

A travel decision-making framework inhibiting inbound tourism

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MA Tourism Management

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
Philosophiae Doctor in Tourism Management at the
Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University

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December 2015

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to use this opportunity to thank the following:

- My Maker, who has given me the ability to learn, develop and grow as a person. May I never forget that there's purpose in everything we do.
- My wife, Elmarie Fourie. Thank you for assisting me in distributing the Questionnaire in France. There will be more adventures. Thank you for all the late night coffee, understanding and full out support.
- My family, for all the prayers, votes of confidence and standing by my side.
- Professor Elmarie Slabbert, for her expertise, hard work, guidance, support and her "glass-half-full" mentality.
- Professor M. Saayman for his expertise.
- University of Angers, specifically Gerold Beyer who assisted with accommodation, logistical arrangements and support in Angers, France.
- Aldine Oosthuyzen for the processing of the statistics.
- Rod Taylor for the language editing.
- Professor Casper Lessing for the reference editing.
- The North-West University for the opportunity to complete this study.
- Rilla Schutte from Sonandela Translation and Design Services for translation of the Questionnaire into French.

I dedicate this study to my beautiful wife, Elmarie Fourie and our baby Isabella Isla Fourie

SUMMARY

The primary objective of this study was to develop 'A travel decision-making framework inhibiting inbound tourism' to assist marketers and the tourism government body in developing strategies to improve the market share of South Africa as a tourism destination for the European market, especially France. To achieve this objective, a number of secondary objectives were established, these being:

1. To analyse previous travel decision-making models and frameworks by means of an in-depth literature review.
2. To analyse the inhibitors and constraints influencing travel decision-making by means of an in-depth literature review.
3. To analyse travel inhibitors to South Africa as perceived by European tourists with reference to types and relationships between constraints by means of an empirical analyses.
4. To determine the influence of socio-demographics and travel behaviour on the evaluation of inhibitors.
5. To determine the effect of destination image and travel influencing factors on inhibitors.
6. To make conclusions and recommendations regarding the management of travel inhibitors of South Africa as a tourism destination and the implementation of the framework.

Tourists do not make single independent choices, but rather complex multi-faceted decisions in which the choices of different elements are interrelated in a decision process over a period of time. This absence of in-depth research into the non-user and the associated constraints represents an important limitation to fully grasp consumer behaviour research. The study of tourist consumer behaviour should not only attempt to comprehend the decision-making process of tourists, but should attempt to understand the variety of constraints preventing non-tourists from becoming tourists.

The literature review (Chapter 2), revealed that although a number of decision-making models exists, in-depth analysis of the effects of constraints on decision-making were

limited. The literature review further analysed, specific theory of constraints. Although constraint theories were mostly focused on leisure studies, certain key variables assisted the researcher in the categorisation of constraints as well as inhibitors. Specific constraints and inhibitors that could potentially influence decision-making to South Africa were reviewed in the literature review.

The quantitative study was conducted by means of two different approaches where non-probability sampling was applied in both cases. A complete list of residents of France and visitors to France that have not visited South Africa was not obtainable and therefore a complete sampling framework was not available. In the first phase questionnaires were distributed in France by trained fieldworkers. This destination was chosen due to the number of tourist's receipts (85 million per year) as well as the number of outbound tourists (20-30 million per year). Visitors from France are not one of South Africa's main markets and therefore the chances of selecting non-visitors to South Africa in France were good. Secondly, in Paris the Eiffel Tower, Sacré-Cœur and Montmartre were chosen as popular tourism attractions, in Angers Le Château d'Angers and The Maine River were chosen. Thus not only focusing on French nationalities as a target population, but also on the outbound travelling market of France as well as Central Europe in general and also a number of North and South American tourist as statistics have indicated that the latter niche market made a significant contribution on the GDP of France in 2011. In the second phase questionnaires were distributed through Facebook and Social media sites by means of snowball sampling. In total 300 questionnaires were distributed of which 273 questionnaires were utilised in the statistical analyses.

Result in all three articles (Chapter 3, 4 & 5) through empirical research revealed that in general decision-making, image, socio-demographic and travel behaviour factors would have a limited effect on respondents choosing South Africa as a preferred tourist destination if certain perceived and real inhibitors exist. It is thus all about the inhibitors and how that influences decisions. Respondents need to negotiate through these inhibitors before South Africa will become a primary option to meet their travel needs.

In the last chapter, chapter 6, a travel decision-making framework of inhibitors was developed to specifically enable marketers and tourism planners to understand the behaviour of the non-visitor to South Africa and enable them to review the constraints and plan and market accordingly. Thus this model enables a more focused marketing approach. Further contributions of the study from the first article (chapter 3) include the

assessment of these inhibitors in the South African case study and the realisation that security is not our biggest inhibitor but structural constraints. The perceptions that South Africa is expensive to travel to should thus be addressed with different marketing strategies and approaches.

It was the first time that an elaborated list of travel inhibitors were identified and assessed and thus a more detailed description of these as well as their role in travel decisions contributes to the body of knowledge of tourism marketing and decision-making. In the last article (chapter 5), the relations between image and travel inhibitors are a major contribution which has not been assessed previously. This gives new perspective as to how inhibitors can be managed through the development of an image that minimises the effect of inhibitors.

Access to non-visitors is challenging and therefore this study contributes to a scarce population which is difficult to research. More research such as this study is needed to grow visitor numbers. It is thus clear that in-depth knowledge was needed into the travel constraints of non-visitors to South Africa in order to overcome these and grow visitor numbers. For the purpose of this study the words 'constraints' and 'inhibitors' will be used interchangeably based on the context in which the words are being used. This study follows the article route.

Keywords: *Tourism, decision-making, models, frameworks, choice sets, destination choice, travel motivation, consumer behaviour, travel behaviour, demographic factors, constraints, inhibitors, inbound, South Africa.*

OPSOMMING

Die primêre doel van die studie was om 'n 'Reis besluitnemingsraamwerk wat inkomende toeriste inhibeer' te ontwikkel om bemarkers te help om strategieë te ontwikkel om Suid-Afrika se markaandeel as 'n toerismebestemming te bevoordeel. Die studie het gefokus op die Europese markte, veral moontlike besoekers van Frankryk. Om die primêre doel te bereik is sekondêre doelwitte ontwikkel en bereik, die sekondêre doelwitte sluit die volgende in:

1. Om vorige besluitnemingsmodelle en raamwerke te analiseer deur middel van 'n volledige literatuuranalise.
2. Om belemmeringe ten volle te analiseer en te bepaal hoedat dit besluitneming beïnvloed deur middel van 'n volledige literatuuranalise.
3. Om deur middel van 'n empiriese analise die reisbelemmeringe te ondersoek soos dit deur Europese toeriste gesien word met verwysing na die tipe verhoudings tussen belemmeringe.
4. Om die invloed van sosio-demografiese en reisgedrag op reisbelemmeringe te bepaal.
5. Om die effek van die beeld van 'n bestemmingsbeeld- en reisbeïnvloedende faktore op belemmeringe te bepaal.
6. Om aanbevelings en gevolgtrekkings te maak ten opsigte van die bestuur van reisbelemmeringe wat Suid-Afrika as 'n reisbestemming beïnvloed deur 'n besluitnemingsraamwerk van reis-belemmeringe te implementeer.

Toeriste neem nie enkele losstaande besluite nie – eerder komplekse veelvlakkige besluite waar verskillende fasette die besluite oor 'n gegewe tydperk heen beïnvloed. Daar bestaan tans 'n gebrek aan navorsing oor nie-toeriste en die belemmeringe wat hulle besluite beïnvloed verhoed navorsers om ten volle te begryp hoe reisgedrag beïnvloed word. Navorsing oor verbruikersgedrag moet nie alleen daarop fokus om die besluitnemingsgedrag te verstaan nie, maar ook daarop om te bepaal wat toeriste inhibeer om besluite te neem en watter belemmeringe daardie besluite beïnvloed.

Tydens die literatuurstudie (hoofstuk 2) is bevind dat daar tans voldoende besluitnemingsmodelle in die toerismeliteratuur bestaan, maar dat deurtastende analise van die impak van belemmeringe met betrekking tot besluitneming ontbreek. Modelle wat verband hou met belemmeringe word in die literatuurstudie ondersoek. Alhoewel die meeste modelle betrekking het op vryetydsbestuur, kon die kategorisering van belemmeringe op vryetydbestuur-studies gebruik word om te bepaal watter potensiële belemmeringe 'n moontlike impak op Suid-Afrika as 'n reisbestemming kan hê.

Deur middel van twee verskillende benaderings is 'n kwantitatiewe studie onderneem. 'n Volledige lys van bewoners in Frankryk en besoekers aan Frankryk wat Suid-Afrika nog nie voorheen besoek het nie, was nie beskikbaar nie. Gevolglik was geen proef-raamwerk vir die navorsing beskikbaar nie. In die eerste fase is die vraelys in Frankryk deur opgeleide veldwerkers versprei. Die bestemming is gekies omdat meer as 85 miljoen besoekers jaarliks na Frankryk reis, asook tussen 20 en 30 miljoen Franse toeriste wat jaarliks na ander internasionale bestemmings reis. Franse toeriste is tans nie een van Suid-Afrika se groot markte nie en om hierdie rede was die kans goed om nie-toeriste na Suid-Afrika te bereik. Tweedens is bekende toeriste produkte gekies, byvoorbeeld in Parys die Eiffeltoring, Sacré-Cœur en Montmartre. In Angers was Le Château d'Angers en die Maine Rivier gekies as potensiële toerisme produkte. Die fokus is daarom nie net op Franse nasionaliteite nie, maar ook op toeriste van Sentraal-Europa asook van Noord- en Suid-Amerika af. Statistiek het aangedui dat laasgenoemde lande 'n groot impak maak het op die Bruto Binnelandse Produk (BBP) van Frankryk. Tydens die tweede fase van die kwantitatiewe proefneming is die vraelyste versprei deur middel van Facebook en sosiale media versprei aan die hand van Sneebal-steekproefneming. In totaal is 300 vraelyste versprei, waarvan 273 vir statistiese analises gebruik is.

Resultate vanuit al drie artikels (hoofstuk 1, 2 &3), deur middel van die empiriese navorsing het die volgende getoon. Oor die algemeen het besluitneming, beeld, sosio-demografie en reisgedrag 'n beperkte impak op die respondente van die studie wanneer 'n besluit geneem moet word oor Suid-Afrika as 'n potensiële reisbestemming wanneer reisbelemmeringe 'n rol speel. Dit gaan dus meer oor die belemmeringe en hoe dit besluite beïnvloed. Respondente moet die belemmeringe tot so 'n mate kan oorkom voordat Suid-Afrika hul primêre reisbestemming sal word.

In die laaste hoofstuk, hoofstuk 6, is 'n reis besluitnemingsraamwerk van inhibeerders op inkomende toerisme is ontwikkel, gebaseer op die empiriese resultate. Die raamwerk sal

bemarkers en toerismebeplanners toerus om die gedrag van nie-toeriste na Suid-Afrika beter te verstaan en om die inligting te benut om 'n bemarkingstrategie vir die teikenmark saam te stel. Die uiteinde is 'n bemarkingsbenadering wat meer op nie-toeriste gefokus is. Verdere bydraes in die eerste artikel (hoofstuk 3) van die studie is die bekendmaking dat sekuriteitsbelemmeringe nie die grootste impak het nie, maar eerder strukturele belemmeringe. Die persepsie dat Suid-Afrika te duur is om na te reis moet deur middel van verskillende bemarkingstrategieë en –benaderings onder die loep geneem word.

Die studie is uniek in die opsig dat dit die eerste een is waarin 'n volledige lys van reisbelemmeringe geïdentifiseer is, asook die rol wat die belemmeringe by reisbesluitneming speel. In die laaste artikel (hoofstuk 4), word die verhouding tussen beeld en reisbelemmeringe ondersoek en is die resultate nuut in die toerisme-leer. Die resultate gee 'n ander perspektief op hoe belemmeringe bestuur kan word deur die ontwikkeling van 'n beeld van Suid-Afrika wat die effek van belemmeringe laat afneem. Toegang tot nie-besoekers is 'n uitdaging en dus dra die studie by tot 'n skaars populasie wat moeilik is om oor navorsing te doen. Meer studies soos die is nodig vir die toerismebedryf om te groei. Dit is dus duidelik dat in-diepte kennis nodig was rakende die reisbelemmeringe van nie-besoekers na Suid-Afrika om dit te oorkom en daardeur besoekersgetalle te groei. Vir die doel van die studie kan daar na belemmeringe verwys word om inbideers aan te dui. Die studie volg die artikel roete

Sleutelwoorde: *Toerisme, besluitneming, modelle, raamwerke, keuse stel, bestemmingskeuse, reismotivering, verbruikersgedrag, reisgedrag, sosio-demografiese faktore, beperkings, belemmeringe, inkomende, Suid-Afrika*

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism in South Africa has become one of the vital contributors to economic growth since 1994 (South African Yearbook, 2013:381). Tourism has also outperformed all other sectors in South Africa in terms of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and job creation (SAT, 2010:31). Despite the growth in tourism of 4.7% in 2013, South African tourism is still underperforming compared to the global growth rate of 5% (SAT, 2014b:5). South Africa is ranked as the 33rd global destination according to arrival statistics (SAT, 2014b:5). While arrival statistics indicated growth in most air and land markets, the foreign direct spend decreased by 4% in 2013 (SAT, 2014b:27). This raises questions related to travel decision making and reasons why people prefer other destinations rather than South Africa as a suitable tourism destination.

Decision making is an everyday human activity and is omnipresent, whatever the domain (Decrop, 2006:ix). Decisions guide one's current and future behaviour. It is also the cornerstone of marketing and consumer behaviour. According to Hudson and Gilbert (2002:137) behavioural concepts, such as decision making, are at the heart of marketing in tourism, hospitality and leisure and have been researched extensively. It is essential for marketing departments, managers and national marketing initiatives to understand how internal, psychological processes influence individuals to decide on a certain holiday destination or a particular type of tourism product or service or why not (Hudson & Gilbert, 2002:137). In most cases, tourists do not make single independent choices, but rather complex multi-faceted decisions in which the choices of different elements are interrelated in a decision process over time (Dellaert, Ettema & Lindh, 1998:313).

Hudson and Gilbert (2002:142) clearly state that research on non-users (non-travellers) is difficult, yet vital for tourism marketers. Discovering why services or products are not being purchased is important for tourism destinations such as South Africa to adapt strategies and products to grow the number of visitors. Two specific examples of the benefits supporting these statements are the research done by Uys (2003) and Minghui (2007). Uys (2003:120), determined that the main reasons Dutch tourists did not intend to visit South Africa was because of the financial and cost implications, crime or safety and a lack

of knowledge. Similar research on the travel behaviour of Chinese tourists living in the city of Beijing indicated that the biggest constraints factors for this particular market was, in order of significance, a lack of information, limited opportunities or are still considering visiting South Africa (Minghui, 2007:91). Similar questions, to different target markets resulted in different outcomes. The information obtained through this research on non-users was used to adjust the market segmentation and promotion mix strategies specifically for the particular target markets.

The knowledge gained in this research will assist marketers in identifying different types of non-users for whom different marketing messages can be developed. A further understanding of the constraints faced by these groups can assist in altering potential demand into purchase decisions (Hudson & Gilbert, 2002:142). Therefore, the aim of this chapter is to provide background information regarding the tourism decision-making models, frameworks and constraints inhibiting decision making in tourism, followed by the problem statement. The objectives of the study, proposed research methods and contribution of the study will be stated. This chapter will be concluded with the clarification of concepts and provide an indication of the chapter content.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Tourism includes the movement of people to a specific destination by means of any existing form of transport (Saayman, 2002:2). A tourist destination is a location with multi-products and the potential ability to either entertain or educate potential tourists (Ryan, 1998:1). According to Papatheodorou (2001:164), destination choice has, since early years, been a central issue in tourism literature. A potential consumer is assumed to allocate financial resources for tourist and non-tourist products, to maximise usefulness given the existing constraints when making a decision regarding a destination.

