCO, C. 2007. Modelling motivations and perceptions of Portuguese tourists. *Journal of business research*, 60(2007):76-80.

- COX, A.L. 2009. Questionnaires, in-depth interviews and focus groups. *International journal of human-computer studies*, 66(9):641-661.
- CRESWELL, J.W. 2013. Achieving integration in mixed methods designs, principles and practices. *Health service research*, 248(62):2134-2156.
- CROMPTON, J.L. 1979. Consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure. CABI publishing.
- CROMPTON, J.L. & MCKAY, S.L. 1997. Motives of visitors' attending festival events. *Annals of tourism research*, 24(2):425-439.
- CROMPTON, J.L. 1979. Motivation for pleasure vacations. *Annals of tourism research*, 6(1): 418-424.
- CROMPTON, J.L. 1977. A systems model of the tourist's destination selection decision process with particular reference to the role of image and perceived constraints. College Station: Texas A & M University.
- CRONIN, J.J., BRADY, M.K. & HULT, G.T.M. 2002. Assessing the effects of quality, value and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioural intentions in services environments. *Journal of retailing*, 76(2):193-218.
- CROUCH, G.I., HUDSON, S. & RITCHIE, J.R. 2000. Assessing the role of consumer in the measurement of destination competitiveness and sustainability. *Tourism management*, 5 (2-4):69-76.
- DALLAERT, ETTEMA & LINDH. 1998. Image differences between prospective, first-time and repeat visitors to the Lower Rio Grand Valley. *Journal of travel research*, 90.
- DANN, G.M.S 1977. Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of tourism research*, 4(4):184-194.
- DAY, G.S. 2003. A two-dimensional concept of brand loyalty. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 9(3):29-35.
- DAY, G.S. 2009. A two dimensional concept of brand loyalty. *Journal of advertising research*, 9(3):29-35.
- DECROP, A. & SNELDERS, K. 2004. The neglected variety drive: A useful concept for consumer behaviour. *Journal of consumer research*, 14:172-175.
- DECROP, A. 2006. Vacation decision making. Oxfordshire: CABI Publishing. 226 p.
- DEDEOGLU, B.B., BALIOGLU, S., KUCLIKERGIN, A. 2015. Understanding the relationship of service scape, value, image pleasure, and behavioural intentions among hotel customers. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing*, 1-20.

- DEL BOSQUE, I.R. & MARTIN, H.S. 2008. Exploring the cognitive image of a tourism destination. *An international journal of tourism*, 8(5):77-97.
- DENSCOMBE, M. 2007. The good research guide for small-scale social research projects. 4th Edition. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill
- developing an extended model of the theory of planned behaviour. *International Dimanche & HAVITS*. 2015. Histoqual: the development of a historic houses assessment scale. *Tourism management*, 44:157-167.
- DIMANCHE, F. & LEPTIC, A. 1999. New Orleans tourism and crime: A case study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(1):19-23.
- DIMANCHE, M. & HAVITS, A. 2015. Histoqual: the development of a historic houses assessment scale. *Tourism Management*, 44:157-167.
- DORNYE, Z. 2001. Teaching and researching motivation. London: Longman.
- DUBE, L., RENAGHAM, L.M., & MILLER, J.M. 1994. Measuring customer satisfaction for strategic management. *Cornell hotel and restaurant administration quarterly*, 35(1):39-48.
- DWYER, L. & KIM, C. 2003. Destination competitiveness: determinants and indicators. *Current issues in tourism*, 6(5):369-414.
- DWYER, L., MELLOR, B., MISTILIS, A. & MULES, E. 2000. Tourism image: attribute measurement of state tourism products using multidimensional scaling techniques. *Journal of travel research*, 10:16-20.
- DWYER, L., FORSYTH, B., SPURR, R & HO, W. 2003. Attitude and the prediction of behaviour. *Tourism management*, 2(5).
- EDGINGTON, C.R., HANSON, C.J., EDGINGTON, S.R. & HUDSON, S.D. 1998. Leisure programming: a serviced-centred and benefits approached. 3rd Ed. Boston, Mass.: McGraw-Hill. 501 p.
- EDWARDS, D., GRIFFIN, T., HAYLLAR, B., DICKSON, T. & SCHWEINSBERG, S. 2009. Understanding tourists experience and behaviour in cities: An Australian Case study. *Tourism management*, 2(7):23-40.
- emy of marketing science*, 25(2):139-153.
- ENGEL, J.F., BLACKWELL, R.D. & MINIARD, W. 2015. Patterns of destination repeat business: British tourists in Mallorca, Spain. *Journal of travel research*, 4:24-28.
- EYSENCK, H.J., EYSENCK, S.B. 1970. Tourist role, perception of risk and destination choice. *Tourism Management*, 29:20.
- FENG, M. & JANG, A. 2009. Sampling First steps in research. *Pretoria: Van Schaik*.