The literature is rich in studies that examine motivations to travel and tourist behaviour (Ryan, 1998:3; Funk, Alexandris & Ping, 2009:43; Ritchie, Tkaczynski & Faulks, 2010:412; Lee & Joh, 2010:488). The majority of travel and tourism choice models have grown from models used in consumer behaviour (Harrison-Hill, 2001:37). Nicosia (1966), Howard and Sheth (1969), and Narayana and Markin (1975) were amongst the main contributors to consumer behaviour research specifically focusing on decision making. Nicosia (1966) as well as Howard and Sheth (1969:467) suggests that buying behaviour is repetitive and purchase cycles for various products are established by buyers which determine the

frequency of purchases. Narayana and Markin (1975:1) suggested that consumers make purchase decisions based on brand awareness or unawareness. The set of brands in a product class of which the consumer is aware is signified by the awareness set and it is from this awareness set that the consumer makes a decision to purchase (See Table 1.1).

Choice sets have ever since been adapted in tourism decision making and destination choice models (Woodside & Sherrel, 1977; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989, Um & Crompton, 1990; Um & Crompton, 1992; Smallman & Moore, 2010). Decrop (2006) identified three basic classifications of different types of tourism decision- making models: Microeconomic models, cognitive models and conceptual frameworks. Microeconomic models are concerned with consumer's spending money to gain benefits from tourism and travelling. Demand to visit a tourism destination depends on the price: the lower the price, the higher the demand to travel. Budgetary (money) constraints of the traveller/tourist are taken into consideration, however no reference is being made as to how and why decisions are being made. Rugg (1973), Morley (1994), Papatheodorou (2001) and Seddighi and Theocharous (2002) are the main contributors to Microeconomic models based on the traditional demand theory first introduced by Lancaster (1971).

Cognitive models focus on socio-psychological variables involved in tourism decision making (Decrop, 2006:28). Cognitive models confront micro-economic models regarding the role/contribution of the decision maker/tourist in the whole process. The tourist becomes actively involved and perceptions, needs and information processes become more evident. Important contributors to cognitive models include Crompton (1979); Um and Crompton (1990); Um and Crompton (1992); Crompton and Ankomah (1993), Woodside and Lysonski (1989), van Raaij and Francken (1984), van Raaij (1986), Moutinho (1987), Goodall (1988) and more recently Smallman and Moore (2010).

Interpretive frameworks in travel and tourism decision making are more concerned with postmodern interpretive approaches based on the principle that decision making is much more than a formalised multistage process. Alternative variables and hypotheses are identified that were not taken into account in traditional models (Decrop, 2006:39). The efforts of Woodside and MacDonald (1994), Teare (1994) and Dellaert *et al.* (1998) towards a more interpretive approach in decision making is summarised in Table 1.1 together with the main contributors of cognitive and microeconomic models.

Table 1.1: An overview of decision-making models and frameworks

Decision-making Models		
Title of study	Author(s)	Focus of study
The Theory of Buyer Behaviour	Howard & Sheth (1969)	Buying behaviour is repetitive and purchase cycles for various products are established by buyers, which determine the frequency of purchases.
Consumer Behaviour and Product Performance: An Alternative Conceptualisation.	Narayana & Markin (1975)	Consumers make purchase decisions based on brand awareness or unawareness. The set of brands in a product class of which the consumer is aware is signified by the awareness set and it's from this awareness set that the consumer makes a decision to purchase.
Tourism Microeconomic Models		
Title of study	Author(s)	Focus of study
The Choice of Journey Destination	Rugg (1973)	A theoretical framework analysing consumers' choice of journey destination with the inclusion of time and budget (money) constraints.
Experimental Destination Choice Analysis	Morley (1994)	Decision model including decision to travel or not, the allocation of time and budget and the choice of the tour.
Why People Travel to Different Places	Papatheodorou (2001)	The characteristics approach of decision-making in tourism offers a systematic framework, where destination choice is based on a set of micro foundations. The application of the traditional tourism demand theory is discretely confronted.
A Model of Tourism Destination Choice: a theoretical and empirical analysis.	Seddighi & Theocharous (2002)	A methodological framework within which the impact of characteristics of a tourism product on foreign travel can be apprehended and studied. The characteristics of the tourism product/destination including quality of service, advertising and political instability are combined to generate a perception of the destination/product.
A New Economic Framework for Tourism Decision-making	Bailey & Richardson (2010)	The article challenges conventional microeconomic and macroeconomic approaches in tourism. Due to emerging concerns of the modern tourism system which require economic analysis that considers community as a unit of analysis. An ecological economics framework for analysing economic decision-making is proposed. Extensions of microeconomic models are proposed as an alternative framework for addressing dynamic decision-making and trade-offs in resource use.
Cognitive Models		
Title of study	Author(s)	Focus of study
Motivations for Pleasure Vacation	Crompton (1979)	A conceptual framework where the motivations of pleasure-seeking tourists are identified that influence their decision to visit a destination. In total nine motivations were identified, where seven is classified as socio-psychological.
Consumer Research on Tourism: Mental and Behavioural Constructs	Van Raaij (1986)	Emphasising the significance of perceptions and preferences as a basis for understanding tourism behaviour.
Consumer	Moutinho (1987)	An analysis of all the major variables that influence tourist decision-

Behaviour in Tourism		making. Amongst the variables include: culture and reference group influences, the relationship between individuals and their environment, perceived risk and family decision processes. A model defining the complex interaction of many influencing elements in the pre-purchase and post-purchase decision processes.
How Tourists Choose their Holidays: An Analytical Framework	Goodall (1988)	An analysis of the holiday selection process and the choice of the resort. The holiday selection process is sequential and involves decisions influenced by implicit and explicit constraints.
Vacation Decisions, Activities, and Satisfaction.	Van Raaij & Francken (1984)	Analysing lifestyle, equity and attribution in understanding vacation behaviour.
A General Model of Traveller Destination Choice	Woodside & Lysonski (1989)	A review of the proposition that perception and preferences should be the basis for tourism marketing and the development of destination awareness and choice model.
Attitude Determinants in Tourism Destination Choice.	Um & Crompton (1990)	A two stage approach was developed based on the construct of an evoked set of decision-making. The two stages comprehend firstly the development from an awareness set to an evoked set and secondly destination choice from the evoked set.
The Roles of Perceived Inhibitors and Facilitators in Pleasure Travel Destination Choice.	Um & Crompton (1992)	The conceptualisation of destination choice as a three-stage sequential decision. The role of perceived inhibitors and facilitators were examined and measured as part of the sequential decision.
Structure of Vacation Destinations Choice Sets.	Crompton (1992)	Choice sets as described in consumer behaviour models were adapted to the context of tourism and integrated into a structure relevant to tourism.
Choice Set Propositions in Destination Decisions.	Crompton & Ankomah (1993)	Research propositions related to the three stages in the choice set concept.
The effect of environmentally friendly perceptions on festival visitors' decision-making process using an extended model of goal-directed behaviour.	Song, Lee, Kang & Boo (2012)	An analysis of the effect of perceptions on the behavioural intention indicates that in general perceptions formed positive and contributing relationships with the constructs in the extended model of goal-directed behaviour (EMGB). Attitude, subjective norm, and positive anticipated emotion affected desire, which, in turn, influenced the behavioural intention.
Investigating the Role of Prior Knowledge in Tourist Decision Making: A Structural Equation Model of Risk Perceptions and Information Search	Sharifpour, Walters, Ritchie & Winter (2014)	An investigation of the relationships among tourists' risk perceptions and types of their prior knowledge, and past international travel experience. The results indicate that objective knowledge did not significantly reduce or increase the risk associated with travelling, however subjective knowledge had the strongest influence on tourist risk perceptions. Various dimensions of perceived risk may provoke the use of different information sources; prior knowledge also plays a role alongside risk perceptions in determining the information sources used.

Interpretive and Conceptual Frameworks		
Title of study	Author(s)	Focus of study
Consumer Decision-making.	Teare (1994)	Reviewing pre-purchase and post-purchase studies. The main outcome is that product involvement and prior product experience are the core variables of tourism decision-making processes.
Multi-faceted Tourist Travel Decisions: A Constraint-based Conceptual Framework.	Dellaert <i>et al.</i> (1998)	Analysing tourist travel behaviour integrating multi-faceted travel decisions and decision-making constraints. The outcome of the choice is emphasised rather than the structure of tourists' travel decision-making processes.
A refined model of factors affecting convention participation	Zhang, Leung & Qu (2007).	A two-step refinement of conceptual models was performed: firstly, an existing model of Oppermann and Chon (1997.) was used as the foundation framework; secondly, a modified model was proposed as the conceptual framework for future study.
Process Studies of Tourists' Decision-Making	Smallman & Moore (2010)	A Review of tourism decision-making paradigms incorporating ontology of decision-making as a process.
Testing the effects of congruity, travel constraints, and self-efficacy on travel intentions: An alternative decision-making model.	Hung & Petrick (2012)	This study applied the Motivation Opportunity Ability (MOA) model to explain travel intentions. Furthermore, this study explored the role of self-congruity, functional congruity, perceived travel constraints, constraint negotiation, and self-efficacy in travel intentions.

Source: Researcher's own compilation

The models, processes and frameworks summarised in Table 1.1 form the foundation of the studies in travel and tourism decision making. It is clear that various studies have been done in this regard. However, the outcome of the majority of the models is generic: The assumption exists that a decision to travel or purchase a tourism product or services will be made at the end of the day. However, until now decision-making models failed to make provision for non-users (non-travellers), in other words people who want to and do travel but decide not to visit a particular destination such as South Africa.

Although inhibitors are evident in the majority of the models and frameworks, (noted as constraints, variables, factors, risks or characteristics) limited reference has been made to the negotiation of inhibitors in the filtering process of decision making. In the field of leisure research, Jackson and Rucks (1995:85) clearly stated that, in the past, researchers would assume that when individuals are faced with constraints the result would be non-participation. However, some individuals would negotiate through the constraints and therefore continue leisure participation. The same applies to tourism. The type of tourism, for example business or leisure tourism also influences the effect of constraints on the result of the decision. For the purpose of this study, the impact of inhibitors will only be

considered for leisure tourists. Potential inhibitors in tourism which were considered for the purpose of this study are indicated in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: List of inhibitors associated with tourism in South Africa

INHIBITORS ASSOCIATED WITH TOURISM
– Crime (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007; Cooper & Hall, 2008; Vanhove, 2005; Reisinger & Mavondu, 2006)
– Health risks (Waner, 1999; Hsu & Kang, 2009; Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199; Reisinger & Mavondu, 2006)
– Market access (McKercher, 1998).
– Terrorism and political unrest (Sönmez, 1998; Ioannides & Apostolopoulos, 1999; Vanhove, 2005; Sheela, 2007; Reisinger & Mavondu, 2006).
– Time constraints (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009; Coreira & Crouch, 2004; Stabler, Papatheodorou & Sinclair, 2010; Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Lack of information (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999; Knowles, Diamantis & El-Mourhabi, 2004; Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Natural and human-caused disaster (Sönmez, 1998).
– Infrastructure and facilities (Prideaux, 2000; Sheela, 2007; Albalate & Bel, 2010).
– Physical distance and cognitive distance (Ankomah <i>et al.</i> , 1996; Harrison-Hill, 2001)
– Perception and perceived perception (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999; Knowles, Diamantis & El-Mourhabi, 2004).
– Budget & monetary constraints (Holden, 2005; Alegre, Mateo & Pou, 2010; Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Cultural and language difficulties (Reisinger & Mavondu, 2006)
– Social (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Political (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Physical (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Family stage (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Lack of interest (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Fear and safety (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Lack of transport (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Companionship (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Overcrowding (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
– Distance (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)

Source: Researcher's own composition

According to Müller and Ulrich (2007:87), individual constraints can be defined in terms of three characteristics such as capacity constraints, coupling constraints and authority constraints. Capacity constraints refer to the individual's physical ability to do things for

example the movement from one place to another. Coupling constraints arises when an individual is bound in a number of social contracts. For example, when tourists travel with family or in a group, their individual plans have to be coordinated and bundled together. Authority constraints are the outcome of societal contracts creating a certain common set of rules that apply to a large number of individuals. Tourism is not a random occurrence, but rather a function of individual agency entrenched in a complex set of constraints and opportunities (Müller & Ulrich, 2007:87).

This absence of in-depth research into the non-user and the associated constraints represents an important limitation to fully grasp consumer behaviour research. Hudson and Gilbert (1999:70) suggest that the study of tourist consumer behaviour should not only attempt to comprehend the decision-making process of tourists, but should attempt to understand the variety of constraints preventing non-tourists from becoming tourists. These constraints can be specifically related to a destination. It is evident that there is a need for more comprehensive research regarding non-users, specifically related to the constraints/ inhibitors South Africa is facing as a tourism destination.

South African Tourism has researched all the key target markets regarding barriers and reasons for not visiting the country, but these studies are based on the perceptions of tourists who have not visited South Africa in the past five years. There is no indication of where in the decision-making and filtering process these potential tourists reject South Africa as a potential destination. It is also not clear to what extent each of these constraints contribute to the non-visiting decision. Another gap in these types of studies is the exclusion of non-users in the research. By firstly determining the constraints of non-users from visiting South Africa, and secondly framing the constraints might provide more in-depth insight in non-user behaviour. This creates opportunities for revised marketing strategies and product packaging and also enables the expansion to other markets.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

It is evident that travel and tourism decision making have been well researched from various perspectives. The majority of the models and frameworks indicate the complexity of tourist behaviour. Tourism constraints/inhibitors are mentioned in some of the models especially in the filtering processes of the choice sets. A point of concern is the fact that the majority of the models and frameworks focus on individual tourist behaviour and, according to Decrop (2006:45), some research only deals with one particular aspect of

decisions, such as the destination or accommodation. Other research does take sub-decisions into account, but fails to explain how they are related.

As most of the research on travel decision making focused on users, this study will attempt to analyse the inhibitors from the point of view of the non-user. The main markets to South Africa are from European countries such as Germany, England and France (SAT, 2012b). It seems that these travellers prefer South Africa as a tourism destination, however the percentage of visitors from these countries is growing slowly and remains fairly small. Specifically, France as a Metropolitan has a population of 62 814 233 while Paris has a population of 10 410 million (Central Intelligence Agency, 2015).

According to the ITB Travel Trends Report (2010:7), although in a time of financial recession, France showed a small growth of 2% in their outbound travel market. Bovagnet (2006:4) indicates that a total of 81 million trips of more than four nights have been undertaken by the French population in 2006 where the number of outbound trips was 13 million, which is only 16%. Even though the majority of French tourists prefer domestic holidays, French tourists are still the biggest spenders of all the European Nations (ETC, 2011:15). France remains one of the core markets with an annual budget of EUR 3 002 948 according to SAT (2012b). With a brand awareness rating of 77% but only 25% indicated that a visit to South Africa would be likely in the near future, it is important to determine why this country is not considered an option. France also remains the number one destination of choice worldwide which makes it tactically sound for sampling to obtain results from as many nationalities as possible. Statistics have indicated that the outbound travelling market to France made a significant contribution on the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of France in 2011 (European Travel Commission, 2011:15).

This study will therefore analyse the key constraints inhibiting tourists from travelling to South Africa as a tourism destination and analyse the relationships between the constraints and other variables such as demographics by creating a travel-decision-making framework for non-users. Although the study focuses specifically on inhibitors, literature often refers to inhibitors as constraints and risks. Hsu and Kang (2009:707) stated that in-depth knowledge of constraints as a part of decision making will assist marketers in understanding and minimising these constraints. This might lead to the development or the growth of new markets and existing markets. This will provide valuable information for a marketing strategy of non-users for the identified countries. The question therefore remains; how does certain travel constraints inhibit Europeans to travel to South

Africa and how do these constraints influence or correlate with one another in the decision-making process?

1.4. PRIMARY AND SECONDARY OBJECTIVES

The primary and secondary objectives of this study are as follows:

1.4.1 Primary objective

To develop a travel decision-making framework inhibiting inbound tourism to assist marketers and the government in developing strategies to improve the market share of South Africa as a long-haul international tourism destination , .

1.4.2 Secondary objectives

- To analyse previous travel decision-making models and frameworks by means of an in-depth literature review.
- To analyse the inhibitors and constraints influencing travel decision making by means of an in-depth literature review.
- To analyse travel inhibitors to South Africa as perceived by European tourists with reference to types and relationships between inhibitors by means of an empirical analyses.
- To determine the influence of demographics, culture and nationality on the evaluation of inhibitors.
- To determine the effect of destination image and travel decision making factors on inhibitors.
- To draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding the management of travel inhibitors of South Africa as a tourism destination and the implementation of the framework.

1.5. RESEARCH METHOD

A two-pronged research approach is followed in this study: a literature review and an empirical analysis.

1.5.1 Literature review

The literature review focuses on travel behaviour, decision-making models, frameworks and inhibitors/ constraints related to and influencing the travel decisions of tourists. To

obtain the relevant information, an in-depth literature study is done on all the aspects mentioned. Subject related books are studied for appropriate information. Academic and newspaper articles were a useful source in obtaining recent information on this topic. Previous models and frameworks of tourism behaviour and decision making formed the basis of the study. Internet, search engines such as Ebscohost, SAGE Publications and Sabinet Online were used to obtain in-depth information on all the models and frameworks. This information is presented in Chapter 2 serving as the theoretical framework for this study.

Keywords: Tourism, decision making, models, frameworks, choice sets, destination choice, travel motivation, consumer behaviour, travel behaviour, demographic factors, constraints, inhibitors, inbound, South Africa.

1.5.2 Empirical research

The study was done by means of a quantitative method, in the form of a questionnaire. According to Maree and Pietersen (2007:145), a quantitative method by definition is systematic and objective in its use of numerical data from a specially selected subgroup of a population to simplify the findings of the population that is being researched. Descriptive and causal research design was implemented to summarise data in a meaningful way and investigate different variables and the effect they have on each other (Pietersen & Maree, 2007:183). This was executed in the following manner:

1.5.2.1 Sampling and description of sampling

The quantitative study was conducted by means of two different approaches where non-probability sampling was applied in both cases. A complete list of residents of France and visitors to France that have not visited South Africa was not obtainable and therefore a complete sampling framework was not available.

France as a Metropolitan has a population of 62 814 233 while Paris has a population of 10 410 million (Central Intelligence Agency, 2015), the city Angers has a population of 147 571 (Angers.FR, 2015) and Nice has a population of 1 005 million (About-France.Com., 2015). In the absence of a complete sample framework it was firstly argued that people who visit tourism attractions in France must have a propensity to travel and might consider international travel or are already travelling internationally. Secondly, a screening question related to previous travel to South Africa was asked to respondents to

determine whether they have previously travelled to South Africa. Where respondents indicated the latter to be true, they were not considered in the survey

1.5.2.2 Data collection method

The questionnaire (See Appendix A & Appendix B) was developed according to the demographic variables, travel-decision variables and constraint variables identified in the literature review and previous studies (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007; Sheela, 2007; Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999; Dellaert *et al.*, 1998). The questionnaire consisted of three sections: Section 1 focused on demographic information (for example age, education level, gender), Section 2 on the travel behaviour of respondents (for example number of holidays annually, preferred destinations, time of travel, type of travel) and Section 3 on the constraints pertaining to the decision not to visit South Africa (for example crime, economic factors, word-of-mouth influences). This research is exploratory in nature and therefore the questionnaire was also subjected to reliability and validity tests. Sections 1 and 2 consisted mainly of close-ended questions, whereas in Section 3, a Likert-scale question was used. Likert scale is a summated rating scale that includes a series of statements expressing a favourable or an unfavourable attitude (Jupp, 2006:161). The purpose of this study is to determine attitudes, either favourable or unfavourable towards South Africa as a potential tourism destination and therefore a 4-point Likert Scale was specifically used to get a directive answer from respondents and to avoid giving the option of choosing a neutral answer.

1.5.2.3 Distribution process

During the first phase of distribution, convenience sampling was applied at selected main tourism areas and attractions in France, Paris (Eiffel Tower, Sacré-Cœur and Montmartre); Angers (Le Château d'Angers and The Maine River) and Nice. Possible respondents were approached directly, asked the screening question and requested to complete the questionnaire. Questionnaires were distributed in France, thereby focusing on the outbound travelling market of France as well as long-haul international tourists as statistics have indicated that the latter niche market made a significant contribution to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of France in 2011 (ETC, 2011:15). The questionnaires were distributed by the researcher himself and 182 Questionnaires were distributed between 21 June and 30 June 2014.

During the second phase of this research after returning to South Africa the researcher applied snowball sampling through Facebook between August and December 2014. The questionnaire was placed on the researchers Facebook page, the questionnaire was shared with potential international travellers who have not visited South Africa before and requested from them to complete the questionnaire. After returning the completed questionnaire, the respondent was asked to refer the researcher to other travellers that have not visited the country in order to grow the number of questionnaires.

In total 273 questionnaires were completed to be used in the analyses. The sampling procedure was based on guidelines set by Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) for general research activities, which indicated that the recommended sample size (S) for a population (N) of 1 000 000 is 384. The sample size does not conform to the guidelines as set by Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) and although this cannot be considered representative of European travellers to South Africa the results provided clear information on constraints and non-travelling to South Africa. Even though the questionnaire was available in English and French, access to respondents, language barriers, time constraints in terms the length of the visit to France and financial limitations were considered and a follow-up study was recommended in chapter 6.

1.5.2.4 Statistical analysis

The data were collected and captured by the researcher, processed by a statistician of Statistical Services at North West University and interpreted by the researcher. Descriptive statistics were used focusing on the graphical display of frequency tables. In the first article, the empirical results are presented in three sections, (1) the general profile and (2) travel behaviour of the respondent population based on samples taken as described in the previous section. Thirdly, an exploratory factor analysis was done on Section 3 of the questionnaire pertaining to constraints inhibiting the respondent's decision not to visit South Africa. According to Field (2005:619) a factor analysis is a technique for identifying groups of variables to comprehend the structure of set variables and to reduce a dataset to a more meaningful size without compromising any of the original information. These constraints were grouped according to their factor loadings to determine the most important constraints inhibiting potential tourists from travelling to South Africa.

The second article included a summary all of this information as well as *t*-tests and ANOVAs to do a correlation analysis between the inhibiting constraints restraining non-

users from travelling to South Africa based on demographic characteristics. T-tests are a technique to compare two independent groups or variables to measure one outcome (Field, 2005:285), while ANOVAs test situations where several independent variables interact with each other (Field, 2005:309). The main objective of this chapter is to determine the extent to which the identified constraints are associated with demographic and travel behaviour characteristics.

In the third article the empirical results were analysed by means of exploratory factor analyses for constraints inhibiting respondents' decisions not to visit South Africa, factors influencing respondents' image of South Africa and factors influencing the travel decisions of respondents. Secondly, correlation analysis was done to establish the relationship between constraints, image and travel decisions of respondents by means of Pearson correlations. Pearson's coefficient is used in linear regression, ranging from -1 to +1. A value of +1 is the result of a perfect positive relationship between two or more variables. A value of -1 represents a perfect negative relationship. Lastly listwise regressions were done to establish the most significant travel decision-making predictors on travel constraints. Regression analysis is a statistical technique that can be used for the description of a large variety of data sets and the predictions of certain outcomes in different situations (Berk, 2004:XV).

1.6. CONCEPT CLARIFICATION

Often the terms that occur frequently throughout the study are used interchangeably, but are, in fact, not synonymous. A basic understanding of these concepts can be useful to clarify misconceptions. In this section all the concepts that occur frequently will be clarified.

1.6.1 Decision making

There is an increasing awareness of the need to understand how tourists make their decisions when it comes to the purchasing of a tourism offering (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:78). According to Foxall (2003:119), "Decision making is usually depicted as a cognitive process in which consumers become aware of a need or want and a possible means of satisfying it typically announced in an advertisement."

"When buying products, consumers generally follow the consumer decision-making process which includes the following five steps: need recognition; information search; evaluation of alternatives; purchase; and post-purchase behaviour" (Lamb, Hair &

McDaniel, 2009:138). Thus, for the purpose of this study, decision making can be seen as the cognitive process of selecting a logical tourism or destination choice from the available options depicted by specific needs, wants and means.

1.6.2 Inhibitors/ Constraints

The words 'Inhibitors' and 'Constraints' have been both been used in tourism literature, mostly to describe similar concepts. Um and Crompton (2012:98) clarifies the difference by defining constraints as limitations or perceived limitations that influence potential tourists against visiting a tourism destination. Inhibitors are defined as perceptions of limitations that operationalise constraints. Alejziak (2013) did a whole study on the term called "tourism activity inhibitors" in which it is defined as causes for non-participation in tourism. For the purpose of this study and for the sake of continuity in tourism literature the words 'constraints' and 'inhibitors' will be used interchangeably based on the context in which the words are being used.

An understanding of the constraints facing consumers can help transform potential demand into purchase decisions (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999:28). Buhalis and Darcy (2010:55) broadly categorised inhibitors in the following categories: budget and monetary constraints, time constraints, crime, political unrest and terrorism, natural and human-caused disasters, physical and cognitive distance and perceived perceptions. According to Müller and Ulrich (2007:87), individual constraints can be defined in terms of three characteristics such as capacity constraints, coupling constraints and authority constraints. Capacity constraints refer to the individual's physical ability to do things for example the movement from one place to another. Coupling constraints arise when an individual is bound in a number of social contracts. For example, when tourists travel with family or in a group, their individual plans have to be coordinated and bundled together. Authority constraints are the outcome of societal contracts creating a certain common set of rules that apply to a large number of individuals. Thus, for the purpose of this study, constraints as well as inhibitors are seen as perceived and real limitations that limit or restrict potential tourists' actions or behaviour from considering specific tourism products.

1.6.3 Framework

The majority of tourism literature refers to the term 'model' without clearly defining the term so frequently used. Schindler and Cooper (2001:52) state that a model is not an explanation, but rather the result of taking a structure of an object or process and using it

for the second object or process. However, Decrop (2006:39) states that a substantial number of studies have been focusing on a cognitive approaches and models to decision making. Decrop (2006:39) further states that this view has been challenged by new, lean and postmodern frameworks of decision making. Based on the principles that decision making is a formalised, multistage process, interpretive frameworks support a naturalistic and experiential approach on tourist behaviour. Alternative sets of propositions that include variables not taken into account in the previous models will therefore be considered in the study.

1.7. CHAPTER LAYOUT

In the following section, the different chapters in the study as well as the purpose of each chapter will be briefly outlined.

1.7.1 Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement

In this chapter, an overview of the whole study is provided. This includes the background to the study, problem statement, research methods, primary and secondary goals and concept clarification.

1.7.2 Chapter 2: Literature review – analysing travel decision-making models, frameworks and related inhibitors

The main focus of this chapter is to analyse models, frameworks and processes of travel decision making. Constraints related to travel decision making are researched as well. An in-depth literature review of the models, frameworks and constraints is the outcome of this chapter to provide context for the chapters following.

1.7.3 Chapter 3: Article 1 – Key inhibitors of travelling

From the empirical data that was obtained through questionnaires, a factor analysis is used to identify the key constraints facing South Africa as a tourism destination according to various nationalities (mainly French, British and Americans). It is also important to determine the most important constraints in this article.

1.7.4 Chapter 4: Article 2 – Influence of demographic characteristics on travel inhibitors

A correlation analysis between the inhibiting constraints restraining non-users from travelling to South Africa based on demographic characteristics are examined to determine the influence, correlation and recurrence of certain constraints.

1.7.5 Chapter 5: Article 3 – The effect of image and travel influencing factors on inhibitors

The effect of destination image and factors influencing the travel decisions on constraints is investigated firstly through individual factor analysis on all three variables concerned. Secondly, Person correlations by means of ANOVAs are drawn between image and constraints factors as well as factors influencing travel decisions and constraint factors to determine the relations between these variables. Lastly listwise regression analyses are used to determine the most significant travel influencing predictors on travel constraints.

1.7.6 Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations and the development of a decision making framework of travel inhibitors

In the last chapter, Chapter 6, attention is given to the conclusions and recommendations with regard to the findings from the empirical data as well as the application of the framework. In conclusion, models on tourism decision-making as identified in the literature study as well as all the empirical data gathered from the sampling was used to develop a non-user constraints framework.

CHAPTER 2: AN ANALYSIS OF TRAVEL DECISION-MAKING MODELS AND RELATED CONSTRAINTS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Based on the problem statement represented in Chapter 1, the main purpose of this chapter is to do an in-depth literature review regarding all the existing studies about travel decision-making. Constraints related to travel decision-making are researched as well. An in depth literature review of the models and constraints is necessary to provide context for the chapters following. It is a well-known fact that tourism contributes a significant portion annually to the economy and in some cases even more than gold exports as was the case in 2013 (South Africa, 2014:9). During 2013, tourism in South Africa indicated growth of 4.7% while compared to the global growth rate of 5%, tourism is still under performing (South Africa, 2014b:5).

According to Brunt (2010:53) one of the distinct features of tourism is that the consumer or potential tourist cannot 'test-drive' a holiday beforehand. Beirman (2003:3) states that for most international travellers, tourism is a discretionary act and many countries have invested heavily in tourism and have acquired a high level of economic dependence on inbound tourism. It is therefore of utmost important for any destination to understand how tourists make decisions, what constraints affect their decision-making and how can marketing be applied to alter perceived constraints to the destination.

2.2 ANALYSES OF TRAVEL DECISION-MAKING MODELS

The term behaviour in the context of tourism asserts that researchers need to look at what people do and how their bodies functions in time and space. Researchers also need to link the above mentioned with how tourists think, feel and react to tourism settings (Pearce, 2011:3). "Smart tourists everywhere plan carefully for a successful holiday (Pearce, 2011:1)." Consumer behaviour models have been developed since 1960's and significant progress has been made in this regard, especially within the field of tourism. Below follows a discussion regarding the various travels decision-making models and how it relates to this study.

2.2.1 Consumer Behaviour Models

The majority of models in tourism literature regarding destination choice process and travel decision-making have been influenced and derived from models within the consumer behaviour literature (Harrison-Hill, 2001:37). A critical analysis of these models will consent a deeper understanding of the source of the decision-making literature in tourism and where the limitations in research regarding non-participation derived from. The main contributors of the consumer behaviour literature such as; Howard and Sheth's Theory of buying behaviour and Narayana and Markin's Consumer Behaviour and product performance will be discussed in detail.

2.2.1.1. The Theory of Buying Behaviour

Howard and Sheth (1969:25) state that buying behaviour refers mostly to a repetitive band of choices in which the buyer establishes purchase cycles for various products. These cycles can vary from frequently to infrequent and erratic cycles. According to Howard and Sheth (1969:25), the central focus of the model remains on repeat buying behaviour over a period of time for the sake of continuity.

The buying process starts with the brand choice destination given the assumption that the buyer has a specific need or motivation for the product. The elements of the decision will be a set of motives, alternative brands and choice criteria by which motives are matched with alternatives. When this process requires a potential change in cycle the less experienced potential buyer also lacks well-defined choice criteria. An active search for information or generalisation from similar experiences in the past allows the buyer to develop choice criteria that would suffice in satisfying the needs and motives of the buyer.

This can result in repeat and routinised purchasing implying that the choice criteria are well established. Howard and Sheth (1969:27) identified the phase of repetitive decision-making as the psychology of simplification. However, the phenomenon exists that the buyer after establishing a routinisation of the decision process might even be found in too simple a situation that might result in boredom and monotony where all existing possible alternatives proven to be unacceptable. The need to complicate his situation by considering alternatives is called psychology of

complication (Howard & Sheth, 1969:28) that will allow the buyer to simplify the manner as described in the psychology of simplification process.