- FENG, R. & JANG, S. 2007. Temporal destination revisit intention: the effects of novelty seeking and satisfaction. *Tourism management*, 28(2):580-590.
- FERRARIO, F.F. 2009. The evaluation of tourist resources: An applied methodology. *Journal of travel research*, 17(3):18-22.
- FIELD, A. 2005. Discovering statistics using SPSS. *Sage Publications*.
- FORMICA, K. 2000. Measuring novelty seeking in tourism. *Annals of tourism research*, 12:732-751.
- FOURIE, J. 2006. Tourism and leisure needs of high school learners in Potchefstroom. Potchefstroom: North-West University, (Dissertation-MA), 145.
- FROCHOT, I. & HUGHES, H. 2000. HISTOQUAL: The development of a historic houses assessment scale. *Tourism management*, 21(2), 157-167.
- FROCHOT, I. 2013. An analysis of regional positioning and its associated food images in French tourism brochures. New York, NY: The Haworth Hospitality Press.
- GALLARZA & GIL SAURA. 2006. Equity and disconfirmation perceptions as influences on merchant and product satisfaction. *Journal of consumer research*, 9.
- GARTNER, W. 1993. Image formation process. Haworth Press, New York
- GEORGE, R. 2004. Marketing South Africa tourism and hospitality. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 347.
- GEORGE, R. 2011. Marketing South Africa tourism and hospitality. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 347.
- GETZ, D. 2011. Festivals, Special Events and Tourism. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- GITELSON, R.J. & CROMPTON J.L. 2012. Psychometric theory. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- GITELSON, H. & CROMPTON, C. 1984. Whence consumer loyalty. *Journal of marketing*, 66.
- GITELSON, H. & CROMPTON, C. 2012. A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of marketing research*, 66:460-469.
- GITELSON, R.J., CROMPTON, J.L. 2014. Insights into the repeat vacation phenomenon. *Annals of tourism research*, 11(2):199 -217.
- GNOTH, J. 1997 .Tourist's motivation and expectation formation. *Annals of tourism research*, 24(2):283-304.
- GOOSSENS, C. 2000. Tourism information and pleasure motivation. *Annals of tourism research*, 27(2):301-321.
- GREEN, R.G., BEATY, W.W. & ARKIN, R.M. 1984. Human motivation: psychological, behavioural and social approaches. Boston: Allyn and Becon. 516 p.

- HALL, C.M. & PAGE, S.J. 2002. The geography of tourism and recreation: environment, place and space. 2nd ed. London: Routledge. 399 p.
- HAN, H. & KIM, Y. 2010. An investigation of green hotel customers' decision formation: HENSHER, D.A. 2001. Travel behaviour research: the leading edge. Oxford: Elsevier Science.
- HESKERTT, H.L., JONES, T.O., LOVEMAN, G.W., SASSER, W., J.R. & SCHLESINGER, L. 2008. Putting the service profit chain to work. *Harvard business review*, 205-11.
- HEUNG, V.C.S. & LEONG, J.S.L. 2006. Travel demand and behaviour of university students in Hong Kong. *Asia pacific journal of tourism research*, 11:81-95.
- HJAGER, A. & CORIGLIANO, M. 2000. Food for tourists determinants of an image. *International journal of tourism research*, 2(4): 281-293.
- HJALAGER, A. & RICHARDS, G. 2002. Research issues in tourism and gastronomy. Tourism and gastronomy. London, England: Routledge.
- HOLDEN, A. 2005. Tourism studies and social sciences. London: Routledge.
- HOLDEN, A. 2005. Tourism studies and social sciences. London: Routledge. 228 p.
- HOLLOWAY, J.C. & PLANT, R.V. 1988. Marketing for tourism. London: Pitman Publishing.
- HOLLOWAY, J.C. 1998. The Business of tourism, 5th (ed), Longman, Harlow.
- HSU, T., TSAI, Y. & WU, H. 2009. The preferences analysis for tourist choice of destination: a case study of Taiwan. *Tourism management*, 30:288-297.
- HU, H., HUANG, C. & CHEN, P. 2010. Do reward programs truly build loyalty for the lodging industry? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(1):128–135.
- HU, Y.Z. & RITCHIE, J.R.B. 2003. Measuring destination attractiveness: A contextual approach. *Journal of travel research*, 32(2):25-35.
- HUBERMAN, M. 2014. Qualitative data analysis: A Sourcebook of new methods. American Educational Research Association.
- HUI, T.K., WAN, D. & HO, A. 2007. Tourist's satisfaction, recommendation and revisiting Singapore. *Tourism management*, 28(4):965-969.
- HYDE, E. 2008. Planning, designing and reporting research. Cape Town: Pearson Education.
- Iso-Ahola, S.E. 1980. The social psychology of leisure and recreation. Dubuque IA: Brown. 463 p.
- ISO-AHOLA, S.E. 1982. A general model of traveller destination choice. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45.
- JARVIS, L.P. & WILCOX, J.B. 2016. Loyalty measurement: A critical examination and theoretical extension. *An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 14(2):1992.

- JENG, E. & FESENMAIER, E. 2002. Destination image and tourist loyalty: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management*, 10.
- JENNINGS, G. 2001. Tourism research. Milton: Willey. 452 p.
- JONKER, J.A., HEALTH, E.T. & DU TOIT, C.M. 2004. The identification of management process-critical success factors that will achieve competitiveness and sustainable growth for South Africa as a tourist destination. *Southern African business review*, 8(2):1-15.
- KANDAMPULLY, J., JUWAHEER, T.D. & HU, H.H. 2002. Repeat first time visitation in the influence of hotel firm's quality of service and image and its effect on tourism customer loyalty. *International journal of hospitality & tourism administration*, 12(1):21-42.
- KAPLANIDOU, K. 2007. Affective event and destination image: their influence on Olympic travellers' behavioural intentions. *Event Management*, 10(2):159-173.
- KASAVANA, M.L., NUSAIR, K. & TEODOSIC, K. 2010. Online social networking: redefining the human web. *Journal of hospitality and tourism technology*, (1): 62-82.
- KASTENHOLZ, E. 2004. Assessment and role of destination self-congruity. *Annals of tourism research*, 31(3):719-723.
- KAYAT, K. & HAI, M.A. 2014. Perceived service quality and tourists' cognitive image of a destination. *International journal of tourism and hospitality research*, 25(1):2014.
- KHAN, H. 2013. Tourism multiplier effects on Singapore. *Annals of tourism research*, 17:3.
- KIM, H., BORGES, M.C. & CHON, J. 2006. Impacts of environmental values on tourism motivations: the case of FICA, Brazil. *Tourism management*, 27(5):957-967.
- KIM, K. 2006. Travel behaviour of US university students: travel involvement, push motivation, pull motivation, satisfaction and destination loyalty. Michigan State University, 138.
- KIM, K. OH, I. & JOGARATNAM, G. 2007. College student travel: a revised model of push motives. *Journal of vacation marketing*, 13(1):73-85.
- KIM, Y. J. 2007. Korean outbound travel: Travel Motivation. Proceedings of Asia Pacific Tourism Association Inaugural Conference, 4(1):275-302.
- KLENOSKY, D. 2002. The pull of tourism destinations: a means-end investigation. *Journal of travel research*, 40:385-395.
- KOLB, D.A. 2008. Individual learning styles and the learning process. Sloan School of Management, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- KOTLER, P. 2006. B2B Brand Management. Heidelberg: Springer.
- KOTLER, P. 2006. Marketing for hospitality and tourism. 4th ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- KOTLER, P., BOWEN, J. & MAKENS, J. 2006. Marketing for Hospitality and tourism. 4th ed. Pearson: New Jersey.

- KOTZE, F. 2005. The role of print media in travel decision-making. Potchefstroom: North- West University. (Dissertation -MA).
- KOZAK, M. & REMINGTON, M. 2002. Tourist satisfaction with Mallorca, Spain, as an off-season holiday destination. *Journal of travel research*, 38(2):260-269.
- KOZAK, M. 2000. Comparative assessment of tourist satisfaction with destinations across two nationalities. *Tourism management*, 22(4):391- 401.
- KOZAK, M. 2001. Repeaters behaviour at two distinct destinations. *Annals of tourism research*, 28(3):785- 808.
- KOZAK, M. 2002. Comparative analysis of tourist motivation by nationality and destinations. *Tourism management*, 23(3):221-232.
- KREJCIE, R.V. & MORGAN, D.W. 1970. Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and psychological measurement*, 30(3):607-610.
- KRUGER, M., SAAYMAN, M., ELLIS, S. M. 2010. Does Loyalty Pay? First-time versus repeat visitors at a national arts festival. *Southern African Business Review*, 14(1):79-104.
- KUMAR, N. 2005. Assessing reseller performance from the perspective of the supplier. *Journal of marketing research*, 29.
- LAESSER, C., BERITELLI, P. & HEER, S. 2014. Different native languages as proxy for cultural difference in travel behaviour: insights from multilingual Switzerland. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 8(2):140-152.
- LAING, J., WHEELER, F., REEVE, K. & FRONT, W. 2014. Assessing the experiential value of heritage assets: A case study of a chase heritage precinct, Bendigo, Australia. *Tourism management*, 40:180-192.
- LAM, T. & HSU, C.H.C. 2006. Predicting behavioural intention of choosing a travel destination. *Tourism management*, 27:589-599.
- LARSEN, R. & WARNE, R.T. 2010. Estimating confidence intervals for eigenvalues in exploratory factor analysis. *Behavior Research Methods*, 42(3):871-876.
- LAU, A. & MCKERCHER, B. 2004. Exploration versus acquisition: A comparison of first-time and repeat visitors. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42:279–285.
- LAW, R. 2015. The perceived impact of risks on travel decisions. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 8:289-300.
- LEE, C., LEE, Y., WICKS, B.C. 2004. Segmentation of festival motivation by nationality and satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, 25:61–70.
- LEE, C.K., LEE, Y.K. & LEE, B.K. 2005. Koreans destination image formed by the 2000 World Cup. *Annals of tourism research*, 23(4):839-858.

- LEE, C.K., YOON, Y.S. & LEE, S.K. 2007. Investigating the relationships among perceived value, satisfaction, and recommendations: The case of the Korean DMZ. *Tourism Management*, 28:204-214.
- LEE, M. & CUNNINGHAM, L.E. 2011. A cost/benefit approach to understanding service loyalty. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 15(2):113-30.
- LEE, T.H. 2009. A structural model to examine how destination image, attitude and motivation affect the future behaviour of tourists. *Leisure sciences*, 31:215-236.
- LEIPER, N. 2004. Tourism management. 3rd Ed. French's Forest, NSW: Pearson Education Australia. 445 p.
- LEPP, A. & GIBSON, H. 2003. Tourist roles, perceived risk and international tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3):606-24.
- LEUNG, D., LAW, R. & LEE, H.A. 2011. The perceived destination image of Hong Kong on trip.
- LI, J. W. J. & CARR, N. 2004. Visitor satisfaction. *International journal of hospitality & tourism administration*, 5(3):31-48.
- LI, X., CHENG, C., KIM, H., PETRICK, J. F. 2008. A systematic comparison of first-time and repeat visitors via a two-phase online survey. *Tourism Management*, 29:278- 293.
- LI, X., MENG, F. & UYSAL M , 2008 . Spatial pattern of tourist flows among the Asia-pacific countries. *Asia pacific journal of tourism research*, 13(3).
- LITTRELL, M.A. 1990. Symbolic significance of textile crafts for tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(2):228-245.
- LITVIN, S.W. 2006. Revisiting Plog's model of allocentricity and psychocentricity one more time. *Cornell hotel and restaurant administration quarterly*, 47:245-253.
- LOCKER, A.Z. & PERDUE, K. 1992. Travel motivations of Korean pleasure to travellers of Australia and New Zealand. *Pacific tourism review*, 2.
- LOHMANN, M. & KAIM, E. 1999. Weather and holiday destination preferences: image, attitude and experiences. *Review of Tourism*, 54(2):54-64.
- LOKER, L. & PERDUE, R. 1992. A benefit segmentation of a non-resident summer travel market. *Journal of travel research*, 31(1):31-35.
- LONG, L. 2014. Culinary tourism: A folkloristic perspective on eating and otherness. *South Africa folklore*, 181-204.
- MAREE, K. & PIETERSEN, J. 2007. Sampling. (In Maree, K. ed. *First steps in research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik. p. 171-181.)
- MAREE, K. & PIETERSEN, J. 2007. The quantitative research process. (In Maree, K. ed. *First steps in research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik. p. 145-153.)