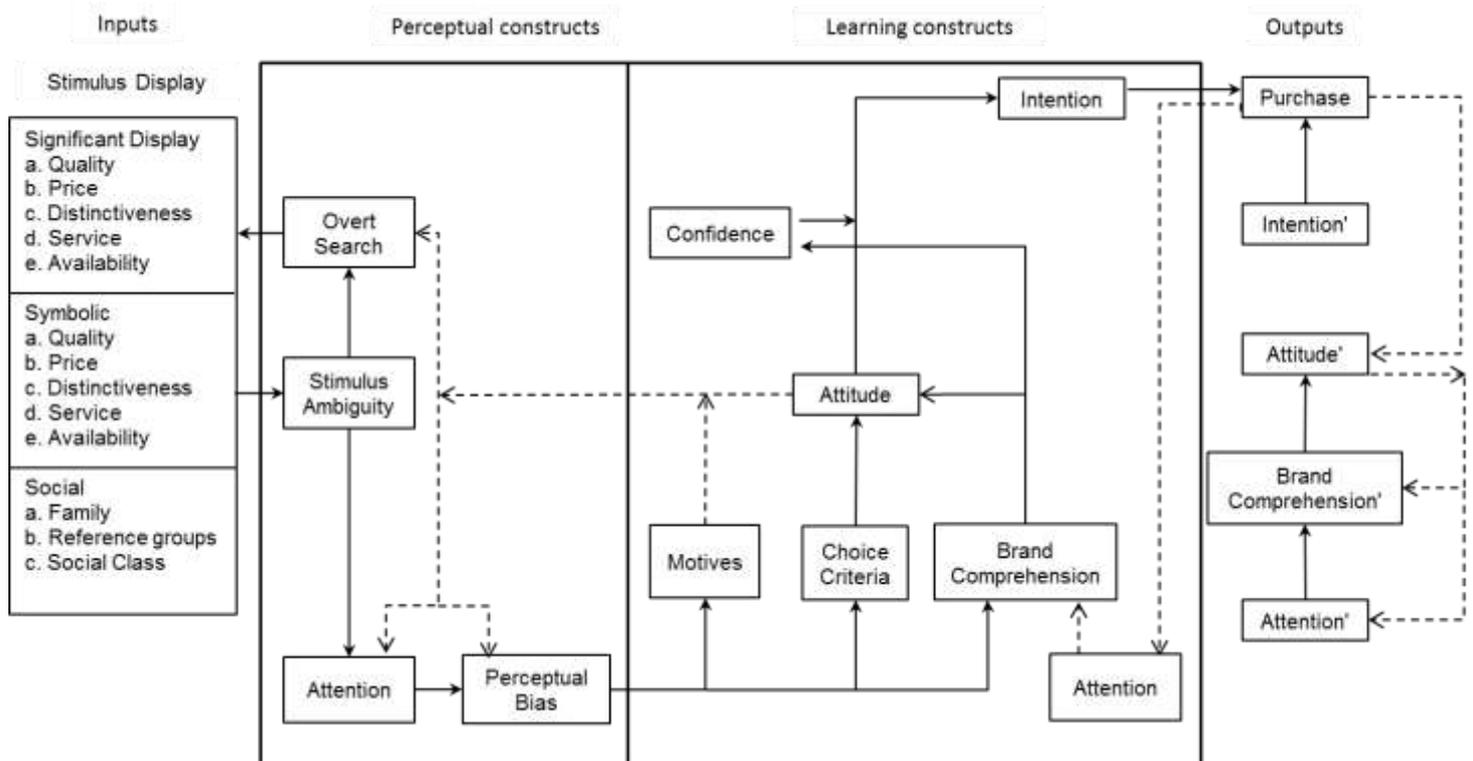


Figure 2.1: A simplified description of the theory of buyer behaviour
Source: Howard and Sheth (1969:30)

Figure 2.1 illustrates the four interrelated variables that the theory of buying behaviour consists of. Howard and Sheth (1969:24) identified these four variables as:

- Input variables
- Output variables
- Hypothetical constructs
- Exogenous variables

The input and output variable, the least abstract variables, are operationally well defined with a direct link to reality. On the other hand, the hypothetical constructs are more abstract, indirectly related to reality and operationally undefined. The exogenous variables describe the context in which buying behaviour occurs and used for market analysis and segmentation. The central rectangular box isolates the

various internal-state variables that combined together constitutes the hypothetical constructs. The input variables are stimuli from the marketing and social environments of the buyer and the outputs are a variety of behaviours represented by the buyer depending on the interaction between the stimuli and internal state.

A. Input Variables

At any given point the hypothetical constructs are affected by input variables. Input variables refer to different stimuli from the buyer's immediate environment. The environment can be classified as commercial such as marketing activities and social stimuli. The commercial environment are stimulus represented either by the physical brand themselves (significance) or linguistic or visual representation (symbolic). Social stimuli refer to the information the buyer are made aware of by the buyer's social environment, for example word-of-mouth.

B. Output Variables

As stated earlier, output variables refer to the behaviour manifested based on the interaction between the stimuli and internal state. Figure 2.1 illustrates the five output variables as Purchase, Intention, Attitude, Brand Comprehension and Attention.

Attention refers to a response that reflects the extent of information intake by the buyer. *Brand Comprehension* indicates the buyer's verbal statement about his knowledge of the particular brand. *Attitude* on the other hand refers to a verbal evaluation of the brand by the buyer as well as the potential to satisfy his needs and motives. *Intention* is the buyer's expectation expressed verbally and *Purchase* refers the behaviour of acquiring the brand.

C. Hypothetical Constructs

Hypothetical Constructs can be defined into two categories: Learning Constructs and Perceptual Constructs

➤ Learning Constructs

Motives are the goals imposing a buying situation, whether directly related to the product class or indirectly intruded upon the buyer, are based on the buyer's expectations or anticipation of certain outcomes. *Brand Comprehension*, the second learning construct, refers to the knowledge of the existence and characteristics of the brands. Therefore, the buyer can only supply the descriptive generalisation. *Choice Criteria* describes the function of organising and structuring the buyer's motives in order to prioritise. Choice Criteria refers to mental rules that are learned with the main function to generate attitudes towards brands. Thus, brands with the most favourable attitude are potentially the most attractive and commonly purchased. In the same context, *Attitudes* refers to the buyers preferences of brands.

Intention shapes the when, where and how the buyer is likely to buy a brand. This also includes possible inhibitors that may prevent or prolong the buyer to buy a specific brand, or alternative brand. Inhibitors are not internalised by the buyer as the occurrence is usually situational. However, when and if inhibitors persist over time the buyer is likely to internalise them and it therefore becomes part of the choice criteria of the buyer. Howard and Sheth (1969:35) identified at least five types of types of inhibitory factors:

- High price of the brand
- Lack of availability
- Time pressure of the buyer
- The buyers financial status
- Social influences

Confidence refers to the degree of certainty the buyer perceives the brand and is influenced by Brand Comprehension, Attitude towards the brand, and the Intention to Purchase. *Satisfaction* refers to the relation between the actual consequences from purchase and consumption of the brand and what was expected from it by the buyer. Therefore, satisfaction occurs when the actual outcomes is in the least equal to the expectations of the buyer.

➤ Perceptual Constructs

According to Howard and Sheth (1969:36), Perceptual Constructs serve the function of information processing that influence decision-making. These constructs can be identified as Attention, Stimulus Ambiguity, Perceptual Bias and Overt Search.

Attention in this context refers to the control of sensory receptors that control information intake. In layman's terms described as paying attention or ignoring the information. *Stimulus Ambiguity* refers to the relevance and meaningfulness of information and influences Attention and Overt Search constructs. *Perceptual Bias* occurs when the buyer not only attends to information but also filters and alters the information to be corresponding with the frame of reference of the buyer. *Overt Search*, the fourth perceptual construct refers to the active information search by the potential buyer. There is a distinct differentiation between the buyer who passively receives information and the actively or proactive search for information by the buyer. This phenomenon mainly occurs when the buyer senses uncertainty of the brands and therefore the extensive and limited problem solving phase of the decision process.

2.2.1.2. Consumer Behaviour and Product Performance: An Alternative Conceptualisation

Narayana and Markin (1975:1) support Howard and Sheth's model in which a consumer goes through a filtering process called psychology of simplification in order to develop a certain choice criteria with preferences towards brands based on the inputs and acquiring of information. Narayana and Markin (1975:1) defined this process as the awareness set. In this regard the concepts inert set and evoked set are also introduced.

A. *The Concept of Evoked Set*

A consumer can be either aware or unaware of the existence of any product class (Narayana & Markin, 1975:1). The product class, of which the consumer is aware off, consists of a set of brands identified as the awareness set. The consumer makes a purchase decision from the set of brands in the awareness

set. Narayana and Markin (1975:1) state that that the consumer is likely to narrow down the set of brands even further in order to simplify the decision to purchase even more. This process is identified as the evoked set (Howard & Sheth, 1969:26; Campbell, 1969).

However, Narayana and Markin (1975:1) state that the evoked set is not the only subset in the awareness set that needs to be researched in order to fully comprehend buying behavior and the marketing emphasis and implications that these other sets obligate.

B. An Alternative Conceptualisation

Figure 2.2 illustrates a more comprehensive conceptualisation of the awareness set and all the subsets influencing consumer behavior. Total set at any given time refer to all the brands that exists in the market whether the consumer are aware of them or not. The brands that the consumer is aware of as identified in the previous section constitutes the awareness set. As Figure 2.2 indicates the brands that the consumer is unaware of can be identified as the unawareness set.

Depending on the different inputs also defined by Howard and Sheth (1969:30), brands in the unawareness set of the consumer, will not be considered when making a purchase decision. However this might change over time and will also become priority for any marketer to make sure that the consumer are aware of the marketer's brand and have sufficient information in order to evaluate the brand. On the other hand there are a number of brands that the consumer are aware of but will not be considered because of indefinite availability whether, monetary or due to different inhibitors. A lack of adequate information or the way the brand is being perceived based on the needs and motives also influences the consumer at this point. The above mentioned inputs amongst others lead to three subsets identified by Narayana and Markin (1975:2) as the evoked set, inert set and inept set.

Figure 2.2 indicate (by means of a + symbol) that the brands in the *evoked set* are perceived positively by the consumer. In the *inert set* (indicated by 0), the consumer are aware of the brands in the product category, but are being

perceived as neither negative nor positive by the consumer. The *inept set* on the other hand, is the brands that the consumer has already considered as a purchase option either because of the history of the consumer with the brand or negative feedback from a trusted source and there for indicated as (-) in Figure 2.2.

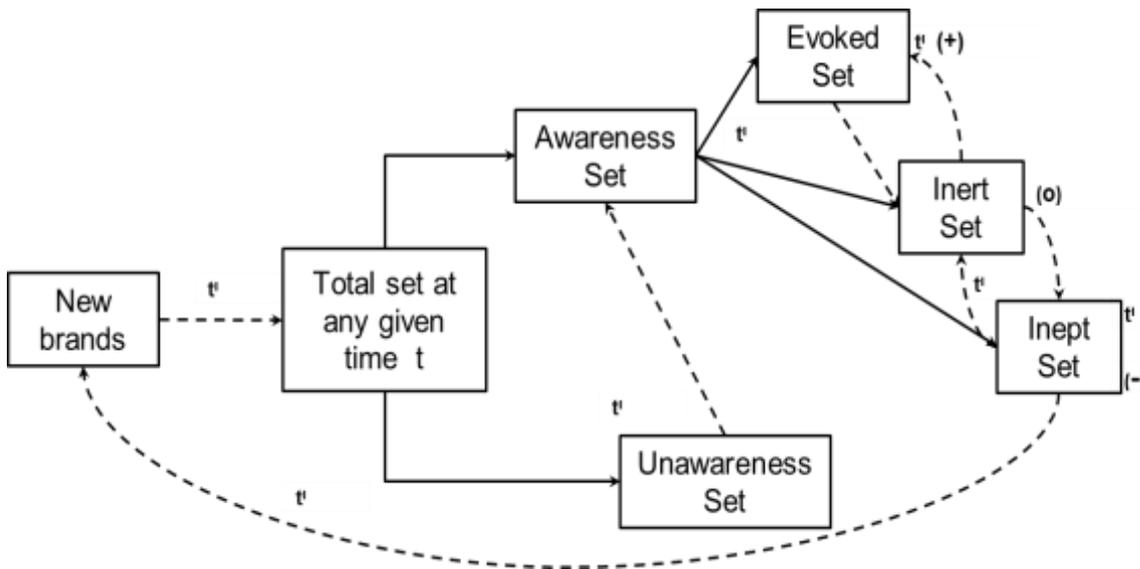


Figure 2.2: An alternative conceptualization of consumer behaviour and product performance ($t' > t$)

Source: Narayana and Markin (1975:2)

Changes in the marketing environment, product performance, changes in the socioeconomic characteristics and access to additional information might change the consumer's perception of the brand (indicated by the dotted lines). Denoted as (t') in Figure 2.2 refers to new brands that might be introduced to the market in the future that will become part of the total set. After the brand become part of the total set any path (indicated by the solid lines) whether through the awareness set or unawareness set can be taken.

Some of the brands in the unawareness set may move into the awareness set in the future due to the availability of new brands, new information or because of a new experience. Once part of the awareness set, the brand can take three different routes (evoked, inert or inept sets). The possibility also exists that brands in the evoked set can be pushed down to the inert set due to the same reasons as mentioned above. Brands in the inert set can move to either the

evoked set or inept set due to new information or changes in needs, motives and preferences of the consumer.

As discussed previously, consumer behaviour literature was one of the major influences to tourism literature. In order to fully grasp and understand the tourism behaviour literature it is essential to also study where it derived from. The purpose of the above sections was purely to give some context of where the models that will follow have their origin.