- MAREE, K. & VAN DER WESTHUIZEN, C. 2007. Planning a research proposal. (In MAREE, K. ed. *First steps in research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik. p. 24-45.)
- MARTENSON, R. 2007. Corporate brand image, satisfaction and store loyalty: A study of the store as a brand. *Journal of retail & distribution management*, 35(7):544-555.
- MASLOW, A.H. 1943. A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50:370-396.
- MAYO, E. & JARVIS, L. 1981. The psychology of leisure travel. *Boston: CBI Publishing*, 281.
- MAYO, E.J. & JARVIS, L.P. 2011. The Psychology of Leisure Travel: Effective Marketing and Selling of Travel Services. Boston: CBI Publishing Company.
- MAZURSKY, D. 1989. Past experiences and future tourism decisions. *Annals of tourism research*, 16(3):333-344.
- MCDANIEL, C. & GATES, R. 2002. Marketing research essentials. New York: Wiley.
- MCDUGAL, G.H. & LEVESQUE, T. 2010. Customer satisfaction with service: Putting perceived value into the equation. *Journal of services marketing*, 14:392-410.
- MCKERCHER, B. 1998. The effect of market access on destination choice. *Journal of travel research*, 37:39-47.
- MCKERCHER, B. 2008. Towards a classification of cultural tourists. *International journal of tourism research*, 4(1):29-38.
- MCKERCHER, B., WONG, D. Y. Y. 2014. Understanding tourism behaviour: examining the combined effects of prior visitation history and destination status. *Journal of travel research*, 43:171-179.
- MELEDDU, M., PACI, R. & PULINA, M. 2015. Repeated behaviour and destination loyalty. *Tourism management*, 50:159-171.
- MIDDLETON, V.T.C., FYALL, A., MORGAN, M. 2009. Marketing in travel and tourism. 4th ed. Elsevier: Amsterdam.
- MILL, K. & MORRISON, A.M. 2010. Hospitality and travel marketing. 4th ed. Delmar, Cengage learning: New York.
- MILLER, G. 2007. The development of indicators for sustainable tourism: results of a Delphi survey of tourism researchers. *Tourism management*, 22:351-362.
- MILMAN, A. & PIZAM, A. 1995. The role of awareness and familiarity with a destination: the central Florida case. *Journal of travel research*, 33(3):21-27.
- MINGHU, S. 2007. Travel behaviour of Chinese tourist living in the city of Beijing, China. Potchefstroom: North-West University, (Dissertation-MA), 129.
- MORIS, D.B. & LIN, C.H. 2010. Why do first-time and repeat visitors patronize a destination. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing*, 27(2):193-210.

- MOSTAFAVI, S.F. & MAT SOM, A.P. 2010. Relationship marketing and community involvement: two significant factors for tourism strategies. *Sustainable tourism*, 47-53.
- MOUTINHO, L. 2000. A probability of revisitation model: the case of winter visits to the Grand Canyon. *Service Industrial Journal*, 11(4):439-457.
- MOUTINHO, L. 2003. Consumer behavior in tourism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 21(10):1-44.
- MOUTINHO, L. 2013. The sage dictionary of quantitative management research. London: Sage Publications.
- MOUTINHO, L. 2000. Strategic management in tourism. Wallingford: AB Publications. 349 p.
- MURPHY, L., MASCARDO, G., BENCKENDOFF, K. 2010. Exploring word-of-mouth influences on travel decisions: friends and relatives vs other travellers. *International journal of customer studies*, 31(5).
- NEAL, C., QUESTER, P. & HAWKINS, D. 2002. Consumer behaviour: implications for marketing strategy. *Sydney: Irwin*, 581.
- NICKERSON, N. P. & ELLIS, E. 1991. Tourism and Personality: A Comparison of Two Models. Department of Recreation and Leisure, University of Utah.
- NICOSIA, F.M. 1996. Consumer decision process: Marketing and advertisement implications. Englewood cliffs. N.J : Prentice Hall.
- NIININEN, O., SZIVAS, E. & RILEY, M. 2004. Destination loyalty and repeat behaviour: an application of optimum stimulation measurement. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 6(6):439-447.
- OALD, (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary). 2000a. "Desire". 6th Ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1422 p.
- OALD, (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary). 2000b. "Desire". 6th Ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1422 p.
- OALD, (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary). 2000c. "Desire". 6th Ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1422 p.
- OH, H., FIORE, A.M. & JEOUNG, M. 2007. Measuring experience economy concepts: tourism applications. *Journal of travel research*, 46:119-131.
- OLIVER, R.L. 2008. Satisfaction: A behavioural perspective on the consumer. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- OLIVER, R.L. 2009. Whence consumer loyalty. *Journal of Marketing*, 63:33-44.
- OLIVER, R.L. 2011. A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of marketing research*, 17:460-469.

- OOM DO VALLE, P., CORREIA, A. & REBELO, E. 2008. Determinants of tourism return behaviour. *Tourism and hospitality research*, 8(3):205-219.
- OPPERMAN, M. 2000. Tourism destination loyalty. *Journal of travel research*, 39(1):78-84.
- OPPERMANN, M. 1996. Visitation of tourism attractions and tourist expenditure patterns - repeat versus first-time visitors. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 1(1):61 -68.
- OPPERMANN, M. 1997. First-time and repeat visitors to New Zealand. *Tourism management*, 18(3):177-181.
- OPPERMANN, M. 1999. Predicting destination choice: A discussion of destination loyalty. *Sage Journal*, 5(1):1999.
- OPPERMANN, M. 2010. Destination threshold potential and the law of repeat visitation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(2):131-137.
- OZTURK, A.B. & OU, H. 2008. The impact of destination images on tourists' perceived value, expectations, and loyalty. *Journal of quality assurance in hospitality & tourism*, 9(4).
- PAGE, S.J. & CONNEL, J. 2009. Tourism: a modern synthesis. 3rd ed. Andover, UK: South-Western Cengage Learning. 663 p.
- PAGE, S.J., BRUNT, P., BUBSY, G. & CONNEL, J. 2001. Tourism: a modern synthesis. London Thomson Learning, 475.
- PAINTER, D. & RIGSBY, L. 2005. Teacher Research. Available on Wide Web: <http://gse.gmu.edu/research/tr/index.shtml>. Accessed 28 January 2017.
- PALLANT, J. 2010. SPSS survival manual: a step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS. 4th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- PARAHOO, K. 1997. Nursing research: principles, process and issues. New York: Palgrave Macmillan
- PARASURAMAN, A., ZEITHAMAL, V. & BERRY, L. 1988. SERVQUAL a multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality. *Journal of retailing*, 64(1):12-40.
- PARASURAMAN, A., ZEITHAML, V. & BERRY, L. 1985. A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of marketing*, 49:41-50.
- PATRICK, J.F., MORAIS, D.D. & NORMAN, W.C. 2001. An examination of the determinations of entertainment vacations intentions to revisit. *Journal of travel research*, 1(1).
- PEARCE, P. & LEE, U. 2005. Developing the travel career approach to tourist motivation. *Journal of travel research*, 43(3):226-37.
- PEARCE, P.L. 1991. Analysing tourist attractions. *Journal of tourism studies*, 2(1):46-55.
- PEARCE, P.L. 2005. Tourist behaviour: themes and conceptual schemes. Clevedon, UK: Channel View Publications, 214.

- PETRICK, J.F. 2002. An examination of golf vacationers' novelty. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29:384-400.
- PETRICK, J.F. 2004. First timers' and repeaters' perceived value. *Journal of travel research*, 43(1):463-70.
- PETRICK, J.F. 2004. The roles of quality, perceived value and satisfaction in predicting cruise passengers' behavioural intentions. *Journal of travel research*, 42(4):397-407.
- PETRICK, J.F., BACKMAN, S.J. 2002. An examination of golf travellers satisfaction, perceived value, loyalty and intentions to revisit. *Tourism management*, 6(3/4):223-237.
- PETRICK, J.F., MORAIS, D.D. & NORMAN, W.C. 2001. An examination of the determinants
- PIKE, S. & RYAN, C. 2004. Destination positioning analysis through a comparison of cognitive, affective and conative perception's. *Journal of travel research*, 42(7):333-342.
- PIKE, S. 2008. Destination marketing organisation. Oxford Uk : Elsevier L.T.D.
- PINE, B.J. & GILMORE, J.H. 1999. The experience economy: work is theatre and every business a stage. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- PIZAMA, A. & MANFIELD, Y. 1999. Consumer behaviour in travel tourism. New York: Haworth Hospitality Press, 530.
- PLOG, S. 1977. Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. In Kelly, E., (Ed), domestic and international tourism, institute of certified travel agents, Wellsbury, MA.
- PLOG, S.G. 2002. The power of psychographics and the concept of venturesomeness. *Journal of travel research*, 40(3):244-251.
- POLIT, D.F. & HUNGLER, B.P. 1991. Nursing Research: principles and methods, 4th ed. J.B. Lippincott company. Philadelphia, New York, Baltimore.
- POON, S.M. 1993. Factors influencing the types of products and services purchased over the Internet. *Internet Research*, 10(2):102-113.
- PRAYAG, G. & RYAN, C. 2012. Antecedents of tourists' loyalty to Mauritius: the role and influence of destination image, place attachment, personal involvement, and satisfaction. *Journal of travel research*, 51(3):342-356.
- PRAYAG, G. & RYAN, C. 2011. The relationship between the push and pull factors of a tourists destination: the role of nationality-an analytical qualitative research approach. *current issues in tourism*, 14(2):121-143.
- PRAYAG, G. 2008. Image, satisfaction and loyalty-the case of Cape Town, Anatolia. *International journal of tourism and hospitality research*, 19(2):205-224.
- PRESTWITH, A., PERUGUNI, M. & HURLING, R. 2008. Goal desires moderate intention behaviour relations. *British journal of social psychology*, 47(1):49-71.