2.2.2 Tourism Microeconomic Models

The microeconomic approaches to tourism decision-making are based on the economic person making decisions governed by price and spending money in order to fulfil a specific need (Decrop, 2006:23). In other words, the lower the price, the higher the demand in terms of volume. The main focus of microeconomic models therefore is based on how consumers will maximize the benefits of a specific choice against the constraints of their budget. Rugg (1973); Morley (1992); Papatheodorou (2001) as well as Seddighi and Theocharous (2002) state that the application of the traditional demand theory), suffers from the serious blemishes with regards to tourism literature, mainly because of the exclusion of attitudes, perception and consumer characteristics measurements. For the above mentioned reasons. Lancaster's (1971) new approach to demand models have been used to develop models applicable to tourism. Rugg (1973) was the first to apply Lancaster's principles to tourism literature. Since Rugg's attempt, the following authors extended Rugg's original work in conjunction with Lancaster's principles to further and improve tourism literature with regard to the microeconomic environment:

- Experimental Destination Choice Analysis (Morley, 1992)
- Why People Travel to Different Places (Papatheodorou, 2001)
- A Model of Tourism Destination Choice (Seddighi & Theocharous, 2002)
- A New Economic Framework for Tourism Decision-making (Bailey & Richardson, 2010)

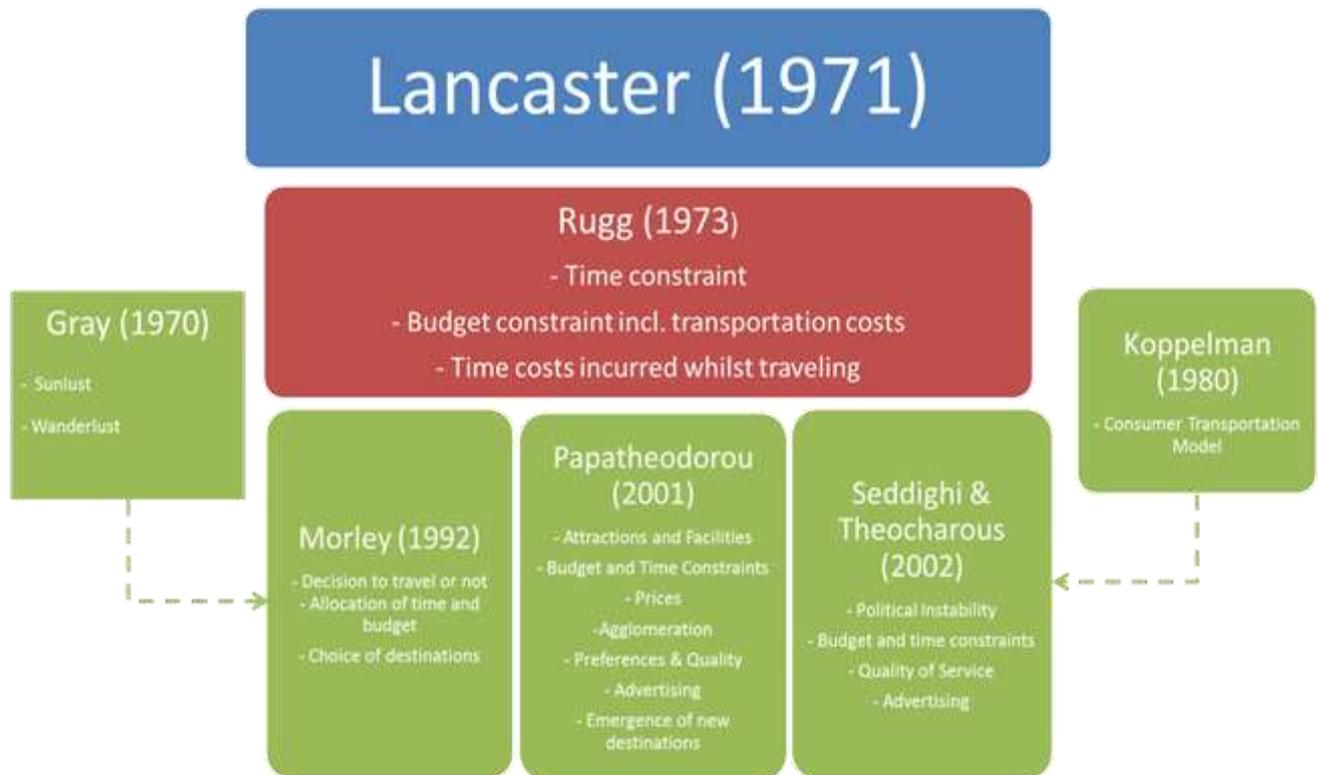


Figure 2.3: The development of the microeconomic literature in tourism
Source: Researcher's own compilation

Figure 2.3 attempts to explain the development of the microeconomic approach to tourism literature. Since the focus of this research will not derive from a microeconomic perspective alone, only Rugg's model will be discussed in detail from amongst the authors that used the Lancasterian demand model as a basis for their research.

2.2.2.1 The Choice of Journey Destination: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis

Rugg's (1973:64) main objective was to investigate the determinants of the demand for foreign travel. The model aimed to analyse the consumer's choice of journey destination by including several constructs, which according to Rugg (1973:64) have been ignored by the majority of studies in travel decision-making namely:

- The inclusion of a time constraint.
- The modification of the budget constraint to include transportation costs.

- The modification of the time constraint to include the time costs incurred whilst traveling.

Rugg (1973:64) also includes demand equations between the constraint variables and the characteristics of a destination. Rugg's research includes a basic model of destination choice as well as the introduction of two modifications to the basic model, all of which will be discussed in the sections to follow.

Rugg (1973:65) states that a traveller's choice in journey destination can be analysed by using Lancaster's (1971) framework whereby commodities is defined as physical entities. The possession or consumption of these entities generates certain attributes or characteristics that in turn generate value to the consumer. The difference between Lancaster's (1971) framework and tourism is that a traveller does not possess or consume travel destinations, but rather derives utility from being in the destination for a period of time, consuming attributes or characteristics from the destination such as the climate and scenic beauty. From a microeconomic perspective, goods are therefore defined as an individual's existence or dwelling at a specific destination for a unit period of time.

Rugg's (1973:65) attempt to develop a model that describes the traveller's choice of journey destination as well as journey duration simultaneously, the assumption had to be made that the traveller is travelling by air and all other decisions like point of departure and seasonality have already been made. The attempted solution for the above-mentioned objectives was to introduce the following system of destinations (Rugg, 1973:65; Seddighi & Theocharous, 2002:478; Decrop, 2006:24):

The consumer is assumed to maximise:

$$U = f(z_{tour}),$$

Subject to constraints:

$$z_{tour} = G(d) \text{ (consumption technology)}$$

$$Y \geq P_{tour}^d + P_{trans}^m \text{ (budget constraint)}$$

$$Z, d, P_{tour}, P_{trans}, m, c, t, n \geq 0 \quad Y, T \geq 0,$$

Where:

- Z_{tour} = the vector of which are characteristics of tourism (scenic Beauty or historical characteristics)
- G = the matrix of consumption technology coefficients
- d = the vector of which are quantities of the various commodities (days spent visiting each country)
- P_{tour} = the vector of corresponding prices
- P_{trans} = the vector of which are transportation fares between countries
- m = the permutation column vector whose elements are either one or zero
- c = the permutation column vector whose elements are all one
- t = the vector of transportation times between countries
- n = the permutation column vector whose elements are one or zero
- Y = the scalar representing the budgeted income of the consumer
- T = the discretionary time or the time budget allocated to tourism

Rugg's (1973) model was empirically tested through a least-squares regression analysis. In summary Rugg (1973:64) introduced three constructs namely; the inclusion of a time constraint; the modification of the budget constraint to include transportation costs and the modification of the time constraint to include the time costs incurred whilst traveling. In the following sections the work of Morley (1994), Papatheodorou (2001), Seddighi and Theocarous (2002) and Baily and Richardson (2010) will be briefly discussed and their contribution to microeconomic and Lancasterian theory analysed.

2.2.2.2 Experimental Destination Choice Analysis

Morley (1992) extended the work of Rugg (1973) by developing a microeconomic theoretical model for tourism demand with the intention to provide opportunities for

further empirical investigation. The model of Morley (1992) incorporates the following in his research:

- The decision to travel or not (the “no tour option”)
- The allocation of time and budget
- The choice of destinations

Although Morley (1992) placed particular emphasis on travel characteristics of Lancaster and Rugg’s models, emphasis was also placed on Gray’s (1970) irreconcilable differences between “sunlust” and wanderlust. In the words of Morley (1992:259):

“Different tours yield different utilities, because of attributes of tours themselves and their contribution to the utility of the individual. Tours will offer varying amounts of the important relevant factors; sunshine, attractive beaches, etc. The utility derived will depend on such factors.”

Morley’s (1992) main contribution to the tourism demand model literature is the perception that changes in non-tourism product prices and income have the potential to influence tourism decision-making and behaviour. In line with Lancaster and Rugg, Morley (1992) identified three types of tourism characteristics: Firstly, tourists, which are common to all tours and not dependant on the time, spent on the tour (referring to international or long haul tours). Secondly, tourists, which are particular to a tour but are not dependant on the time spent on the tour (e.g. realisation of a dream to visit England for the purpose of visiting family, friends or relatives - *VFFR*). Lastly, tourists that depend on the time spent on tour (e.g. specific activities like visiting museums at a particular destination). In the next section, the work of Papatheodorou (2001) will be analysed.

2.2.2.3 Why People Travel To Different Places

In this study, Papatheodorou (2001) aims at providing an economic explanation for the variety in the actual consumer choice of destinations. Papatheodorou (2001:164) states that the majority of research of destination choice focuses on the direction of the observed flows by depending on the analytical framework by the traditional

demand theory. The majority of microeconomic models follow a time series and a single equation linear approach where the market shares of the destinations of choice are regressed based on the consumers total expenditure, the price of each area, and a compound price index.

For all the above mentioned reasons, Papatheodorou (2001:166) is of conviction that the mainstream demand theory cannot be interpreting the movement of tourist in time and space. Papatheodorou (2001) applies Lancaster's (1971) model in line with Rugg (1973), however Papatheodorou (2001:167) further attempts to introduce a discrete choice version of the model where tourists only travels to destination with the highest utility and therefore excluding multi-destination tourism. While focusing on the two dimensions of attractions and facilities, a comparative exercise is developed based on the effects of expenditure and time constraints; prices; consumer preferences; quality, information and advertising; agglomeration and lastly the emergence of a new destination.

2.2.2.4 A Model of Tourism Destination Choice: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis

Seddighi and Theocharous (2002:475) main aim of research is to propose a methodological framework within which the impact of characteristics of a tourism product on foreign travel can be captured and analysed. As was the case in the previous models in this section research was based on Lancaster's (1971) model incorporated with the Koppelman's (1980) consumer transportation model. The characteristics of the tourism product destination or destination include quality of service, advertising and political instability in order to measure the perceptions/feelings in the mind of tourists visiting Cyprus.

A theoretical multifaceted model is introduced by Seddighi and Theocharous (2002: 480). The starting point for this particular model are the tourists being identified by certain characteristics, both socio and cultural. When the decision to travel has been made, the tourist need to take further decisions whether to travel domestically or to a foreign destination. The main determinant between the two choices is the purchasing power of the particular tourist. The characteristics of the destinations serve as a decision-making criterion that influences perceptions and attitudes towards

alternative destinations. Each system/ destination characteristic represents one or more perceptions and attitudes.

The attitudes and perceptions are exposed to the aggregation process, which in return determines the destination preference (mode preference). Constraints such as seasonality, availability and situational constraints will determine the final choice (mode choice). After the travel experience, a feedback loop is created whereby perceptions and feelings towards a specific destination are influenced. Seddighi and Theocharous (2002:480) clearly state that the value a conceptual model adds can only be realised depending on the operationalisation of the model, which also depends on the relevant system characteristics.

According to Seddighi and Theocharous (2002:481) identifying relevant characteristics of the particular destination is the biggest operational challenge. The biggest challenge is not in the measurement of these characteristics since they are objective in nature, but rather in selecting the relevant characteristics to measure and whether these characteristics can be integrated under the same theoretical framework. For the purpose of Seddighi and Theocharous's study, political instability was included as a characteristic.

The model in Figure 2.4 represents two distinct relationships involved regarding tourism instability: the tourism/political instability characteristics relationships and the tourist – characteristic relationships (Seddighi & Theocharous 2002:481). Other characteristics included in the model derived from the studies of Rugg (1973), Morley (1992) and Papatheodorou (2001).

Figure 2.5 indicates the conceptual model after being analysed empirically and most importantly attempts to predict the conditional probability of a tourist revisiting Cyprus given the tourist's feelings towards certain product characteristics as well as the tourist's personal characteristics.

Multivariate Logit analysis was used in order to enable the quantification of perceptions and feelings of tourists in the form of a set of conditional probabilities. Seddighi and Theocharous (2002:482) state that these conditional probabilities provide a ranking order for the selection of the tourism destination.

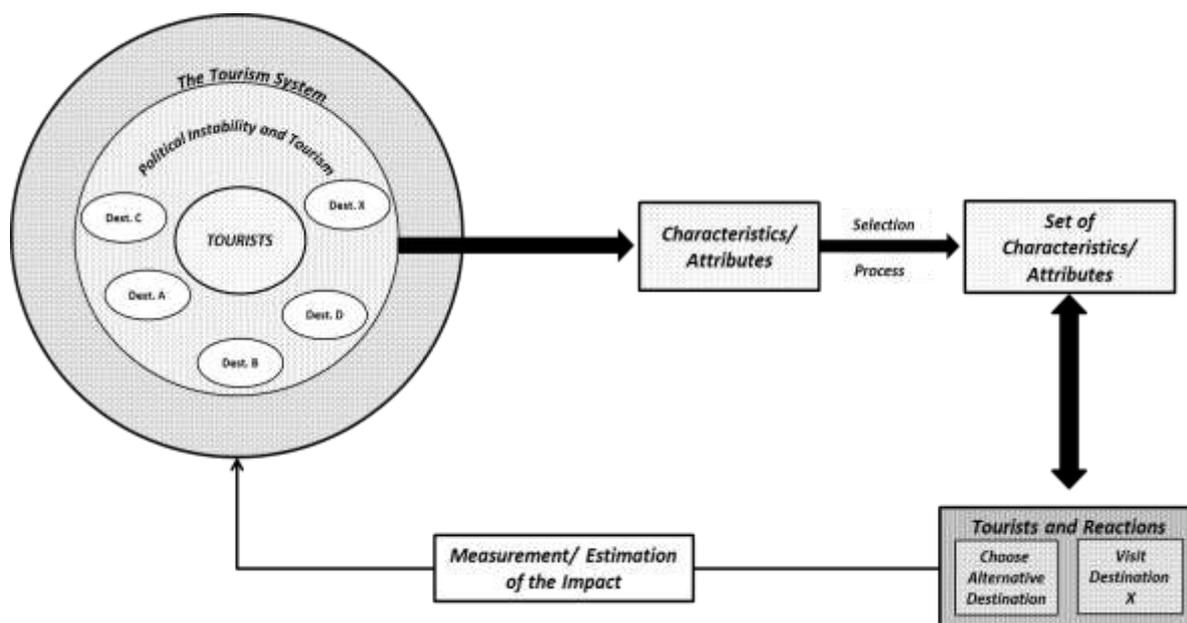


Figure 2.4: Making the tourism-political instability theory operational
 Source: Seddighi and Theocharous (2002:483)

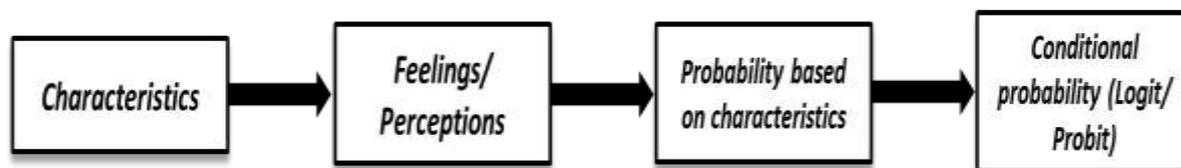


Figure 2.5: Operationalisation of the model
 Source: Seddighi and Theocharous (2002:483)

This section focused on the microeconomic approaches to tourism decision-making. It is clear from the information above that this field of study started with Lancaster (1971) and Rugg (1973) and evolved from their models. In the next section, the focus will shift from monetary and time variables towards socio-psychological variables by means of reviewing cognitive models as defined by Decrop (2006:23).

2.2.3 Tourism Cognitive Models

Table 2.1: Summary of cognitive models

Author	Title of study
Crompton (1979)	Motivations for Pleasure Vacation
Um & Crompton (1990)	Attitude Determinants in Tourism Destination Choice.
Um & Crompton (1992)	The Roles of Perceived Inhibitors and Facilitators in Pleasure Travel Destination Choice.
Crompton (1992)	Structure of Vacation Destinations Choice Sets.
Crompton & Ankomah (1993)	Choice Set Propositions in Destination Decisions.
Van Raaij & Francken (1984)	Vacation Decisions, Activities, and Satisfaction.
Van Raaij(1986)	Consumer Research on Tourism: Mental and Behavioural Constructs
Woodside & Lysonski (1989)	A General Model of Traveler Destination Choice
Moutinho (1987)	Consumer Behaviour in Tourism
Goodall (1988)	How Tourists Choose their Holidays: An Analytical Framework
Fudong (2005)	An Experimental Research on the Influence of Cognitive Styles and Negative Emotions on Tourism Decision-making.

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Decrop (2006:28) states that cognitive models related to tourism decision-making focuses on socio-psychological variables involved in decision-making. With models focusing on socio-psychological variables, the tourist is no longer passive but

actively develops rules and strategies in order to solve the problems in order to satisfy their needs. Perception and information processing becomes an integral part of decision-making.

This section will focus on the integral work of Crompton and colleagues. Listed below in Table 2.1 is a summary of the main contributors and authors to cognitive models that will be reviewed in this section:

2.2.3.1 Motivations for Pleasure Vacation

In Crompton's (1979:408) research, the motives of tourists (especially focusing on pleasure vacation travel segment) which influence the selection of a destination are identified. Crompton further developed a conceptual framework where nine motives were identified and tested of which seven were classified as socio-psychological.