- PRETORIUS, L., KRUGER, M. & SAAYMAN, M. 2010. Does the travel behaviour of South African tourism students from different cultural backgrounds differ? *Journal of leisure studies*. (In process of review.)
- PRICHARD, M.P., HOWARD, D.R. 1997. The loyal travel: Examining a typology of service patronage. *Journal of travel research*, 35(4):2-10.
- RACINO, J.A. 1999. Policy, Program Evaluation, and Research in Disability: Community Support.
- RAJ, A. 2004. Tourist behaviour: a psychological perspective. New Delhi: KANISHAKA Publishers, 382.
- RANDLE, M. 2011. Self-congruity theory: To what extent does it hold in tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(4):454-464.
- RAUYRUEN, P. & MILLER, K.E. 2007. Relationship Quality as a Predictor of B2b Customer Loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(1):21-31.
- REDMOND, L. 2000. Identifying and analysing travel-related attitudinal, personality and lifestyle clusters in the San Francisco Bay area. University of California, Davis Institution of Transportation Studies, 360.
- REICHEL, A. 2009. Israel backpackers: The role of destination choice. *Annals of tourism research*, 46(2):217-226.
- REICHHELD, F. F. & SCHEFTER, P. 2000. E-loyalty. *Harvard Business Review*, 78 (4):105-113.
- REICHHELD, F.F. 2016. The loyalty effect. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press. *Research*, 33(4):1141-1158.
- RICHARD, J.A. 2004. Customer repurchase intentions. A general structural equation model. *European journal of marketing*, 37(11):1762-1800.
- RICHARDS, G. 1996. The scope and significance of cultural tourism. *Cultural tourism in Europe*, 19-45.
- RIMMINGTON, M. & YUSKEL, A. 1998. Tourist Satisfaction and food service experience: Results and implications of an empirical investigation. *Anatolia*, 9(1):37-57.
- RITCHE, J.R.B. & ZINS, M. 2008. Culture as determinant of the attractiveness of a tourism region. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 5:252-267.
- ROSS, G.F. 2014. Ideal and actual images of backpacker visitors to Northern Australia. *Journal of travel research*, 32(2):54-57.
- RYAN, C. 1997. From motivation to assessment. (In Ryan, C.,(Ed). The tourist experience. London: Cassell. p. 48-72.)

- RYAN, C. 2003. Recreational tourism: demand and impacts. Clevedon: Channel View Publications. 358 p.
- SAAYMAN, M. & VAN DER MERWE, P. 2007. Travel motivations of tourists visiting Kruger National Park, First international Tourism Conference of ICNT, 23-24 November. National Parks and Tourism. Heide: Germany.
- SAAYMAN, M. 2001. Tourism marketing in South Africa. 2nd Ed. Potchefstroom: Leisure C Publications. 389 p.
- SAAYMAN, M. 2006. Marketing tourism products & destinations: getting back to the basics. 2nd Ed. Potchefstroom: Leisure C Publications. (Institute for Tourism and Leisure Studies.) 234 p.
- SAAYMAN, M., SLABBERT, E. & VAN DER MERWE, P. 2009. Travel motivation: a tale of two marine destinations in South Africa. *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*, 31(1):81-94.
- SANPARKS : <https://www.enevironment.gov.za/events/departmentactivities> /2016 parks week
SANPARKS Available at : <https://www.enevironment.gov.za/events/departmentactivities> /2016 parks week
Accessed: 12 June 2016.
- SANTOS, J. 2003. E-service quality: a model of virtual service quality dimensions. *Managing service quality*, 13(3):233-46.
- SCHALLER, M. 1992. Sample size, aggregation, and statistical reasoning in social inference. *Journal of experimental social psychology*, 28(1):65-87.
- SCHEIDER, I.E. & BACKMAN, S.J. 1996. Cross- cultural equivalences of festival motivations: a study Jordan. *Festival management and event tourism*, 4(3/4):139-144.
- SCHIFFMAN, L. & KANUK, L. 2000. Consumer behavior. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- SCOTT, D. 1978. A comparison of visitors' motivations to attend three urban festivals. *Festival management and event tourism*, 3(3):121-128.
- SEELEY, E.S. 1988. The Implications of Maslow's theory of motivation for consumer behaviour: a hierarchical consumption theory, UMI Dissertation Services.
- SELIN, S.W. & Howard, D.R. 2008. Ego involvement and leisure behavior: A Conceptual specification. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 20(3):237-244.
- SHANKA, T., QUADDUS, M. & HOSSAIN, M.E. 2010. Understanding the antecedent factors of visitor's destination loyalty using partial least square: paper presented at the ANZMAC annual conference 2010.
- SHANKAR, A. 2006. Consumer empowerment: A Foucauldian interpretation. *European Journal of marketing*, 40(9/10):1013-1030.

- SHETH, J.N., NEWMAN, B.I., Gross, B.L. 1991. Why we buy: A theory of consumption value. *Journal of business research*, 22:159-170.
- SHOEMAKER, S. & LEWIS, R.C. 1999. Customer loyalty: the future of hospitality marketing. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 18(4):345–370.
- SIRAKAYA, E. & WOODSIDE, A.G. 2005. Building and testing theories of decision making by travellers. *Tourism management*, 26(6):815-32.
- Slabbert, E. 2002. Key success factors in market segmentation. Potchefstroom: North-West University. (Dissertation – MA.) 121 p.
- SLABBERT, E., SAAYMAN, M. & VAN DER MERWE, P. 2012. Travel behaviour of South African tourism students. *South African journal for research in sport, physical education and recreation*, 34(1):137-151.
- SMITH, A. 2013. Reimagining the city—the value of sport initiatives. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32:217-236.
- SMITH, A.J. 2005. Interpretative phenomenological analysis. *Journal of biomedical informatic*, 42:2.
- SMITH, S. 1991. The supply-side definition of tourism: Reply to Leiper. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15:179-190.
- SODERLUND, M. 2008. Customer Satisfaction and Its Consequences on Customer Behaviour Revisited. The Impact of Different Levels of Satisfaction on Word-of-Mouth, Feedback to the Supplier and Loyalty. *International journal of service industry Management*, 9(2):169-88.
- SOLOMON, M. 1996. Consumer Behaviour, 3rd ed., Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- SOM, M., ABUKHALIFEH, M.Y. 2012. Factors influencing visitors' revisit behavioural intentions: a case study of Sabah, Malaysia. *International journal of marketing studies*, 4(4):39-50.
- SONG, H., DWYER, L., LI, G. & CAO, Z. 2012. Tourism Economic Research: A review and assessment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39:1653-1682.
- SOUTH AFRICAN TOURISM. 2012. Annual report. Department of Tourism: Pretoria.
- SOUTH AFRICAN TOURISM. 2015. Annual report. Department of Tourism: Pretoria.
- SOUTH AFRICAN TOURISM. 2016. Annual report. Department of Tourism: Pretoria.
- SPSS. (2009). SPSS® 16.0 for windows, release 16.0.0, Copyright© by SPSS Inc. Chicago, Ill. Available at: <http://www.SPSS.com> Assessed: 30 January 2016.
- SPSS. 2009. SPSS® 16.0 for windows, release 16.0.0, Copyright© by SPSS Inc. Chicago, Ill. <http://www.SPSS.com>.