According to Crompton (1979:409) the majority of theories of motivation studies are based on the concept of a stable equilibrium state. Disequilibrium or tension in the motivational system occurs when some need arises; followed by a course of action in order to satisfy the specific needs to restore the equilibrium. States of tension or causes of disequilibrium, which provoked decisions to select certain vacation destinations were used in order to identify a criterion of nine motives, discussed in this study. Crompton (1979: 410) admits that motivation is not the alpha and only variable in tourism behaviour; however, it represents a significant and compelling variable in tourism behaviour. Crompton's predecessors in the field of tourism motivation theory by the likes of Gray's (1970) sunlust and wonderlust as well as Dann's (1977) push and pull theory have contributed a great amount to Crompton's research in explaining why tourists travel. The work of Hills (1965) and Plog (1976) as is the case with this study focused on socio-psychological motives, where unstructured interviews was used to collect their data and therefore focusing on the interpretation of individual responses in search of quality insights.

Figure 2.6 illustrates a conceptualisation of the role and relationships of respondents states of disequilibrium analysed from certain patterns in the data contained by the empirical study done by Crompton. From Figure 2.6 displayed below, four main components can be identified based on the continuum that motives are primarily either socio-psychological or cultural:

- State of equilibrium;
- Break from routine;
- Three behavioural alternatives;
 - Stay at home
 - Go on a vacation
 - Travel for other purposes i.e. VFFR, or business travel
- Motives that support the nature and destination of the vacation. A detailed analysis will be included below

A. The Nature of a Break from Routine

According to Crompton (1979:414) the majority respondents from the empirical research described the essence of a vacation as being a break from routine. A break from routine can be classified into two categories, namely long term and short term both resolving different types of disequilibrium. Short term disequilibrium refers to circumstances or events expressed as certain 'pressures' and in order to restore homeostasis, a break from routine was perceived as necessary and sufficient. On the other hand long-term states of disequilibrium could not be satisfied by a single vacation, but rather from an on-going break from routine in order to facilitate the resolution of a long-term disequilibrium states. The state of long-term disequilibrium and the resolution thereof was perceived by respondents as ever present but delayed whereas short-term disequilibrium demanded immediate attention.

Crompton (1979:415) states that the core of 'break from routine' was in the majority of cases either locating in a different place, or changing the social context from the normal milieu usually to that of a family or close friend's context. Although in general it seems that lifestyles did not change, however a 'break from routine' emphasised a particular desired change elements of the life-style to incorporate different activities.

B. The Motives Influencing Selection of Type of Vacation and Destination

Once the need to go on holiday and break from routine has been established the main motivation shifts towards a more ordinance dimension such as the selection of a particular type of vacations as well as the destination choice. As discussed in the majority of the previous models (consumer behaviour models and microeconomic models), most decisions incorporate more than one motive and alternatives exist of which the tourist is aware.

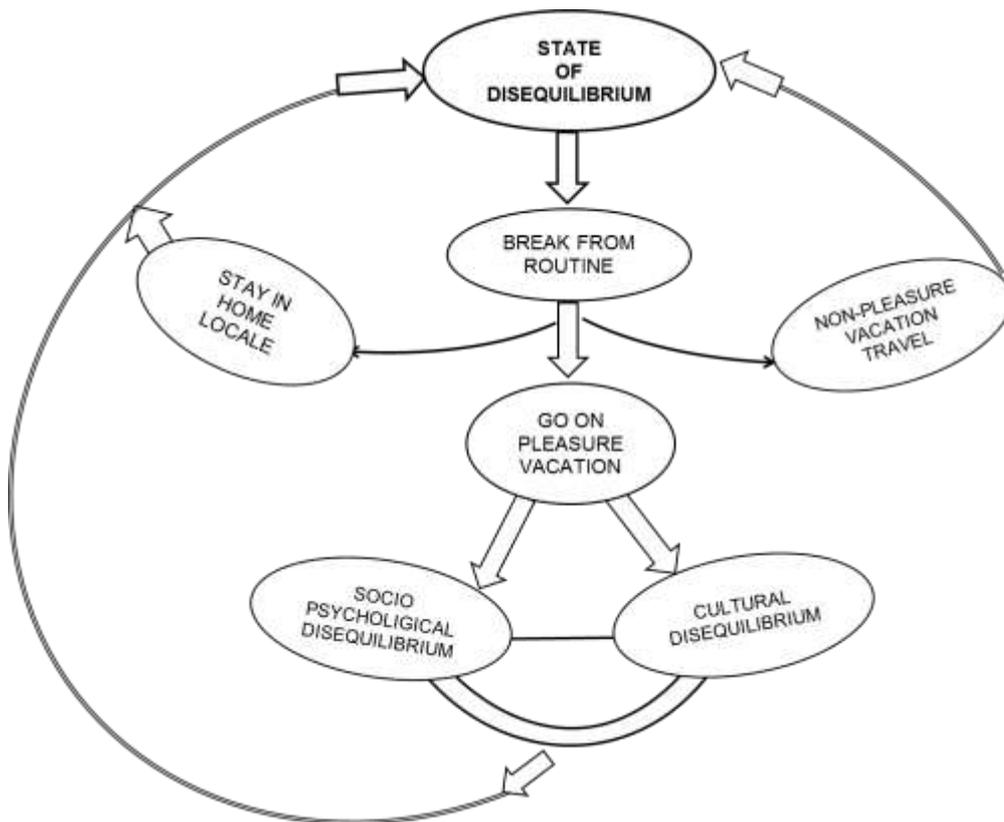


Figure 2.6: A Conceptualisation of the roles and relationship of tourist motives
 Source: Crompton (1979:414)

From the data of the empirical research done by Crompton (1979:415) it is evident that the respondent's motives can be conceptualised as being positioned along a cultural and social-psychological disequilibrium continuum.

In contrast to previous studies the findings in this particular study suggests that the destination in itself was relatively unimportant and that respondents did not desire to visit a destination to seek cultural insights, but rather for socio-psychological reasons not necessarily related to any specific destination. The

destination served merely as a medium through which these motives could be satisfied. The following section aims to identify from the empirical data collected the socio-psychological as well as cultural motives.

➤ Socio-Psychological Motives

As discussed in the previous section, the socio-psychological motives were not necessarily based on a particular destination choice, but rather unique to a specific individual or group. These motives were difficult to articulate, and were represented as a hidden agenda by the respondents. According to Crompton (1979:416) on more than one occasion, the reasons for taking vacations are unknown to the respondents. The socio-psychological motives can be defined as:

- Escape from perceived Mundane Environment.

Escape from perceived mundane environment is defined by Crompton (1979:416) as a temporary change of environment from the highest-quality living environments. This includes not only from the general residential area, but also from the specific home and job environments and the only criteria identified was that the vacation context should be a change physically as well as socially from the normal living environment.

- Exploration and Self-Evaluation

Defined by Crompton (1979:416) as an opportunity to re-evaluate and discover more about oneself and/or acting out self-images and in doing so, refining or modifying these images. Changes in physical as well as social context turned out to be an essential part of self-discovering and these insights into oneself cannot be achieved whilst staying at home or visiting FFR.

- Relaxation

According to Crompton (1979:416) the term relaxation refers to a mental state rather than physical relaxation. In the context of this study, relaxation refers to taking the time to pursue activities of interest. Although the majority respondents indicated that they were physically exhausted and fatigued the

activities selected was often a reflection of increased time available at the vacation destination. Crompton differentiates between the normal daily routine at home and the perceived increased time at hand during vacation as the mind that is not directed toward the hobbies and interest whilst on holiday and therefore these interests were not perceived as the prevailing train of thought normally encountered during the normal daily routines.

- Prestige

According to Crompton (1979:417) very few respondents admitted openly that prestige was their primary reason for going on vacation, although some respondents suggested that prestige was most definitely a primary motivating factor in the other respondent's vacations. During the modern era of the travel and tourism industry, travel has become a more frequent activity amongst the modern world's population and therefore the prestige potential disappears with frequency of exposure.

- Regression

Crompton (1979:417) states that some respondents indicated that motivations for going on vacation are provided by the opportunity to do things, not normally conceivable within the context of their usual life styles. Usually irrational and immature the opportunity to engage in such activities was facilitated by the opportunity to withdraw and avoid from normal and usual roles and obligations. From the empirical research another motivation also categorised as regression as stated by Crompton as the 'nostalgia factor' i.e. the search for the life style of a previous era.

- Enhancement of Kinship Relationships

Many respondents perceived the motivation for going on vacation as the opportunity to enhance family and friend relations.

- Facilitation of Social Interaction

Meeting new people in different locations was also an important motive stated by Crompton (1979:418). These vacation trips were rather people orientated

than place orientated. As was defined earlier in the section, socio-psychological motives are in most cases unknown to the traveller, such was the case with this motive and was only realised upon reflection after the vacation. Crompton clearly indicates that respondents found it easier to interact with tourists visiting the same destination as it was to interact with local people of the destination, which for some was a disappointment.

➤ Cultural Motives

Motives identified from the empirical data suggesting that destination was primary motive rather than socio-psychological motives can be identified as cultural motives (Crompton, 1979:419). In some cases respondents indicated that there was no socio-psychological satisfactions, but ample cultural benefits. Crompton states that cultural disequilibrium appears to be on-going and a continuous cultural stimulus is necessary to restore homeostasis. The primary cultural motives can be identified as novelty and education, both of which will be discussed below.

○ Novelty

Crompton (1979:419) defines novelty as curiosity, adventure, new and different. In the context of cultural motives, novelty indicates a new experience, but not necessarily new in knowledge. Re-experiencing known cultural stimuli in some cases does not contribute as much as a new cultural experience in order to reduce the state of tension therefore the majority respondents indicated unknown and first time destinations as preferred location for vacation. However, it is not unusual for vacationers to visit the same destination year after year. The latter was not thoroughly researched by the particular data analysis; however, Crompton stated the following reasons for the latter: First, respondents may be motivated primarily by socio-psychological rather than cultural motives. Second, the respondent's might not have the limited knowledge of alternative places and therefore reducing the risk by visiting the same destination. Lastly, fear and anxiety of unknown places might play an integral role.

○ Education

According to the respondents, Crompton (1979:420) states that the opportunity to invest in children's education was the primary reason for selecting a specific destination and was almost perceived as a moral obligation by respondents.

In this section, Motivations for Pleasure Vacation by Crompton (1979) was discussed in detail. A conceptual framework identifying the motivations of vacationers was discussed in general. The motivations can be defined in two categories namely Socio-psychological motives and cultural motives. Seven socio-psychological motives and two cultural were discussed. In the next section, the work of Van Raaij and Francken (1984) and Van Raaij (1986) will be discussed.

2.2.3.2 Van Raaij and Colleagues

The following section summarises the articles published by Van Raaij and Francken (1984) and Van Raaij (1986) called:

- Vacation Decisions, Activities, and Satisfaction – Van Raaij and Francken (1984)
- Consumer Research on Tourism: Mental and Behavioural Constructs – Van Raaij (1986)

As distinguished by Van Raaij and Francken, (1984) and Van Raaij (1986), five stages in tourist behaviour exist based on the work by Engel and Blackwell (1982):

1. Generic Decision – Mainly dependant on situational factors such as income and family life cycle.
2. Information acquisition – Based on experience and education level.
3. Decision- making process.
4. Vacation activities – Depending on the preferences (adventure, conformity, education, health, status and social).
5. Satisfaction or dissatisfaction experienced on the actual vacation.

Van Raaij (1986:5) argues that actual behaviour is in most instances more valuable to marketers with regards to segmentation than preferences or attitudes. The main focus of Van Raaij's and Colleague's work is based on family and group decision-making and segmentation variables than socio-psychological variable. For the purpose of this study, it will not add any value to investigate the model of Van Raaij in any more detail. In the following section consumer behaviour in tourism as described by Moutinho (1987) will be investigated.

2.2.3.3 Consumer Behaviour in Tourism

Moutinho (1987:5) suggests that tourist's product purchase is seldom spontaneous and the decision – making process goes hand –in –hand with planning and saving over a long period of time with no evidence of any return on investment. The model developed by Moutinho (1987:5) suggest three behavioural concepts; motivation, cognition and learning. Purchase motives initiate the sequence of behavioural events, cognition activates mental processing, and learning causes subsequent changes in behaviour. According to Moutinho (1987:7) behaviour can be defined as the intention to act, which in return be influenced by situational factors that intervene between intended and actual behaviour.

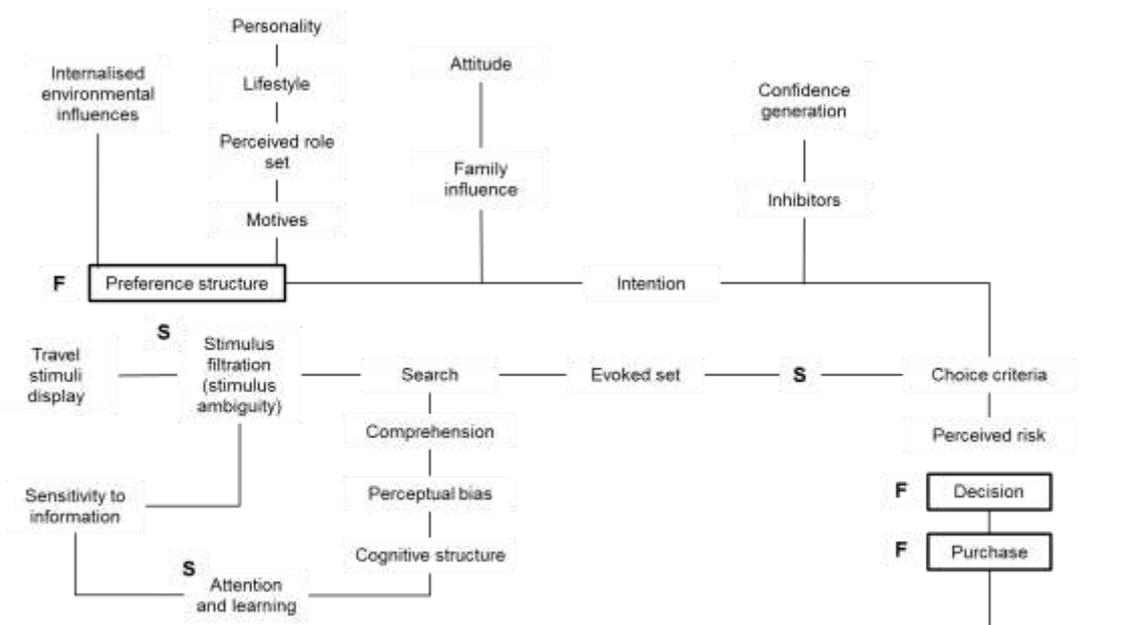
Figure 2.7 as developed by Moutinho (1987:40) consist of three parts: pre-decision and decision processes, purchase evaluation and repeat-buying probabilities. The decision process stages in Figure 2.7 are problem recognition, search, alternative evaluation, choice and outcome. The assumption made by Moutinho is that as the consumer proceeds through these stages, progressive focusing occurs and thereby giving rise to three options at the alternative evaluation stage:

- The decision-maker may reject destinations, because there is no incentive to satisfy travel objectives.
- Destinations which are considered to be neutral alternatives may require further information and discussion inputs from other family or friends members.
- Destinations considered after preliminary judgement to be feasible alternatives may require evaluation that is more detailed.