- STEPCHENKOVA, S. & MILLS, J.E. 2010 . Destination image: A meta-analysis of 2000-2007 research. *Journal of hospitality marketing & management*, 19(16):575-609.
- STEPHENS, D.C. 2000. The Maslow Business Reader. Abraham H. Maslow, John Wiley & Sons, New York, NY.
- STEYN, S. 2016. The impact of tourist and travel activities on facets of psychological well-being. Potchefstroom: North-West University. (Dissertation -MA), 121.
- STRUWIG, F.W. & STEAD, G.B. 2001. Planning, designing and reporting research. Cape Town: Pearson Education South Africa.
- STRUWIG, F.W. & STEAD, G.B. 2004. Planning Design and Reporting Research. Cape Town: Maskew Miller, Longman.
- STYLOS, N. & ANDRONIKIDIS, A. 2013. Exploring the cognitive image of a tourism destination. *International journal of tourism*, 8(5):77-97.
- SUN, X., CHI, C. G.-Q., & XU, H. 2013. Developing destination loyalty: the case of Hainan Island. *Tourism Management*, 43(2):547-577.
- SWAIN, M.B. & MOMSEN J.H. 2002. Gender/tourism/fun? New York: Cognizant Communication Corporation.
- SWANSON, K.K. & HORRIDGE, P.E. 2006. Travel motivations as souvenir purchase indicators. *Tourism management*, 27(4):671-683.
- SWARBROOKE, J. & HORNER, S. 2001. Consumer behaviour in tourism. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann, 352.
- SWEENEY, J.C. & SOUTAR, G.N. 2001. Consumer perceived value: The development of multiple items scale. *Journal of retailing*, 77(1):203-220.
- TAM, J. L.M. 2000. Customer satisfaction, service quality and perceived value. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 20(7/8):21-35.
- TAN, W. 2017. Repeat visitation: a study from the perspective of leisure constraint, tourist experience, destination images and experiential familiarity. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, 6:233-242.
- TAY, T.R. 1996. Ground Travel Mode Choices Of Air Arrivals At Reginal Destinations: The significance of tourism attributes and destination contexts. *Research in Transport Economic*, 26: 44-53.
- TAYLOR, R., THIELKE, R. & CONDE, J.G. 2005. Research electronic data capture. *Journal of biomedical information*, 42:377-381.
- TIMOTHY, D.J. 2001. Gender relations in tourism: Revisiting patriarchy and underdevelopment. In Yorghos Apostolopoulos, Sevil Sonmez and Dollen J, Timothy (Eds.), Women as Producers

and Consumers of Tourism in Developing Regions, Connecticut, USA: Praeger Publishers, 235-247.

TOSUN, C., DEDEOGLU, B.B. & FYALL, A. 2015. Destination service quality, affective image and revisit intention: The moderating role of part experience. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, 4:222-234.

TUGCU, C.T. 2014. Tourism and economic growth nexus revisited: A panel causality analysis for the case of the Mediterranean region. *Tourism management*, 42:207-212.

TUSTIN, D.H., LIGTHELM, A.A., MARTINS, J.H. & VAN WYK, H.J. 2005. Marketing research in practice. Pretoria: Unisa Press, 749.

UM, S. & CROMPTON, J.L. 1990. Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of tourism research*, 17: 432-448.

UM, S. 2011. Decomposing annual visitation to amusement parks into the categories of initial visitors and revisitors. *Asia pacific journal of tourism research*, 2(1):43-50

UM, S., CHON, K. & RO, Y.H. 2006. Antecedents of revisit intention. *Annals of tourism research*, 33(4), 1141-1158. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2006.06.003>.

UYSAL, M. & JUROWSKI, C. 1994. Testing the push and pull factors. *Annals of tourism research*, 21(4):844-846.

VAN MIDDLEKOOP, M., BORGER, A.W.J., ARENTZE, T.A. & TIMMWRMANS, H.J.P. 2001. Representing and predicting tourist choice behaviour: rule-based vs. utility-based approach. *Consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure*, 107:122.

VAN RAAI, W. 2006. Vacation decisions, activities and satisfactions. *Annals of tourism research*, 17:432-448.

VAN VUUREN, C. & SLABBERT, E. 2011. Travel behaviour of tourists to a South African holiday resort. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance*, 17(4): 694-707.

VISSER, A. 2002. The impact of crime on tourism. Potchefstroom: North-West University. (Dissertation -MA), 118 .

VISSER, A. 2009. A competitiveness model for tourism products. Potchefstroom: North-West University. (Thesis -DPhil.), 197.

WANG, D. 2004. Tourist behaviour and repeat visitation to Hong Kong. *Tourism Geographies*, 6(1):99-118.

WANG, N. 2003. Rethinking authenticity in tourism experience. *Annals of tourism research*, 26(2):349-370.