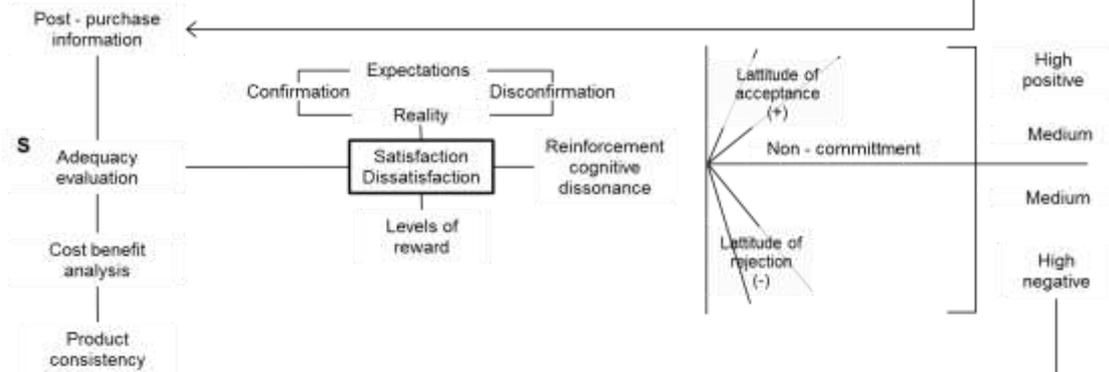
The model recognises that during the evaluation of alternatives, the evoked set is unlikely to contain more than seven options for most decisions. The model also recognises that family influences are an important factor in decision-making.

In more detail, part one of the model is concerned with pre-decision and decision processes. Starting with need arousal and the receipt of travel stimuli and concluding in product purchase. The pre-decision field has subfields of stimulus filtration, attention and learning processes and choice criteria. The two decision fields are identified as 'decision' and 'purchase'. The assumption that consumers preference structure for a tourist destination is also influenced internalised environmental factors influenced by many sources. These can include cultural norms and values, family and reference groups, financial status and social class. The assumption is also being made evaluation is influenced by factors such as the consumers own personality, lifestyle, perceived role set and purchase motives. Further, the consumer's preference structure may also be influenced by exposure to travel stimuli, portraying product attributes such as quality, price, prestige, service and availability. The filtering process of the above mentioned stimuli allows the consumer to organise information in a meaningful way. If the consumer is uncertain about certain alternative brands and/ or destinations it is assumed that the quality and extend of external information search activity will be perceived as a risk. On the other hand, the consumer with extensive product knowledge derived from prior experience may engage in little or no extensive information search.

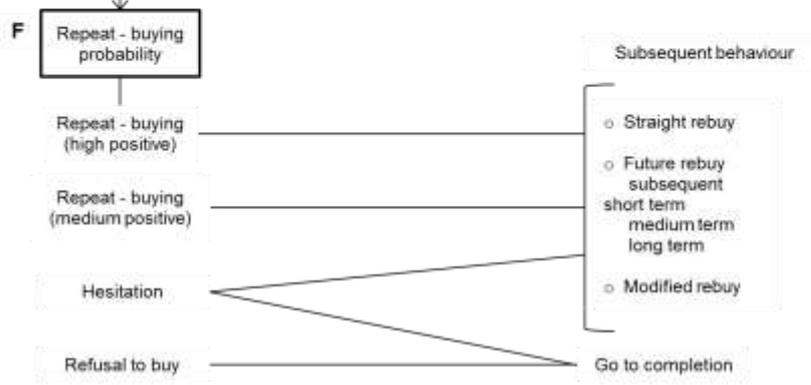
PRE-DECISION AND DECISION PROCESSES



POST-PURCHASE EVALUATION



FUTURE DECISION MAKING



F = Field

S = Subfield

Figure 2.7: Moutinho's vacation tourist behavioural model

Source: Moutinho (1987:40)

Learning occurs as new information and experiences are integrated into the organised the consumers organised system of beliefs and knowledge referred to in Figure 2.7: as the cognitive structure. When potential sources of conflict or uncertainty have been resolved by attaining new information, the consumer may begin to feel much more confident about the purchase decision. When the consumer has selected the preferred brand/ destination, a purchase intention is established. The purchase intention is not only influenced by previous experience and family/ friends influence, but also by situational factors such as tourism promotions and input received from intermediaries. The second part of the model as described in Figure 2.7 is concerned with purchase evaluation. It is also during this phase that a consumer's frame of reference for future purchase intentions is formed and developed. The model proposes that during adequacy evaluation, the consumer will evaluate brand/ destination attributes against an internal framework and ideal for each attribute and represent a form of mental cost-beneficiation analysis.

Moutinho's model of vacation tourist behaviour is by far the most comprehensive model researched thus far that includes all major variables that intervenes in tourism decision-making. However, Decrop (2006:39) as is the case with most cognitive models, the work of Moutinho (1987) also lack empirical evidence, simplicity and the formulation of a precise research hypothesis.

2.2.3.4 How Tourists Choose Their Holidays: An Analytical Framework

Goodall (1988:1) states that tourism is growing world-wide due to increased disposable income, longer paid holidays, improved mobility and accessibility, better education and wider dissemination of information. An individual sees a tourism product / holiday as a most desirable product and that holidays is a basis of behaviour patterns. Taking into consideration variables such as the ever instable exchange rates, numerous competing destinations and fuel prices, the realisation of tourist's expectations and demand for value of money is the main contributors to decision-making (Goodall, 1988: 2). In the next couple of subsections the holiday selection process i.e. 'How do tourists choose their holidays' will be discussed in detail.

A. The Holiday Selection Process

Holidays are a high risk purchase due to the fact that consumers can neither directly observe what is being bought, nor try it out. According to Goodall (1988:2) previous experiences of the potential tourists as well as their acquaintances is not a good indicator because future satisfaction as the conditions determining success are specific in space and time. Therefore, Goodall states that decision making is a systematic and sequential process, but acknowledges the important influence of behavioural perspective in the decision-making process. Goodall (1988:2) specifically states that; “A tourist is a satisficer acting within implicit and explicit constraints of an uncertain environment”. Figure 2.8 indicates the tourist’s holiday decision process. In the following sections Goodall aims to explain the key indicators of Figure 2.8, the tourist holiday decision process.

➤ Motivations:

Decisions to take holiday vacations are a result of both needs and desires. Needs are intrinsic, a condition stimulated from a lack of something important to an individual’s well-being. Desires are extrinsic, a feeling that can be satisfied by doing something that results in satisfaction and pleasure (Goodall, 1988:2). Needs and desires determine motivation i.e. positive and confident feelings to do something. Motivations for pleasure travel are also subdued by the immediate home environment and are weighed against other certain constraints influencing the individual to go on holiday, but not the decision to go to a particular destination.

➤ Images:

The dashed ellipse in Figure 2.8 refers to mental images that form the basis of the evaluation/ selection process. For the motivations to be converted into a holiday trip requires the identification of both the tourist’s preferences, as well as the knowledge with regards to the available holiday opportunities. According to Goodall (1988:3) all potential tourists have a favoured image of their ideal holiday and all potential opportunities are being evaluated mentally,

either good or bad by the tourists. The evaluative image as identified by Goodall, will be the tourists expectations and aspirations of the available opportunities measured against their favoured image. Information available conditions the awareness of the potential tourists and therefore influences the perceptions of the particular destination. A factual/ naïve image of each potential destination is constructed by the potential tourists based on the information available.

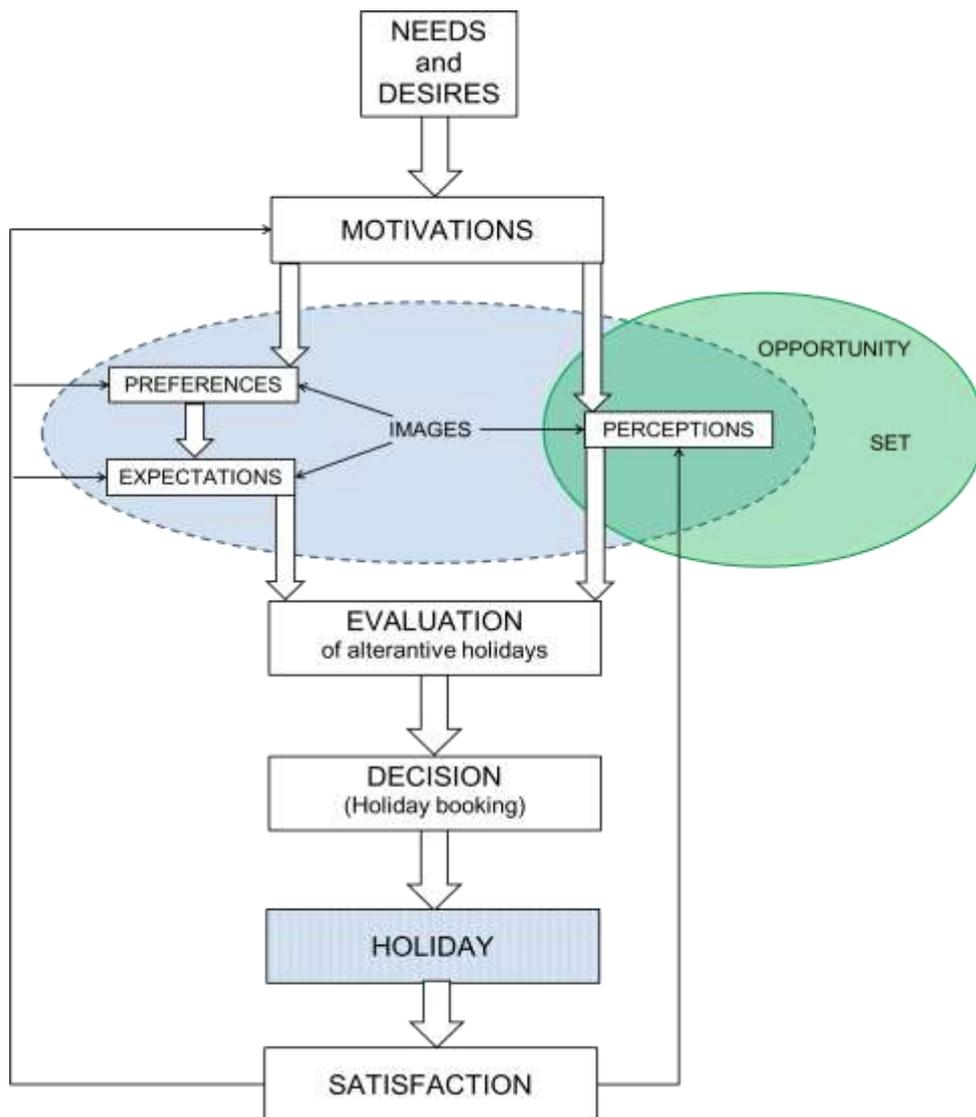


Figure 2.8: The tourist's holiday decision
 Source: Goodall (1988:4)

From the perceived opportunity set (Figure 2.8) several destinations might appear to meet the expectations of the potential tourist and must be evaluated further based on the specific circumstances and or criteria of the potential

tourists e.g. family, home and work circumstances, value for money and destination attractiveness. Goodall (1988:5) further states that the combination between destinations attributes and features constitute the basis for holiday selection within the constraints imposed by generation point characteristics. The potential tourists make the booking when a certain destination exceeds the aspiration level by the greatest amount. Between booking and departure, an anticipation phase can be expected, whereby the tourists expectations and perceptions might be refined based on more information acquisitions. The holiday experience follows whereby the expectations are met or not. Based on the experience a feedback loop will be made and motivations, preferences, expectations and perceptions will be altered based on the level of satisfaction from the experience.

According to Goodall (1988:5) tourists vary in terms of their knowledge of holiday experiences and opportunities gained, but also in terms of the extent to which their choice of holiday destination is a systematic process. Therefore, a behavioural rather than an economic perspective is required to fully understand decision making in tourism. A potential tourist interacts with an environment (behavioural, perceptual and operational elements) which not only determines the holiday opportunities available, but also the motivations and preferences regarding decision-making. Goodall (1988:16) concludes that images influence tourist's destination choices. In addressing the problems faced in tourism with regards to matching demand and supply images in tourism, effectiveness of information rather than exposure to information should be the basis of all tourism promotion.

2.2.3.5 A General Model of Traveller Destination Choice

As stated by Van Raaij (1986:1), Woodside and Lysonski (1989:8) also support the statement that tourist perception and preference should form the basis of tourism marketing and policies. In this section, the evidence supporting the above statement is reviewed and a general model of traveller destination awareness and choice is developed. Figure 2.9 presents a general model of traveller leisure destination awareness and choice as introduced by Woodside and Lysonski (1989:9).

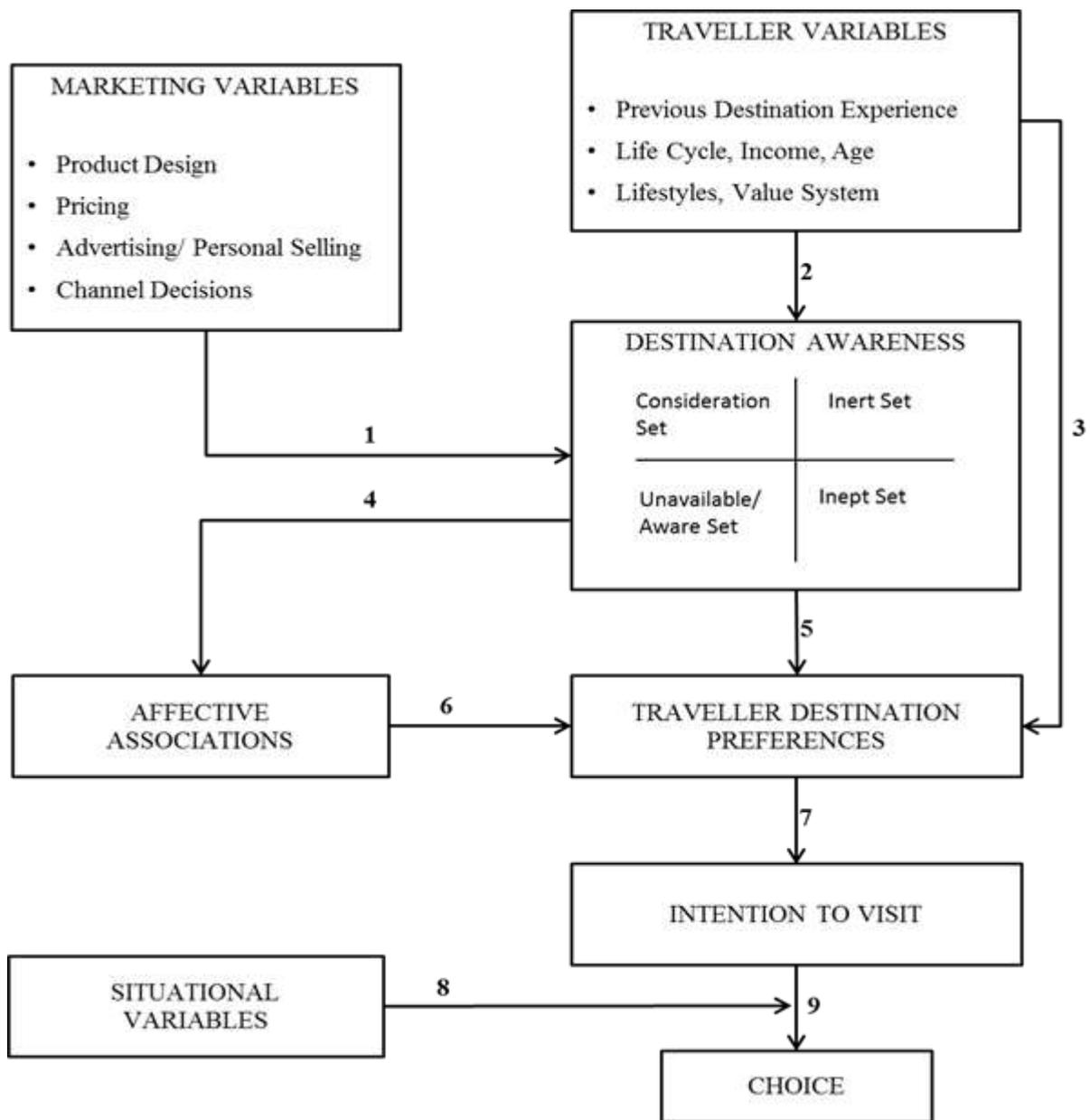


Figure 2.9: General model of traveller leisure destination awareness and choice
Source: Woodside and Lysonski (1989:9)

Figure 2.9 illustrates eight variables and nine relationships between the variables. Two of the variable named traveller and marketing variables influence travel destination awareness. Destination awareness as indicated in Figure 2.9 includes four categories; consideration set, inert set, unavailable and aware set and inept set. Each of these categories will be discussed later in this section. Affective associations refer to specific feeling, either negative or positive toward a specific destination considered by the potential tourist/ traveller for example, Malibu might be associated with sun, sea, beaches and cocktails. Associations are normally positive and for this

reason it exists as a potential leisure destination and negative associations if the potential tourists will definitely not consider travelling to the destination. If South Africa is for example associated with crime, it will not be considered as a potential destination. According to Woodside and Lysonski (1989:8) the learning of association between affective concepts and a specific destination(s) gives countless notions on how the destination is positioned in the potential tourist's mind.