- WEBSTER, C. & IVANOV, S. 2012. The political economy of tourism in the future. New York and Oxford, 1:23.
- WEINER, B. 2000. Attributional thoughts about consumer behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 27:382-387.
- WETCHER-HENDRICKS, D. 2011. Analysing quantitative data: An introduction for social researchers. New York: Wiley.
- WHITE, C. 2014. Destination image: to see or not to see? Part II. *International Journal of Contemporary hospitality management*, 17:191-196.
- WILLIAMS, A.P. & SOUTAR, G.N. 2009. Close to the edge: Critical issue for adventure tourism operators. *Asia pacific journal of tourism research*, 10(3):247-262.
- WILLIAMS, D.R. & VASKE, J.J. 2013. The measurement of place attachment: validity and generalizable of a psychometric approach. *Forest Science*, 49(6):830-840.
- WILLIS, T. 2001. The case for process approaches in loyalty research in tourism. *International journal of tourism research*, 3(1):23-32.
- WONG, I.A., FONG, L.H.N. & LAW, R. 2016. A Longitudinal multilevel model of touris outbound travel behaviour and the dual-cycle model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(7):957-970.
- WOODSIDE, A. & LYSONSKI, S. 1989. A general model of traveler destination choice. *Journal of Travel Research*, 27(4):8-14.
- WOODSIDE, A.G. & MACDONALD, R. 1994 .General systems framework of customer choice processes for tourism services. *Intertemporal and Intercountry Perspectives*, 30-59.
- WORLD TOURISM ORGANIZATION. 2012. Tourism 2020 Vision. Madrid: WTO. 2003. WTO World Tourism Barometer. 1(1) 2.
- WORLD TRAVEL AND TOURISM COUNCIL (WTTC). 2017. *Economic impact*: South Africa. London: World Travel and Tourism Council.
- YAVUZ, N., BALOGLU, S. & UYSAL, M. 1998. Market segmentation of European an Turkish travellers to North Cyprus. *An international journal of tourism and hospitality*, 9(1):4-18.
- YIN, R. 2013. Application of case study research. *Sage publication, California*, 33-35.
- YOON, Y. & UYSAL, M. 2005. An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: A structural model. *Tourism Management*, 26(1):45-56.
- YUKSEL, A. 2001. Managing customer satisfaction and retention: A case of tourist destinations, Turkey. *Journal of vacation marketing*, 7(2):153-168.
- ZABKAR, V., BRENC, M. M. & DMITROVIC, T. 2010. Modelling perceived quality, visitor satisfaction and behavioural intentions at the destination level. *Tourism management*, 31(4):537-546.

- ZEITHAML, V.A. 2008. Consumer perceptions of price quality and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of marketing*, 52:2-22.
- ZHANG, H., FU, X. & LIPING, A.C. & LU, L. 2014. Destination image and tourist loyalty: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management*, 40:213-223.
- ZHANG, H., WU, Y. & BUHALIS, D. 2017. A model of perceived image, memorable tourism experiences and revisit intention. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management* (In Press).
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2017.06.004>
- ZHANG, H.Q. & LAM, T. 1999. An analysis of mainland Chinese visitors motivations to visit Hong Kong. *Tourism management*, 20(5):587-594.
- ZIKMUND, W.G. & BABIN, B.J. 2007. Exploring marketing research. Thomson.
- ZINS, A.H. 2001. Two means to the same end: hierarchical value maps in tourism-comparing the association pattern technique with direct importance ratings. *Consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure*, 123-151.
- ZOLTON, J. & MASIERO, L. 2012. Tourists intra-destination visits and transport mode: A bivariate probit model. *Annals of tourism research*, 43:529-546.

IDENTIFY THE PREDICTORS OF TOURIST INTENTIONS TO RETURN TO SOUTH AFRICA AS A TOURISM DESTINATION.

[illegible]

SECTION B: FACTORS INFLUENCING INTENTION TO RETURN TO SOUTH AFRICA					
14. Rate your intention to return to South Africa as a tourist					
	Totally agree				
	Agree				
	Not sure				
	Disagree				
	Totally disagree				
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

SECTION C: REASONS FOR VISITING SOUTH AFRICA

15. Rate your reasons for visiting South Africa

	Totally agree				
	Agree				
	Not sure				
	Disagree				
	Totally disagree				
I travelled to South Africa:					
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 D: TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR				
16. What was the main reason for visiting South Africa?		20. Which of the following attractions did you visit during your stay in South Africa?		
Holiday/Leisure	1	Table Mountain	1	
Business	2	Garden Route	2	
Visit friends or family	3	Cape Town V&A Waterfront	3	
Sport	4	Johannesburg	4	
Shopping	5	Robben Island	5	
Adventure	6	The Winelands	6	
Culture/Historic	7	Soweto	7	
Medical	8	Cradle of humankind	8	
Other, Specify	9	National Parks	9	
		Durban beachfront	10	
		Sun City	11	
		Cultural villages	12	
17. How did you hear about South Africa?		21a. Did you have any negative experiences while visiting South Africa? (Which you experienced personally)		
Television	1		Yes	1
Radio	2		No	2
Internet website	3			
Newspapers	4			
Word-of-mouth	5			
Social media sites	6			
Travel agent	7			
Travel guide	8			
Other, Specify	9			
		21b. If yes, please specify the specific experience		
18. What was your favourite attraction?				
19. To what extent do the following aspects influence your willingness to return to South Africa?				
			To a great extent	
			Somewhat	
			Very little	
		Not at all		
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.				

APPENDIX 2
PROOF OF LANGUAGE EDITING

23 November 2017



I, Ms Cecilia van der Walt, hereby confirm that I took care of the editing of the dissertation of Ms M Manuga titled **IDENTIFY THE PREDICTORS OF TOURIST INTENTIONS TO RETURN TO SOUTH AFRICA AS A TOURISM DESTINATION**

MS CECILIA VAN DER WALT

BA (*Cum Laude*)

THED (*Cum Laude*),

Language editing and translation at Honours level (*Cum Laude*),

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