The categorisation in the awareness set according to Woodside and Lysonski (1989:8) appear to be a one-way directional influence based on affective associations because a minimal amount of destination recognition, memory recall and categorisation is necessary to generate positive or negative feelings from the potential tourists towards a potential destination. According to Van Raaij (1986:2) travellers construct preferences for alternative destinations from destination awareness. On the other hand Woodside and Lysonski (1989:8) state that preferences are influenced by affective associations therefore Figure 2.9 indicates that preferences are influenced by both the awareness associations and affective associations. Intentions to visit a destination is the potential tourists perceived probability of visiting a specific destination within a specific time-frame and is associated with traveller preferences (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989:8). Actual destination choice is affected by both intention to visit and situational variables like time and budget available. The awareness categorisation will now be discussed.

According to Woodside and Lysonski (1989:8) awareness mostly refer to the recollection from long term memory and aided recognition from a marketing media or social interaction. Therefore in order to establish what the potential tourists preferences are would most likely be the first one's they refer to or that comes to mind and this forms part of the late consideration set also referred to as unaided awareness responses, widely used in especially sales.

The inept set also referred to as the reject set refer to brands that a consumer are aware of, but would not consider to purchase or which has been rejected from the consideration set based on a unpleasant previous experience or negative reviews from social interaction (Howard & Sheth,1969:98; Narayana & Markin,1975:2). Inert set also proposed by Narayana and Markin (1975:2), refer to brands the consumer is

aware of but have neither negative nor positive evaluation or does not have sufficient information.

Based on empirical research done by Woodside and Lysonski (1989:14), demographics and psychographic evaluation is not sufficient in order to fully comprehend tourism buying behaviour. In understanding the above mentioned there is a substantial need for research in tourist decision-making/ decision processes. Based on the theoretical general model proposed and empirical evidence it is clear that potential tourists or consumers transfer potential destinations into the awareness set from long term memory and is likely to be considered and chosen to purchase.

Affective associations are a representation of what the potential tourists perceive of what is true and relevant as well as the global attitude towards the destination whether positive or negative. Together with Woodside and Lysonski, the work Crompton and colleagues (Um & Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992; Um & Crompton, 1992; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993) contributed substantially to choice set and tourism decision-making which will be discussed in the following sections.

2.2.3.6 Attitude Determinants in Tourism Destination Choice

In their research, Um and Crompton (1990:432) developed a two stage approach to travel destination choice based on the construct of an evoked set. The two stages is a progression of an evoked set from the awareness set whereby the destination choice was made from the evoked set. Attitude was operationalised as the difference between perceived facilitators and perceived inhibitors. The main objective of this study was to conceptualise and empirically test the role of attitudes in the travel decision-making process to a destination.

Um and Crompton (1990:432) state that the image of a destination is derived from attitudes towards a destinations perceived attributes. Generally potential first-time tourists to a destination have limited knowledge of the attributes of the particular destination. Therefore the image of and attitude towards the destination are likely to be critical in the decision-making process irrespective whether these attitudes are true representations of what the place has to offer (Um & Crompton, 1990:4330). Figure 2.10 indicates the framework developed by Um and Crompton (1990:435) in order to achieve the above mentioned objectives.

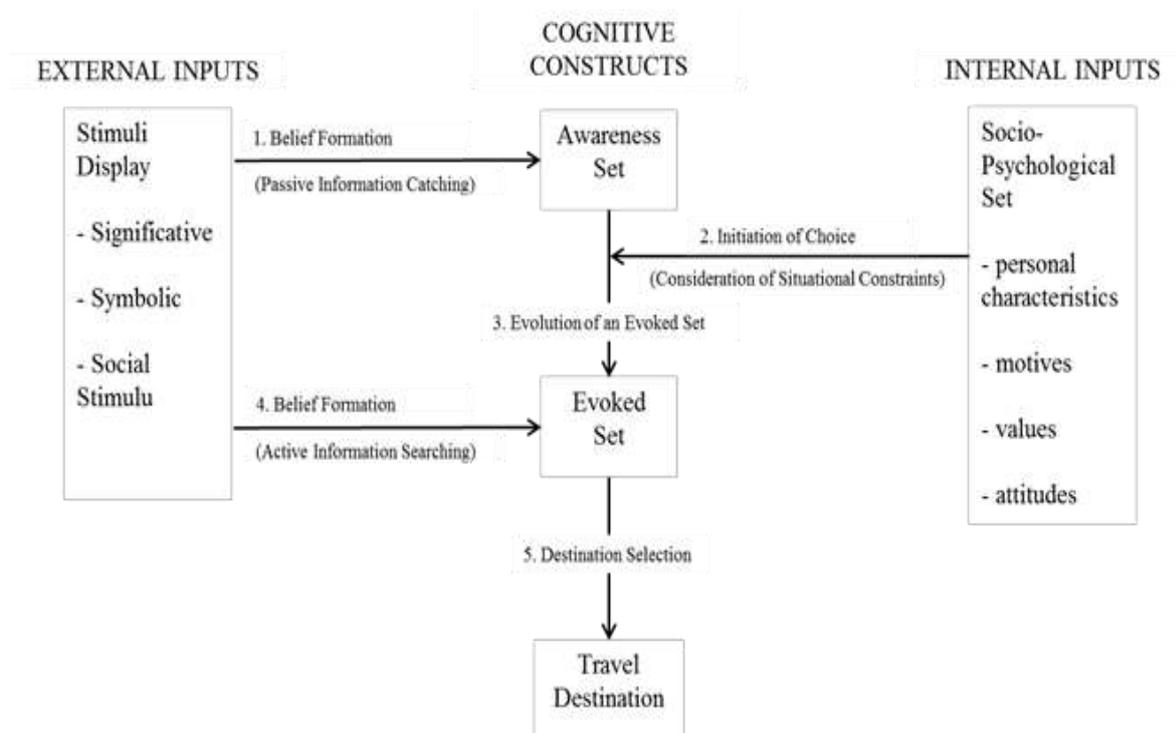


Figure 2.10: A Model of the pleasure travel destination choice process
 Source: Um and Crompton (1990:435)

Five sets of processes, represented as flows;

- The formation of subjective beliefs about destination attributes in the awareness set.
- A decision to engage in or undertake a vacation, which includes consideration of situational constraints.
- The evolution/ progression of the evoked set from the awareness set.
- The formation of subjective beliefs about the destination attributes of each alternative in the evoked set of the destinations, through active information gathering and search.
- Selecting a specific destination(s).

From these five process, three constructs can be identified namely the awareness set, evoked set and travel destination selection. Concepts used in the framework can

be described as external inputs, internal inputs and cognitive constructs. External inputs refer to the social interaction and marketing communication to which a potential tourists are exposed to. Significant stimuli refer to the previous exposure to the destination i.e. the tourists visited the destination before. Symbolic stimuli are the words, sentences and pictures disseminated as promotional material through the media by the travel industry. Social stimuli on the other hand refer to people in which the potential tourists have come into interaction with and discussed the potential destinations based on their direct and indirect experiences.

Internal inputs derive from the socio-psychological set of a potential tourist that includes the following; Personal characteristics (socio-demographics, lifestyle, personality and situational factors), motives, values, and attitudes. It is important to note that beliefs about the destination attributes are formed by being exposed to the external stimuli display, but the nature of these beliefs are dependent on and will vary in accordance to the –socio-psychological set of the potential traveller (Um & Crompton, 1990:436).

Cognitive constructs represents an integration of the internal and external inputs, into the awareness set and the evoked sets of potential destinations. The awareness set includes all destinations, which the potential tourist might consider to visit before any decision-making about the vacation have been initiated. According to Um and Crompton (1990:436), these destinations are likely to be locations that are consistently directly related to the potential tourist's ideal destination (destination of your dreams) and at this stage still excludes situational constraints like money and time. The evoked set includes destinations all destination, which the potential tourists consider as alternatives in selecting a specific destination(s). According to Um and Crompton (1990:436), at this stage the potential tourists are most likely to consider situational constraints as well as their preferences for alternative destinations.

Part of the contribution Um and Crompton (1990:436) made to the field of decision-making in tourism, was the empirical part of their research, whereby the deference between attitude scores (the difference between perceived inhibitors and facilitators) in order to take situational constraints into account have been analysed at both evoked and destination selection phases. Therefore;

$$\text{Attitude} = \text{perceived facilitators (PF}_k) - \text{perceived inhibitors (PI}_k)$$

Travel destination choice is framed by Um and Crompton (1990:437) as a two-stage process. The first stage is the evolution of the evoked set of destinations from an awareness set. The second stage refers to the selection of a destination from the evoked set. In the first stage, all alternative destinations are evaluated in terms of attitude i.e. $(PF_k) - (PI_k)$. Alternative destinations which are unsatisfactory according to the potential tourists attitude towards these destinations are eliminated from further consideration. At the second stage a travel destination(s) is selected from the alternative destination in the evoked set based on the magnitude of $PF_k - PI_k$ associated with actually travelling to each alternative. The alternative, which is likely to carry the biggest magnitude, is selected as the preferred destination(s).

Um and Crompton (1990:445), who aimed to identify the role of attitudes in an individual's destination choice process strongly suggested that situational constraints should be an integral part of decision-making frameworks/ models in the tourism literature. Although the majority of decision-making models include destination attributes in their research, they are frequently failing to reflect decision-makers anticipations towards inhibitors in terms of achieving their needs and goals in order to accommodate situational constraints. Potential tourists have the capacity to interpret a complex array of perceptions of destination attributes by simplifying them into facilitators and inhibitors in formulating their destination choice (Um & Crompton, 1990:446).

2.2.3.7 The Roles of Perceived Inhibitors and Facilitators in Pleasure Travel Destination Choice

Vacation destination choice is conceptualised in this research by Um and Crompton (1992) as a three-stage sequential decision consisting of the early evoked set, late evoked set and final decision, an evolved version from the two-stage model described by Um and Crompton (1990). This study also aim to describe destination choice as a function of interaction between perceived constraints such as time, money and distance and destination image. The role of perceived inhibitors and facilitators are also being explored in formulation of the late evoked set of the potential destinations from the early evoked set and in selecting a final destination

from the late evoked set. Multi-item scales were used to measure inhibitors and facilitators during both stages of the evoked set.

Destinations not previously visited by potential tourists due to limited knowledge are mostly limited either to symbolic images acquired from the media or from social interaction. Therefore, the image of a specific destination plays a major role in the decision-making process of potential tourists. According to Um and Crompton (1992:18) previous research mainly focused on destination attributes since it was widely noted that potential tourists will modify preferences based on destination image. Situational attributes gradually became of interest to researchers and marketers since it was recognised that the number of alternatives depends greatly on the financial and time constraints and by doing this reduced the unexplained variances in tourism decision-making models (Mayo, 1973:211). The work of Woodside and Lysonski (1989) made the interaction between variables and image widely accepted. From a destination choice point of view, constraints can be conceptualised as emerging from the interaction of an individual's image/ beliefs about a particular destination attributes (in this study referred to as facilitators) and situational factors (referred to in this study as inhibitors) influencing the motives of the individual. In other words, the choice of selecting an alternative destination is greatly dependant on the interaction between perceived facilitators and perceived inhibitors of that particular destination.

The starting point also described by Um and Crompton (1990) and Woodside and Lysonski (1989) is the awareness set which includes all potential destinations which might be considered by a potential tourist before any decisions regarding a holiday has started. Based on the awareness set the second stage consist of an evoked/ consideration set of destinations, defined on numerous occasions in previous studies as the destinations, consumers are aware of and the possible intention to visit exists. The final stage consists of selecting a single destination from the evoked set (Um & Crompton, 1992:19). Due to the vagueness of the operationalised definition of the awareness set Um and Crompton (1992:19) decided on an alternative description. Therefore, in this particular study the awareness set will be replaced with an early evoked set. Thus, the first stage will be the evaluation of a late evoked set of destinations from an early evoked set of destinations. The second stage then

becomes the selection of a destination from the late evoked set of destinations. Um and Crompton (1992:9) tested four hypotheses empirically:

1. The perceived importance of the scale of inhibitors among the alternative destinations which are not selected for inclusion in the late evoked set is greater than that of the alternatives which are selected for the late evoked set
2. The perceived importance of the scale of facilitators among the alternatives which are selected in the late evoked set is greater than the alternatives which are not selected for the late evoked set
3. The perceived importance of the scale of inhibitors amongst the alternative destinations which are not selected as the destination choice from the late evoked set is greater than the alternative(s) which is selected as the destination of choice
4. The perceived importance of the scale of facilitators of the alternative(s) which is selected as the destination choice from the late evoked set is greater than the alternatives which are not selected as destination choice from the late evoked set

In defining the concepts of facilitators and inhibitors, Um and Crompton (1992:20) developed multi-scales to measure three personal and situational dimensions, frequently reported in literature as affecting tourism decision-making;

- Need satisfaction – Motivations for travel incl. novelty, challenge, learning and curiosity (Crompton, 1979).
- Social agreement – potential tourist's dispositions to act in accordance with their social peer's opinions.
- Travelability – includes variables such as money, time, skill and health.

Perceived inhibitors and facilitators were operationalised as consisting of two components;

- The extent to which potential destinations were believed to contain certain attributes.

- The relative strength or intensity of beliefs about each attribute as either an inhibitor or facilitator.

From the empirical data it was evident that the results of the hypothesis testing suggest that at the early stages of selecting a destination, the scale of facilitators was a significant indication in predicting which destinations were considered as a potential location for holiday and therefore evolved to the late evoked set from the early evoked set. During the later stages, it was evident that rather the scale of perceived inhibitors was a significant indicator in the destination choice. Um and Crompton (1992:24) support the above mentioned notions by stating that the selection a potential destination is rather a decision made under conditions of uncertainty, because information gained on the destination's ability satisfy the needs of the potential tourist is based on indirect symbolic and social sources. Therefore, the early stages evaluation of alternatives is based mostly on facilitators rather than inhibitors. However, people tend to be risk reducers and at the later and final decision stages, it is inhibitors, which prevail. In order to reduce risk during the final decision-making inhibiting factors are likely to be deterministic and therefore tourism behaviour models should reflect risk-reducing inhibitor factors rather than the attributes of the attractions and amenities of a destination.

2.2.3.8 Structure of Vacation Destination Choice Sets

Crompton (1992:420) states that from a large number of competing destinations and markets potential tourists are swamped with mass information beyond their capacity to process of which they are exposed to. However, from this large amount of alternatives available a potential tourist always selects a destination. In the previous sections, numerous destination choice and decision-making models have been discussed in order to explain exactly how decision are being made (Crompton, 1979; Van Raaij, 1986; Moutinho, 1987; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990; Um & Crompton, 1992). Central to the above mentioned models is the concepts of choice sets. According to Crompton (1992:421) choice sets are mostly applicable when the purchase decision requires some form of high risk. The majority of high risk decision is made by new or modified destination choices of which potential tourists require information in order to evaluate alternatives. The above mentioned decision entails high-involvement, non-routine type of decision processes.

The aim of this particular study is limited to identifying the combined structure of choice sets that have been conceptualised by earlier studies and considering the implications of the sets.

In the context of tourism, Crompton (1992:421) states that there appears to be some median from all the studies above mentioned that the destination choice process entails three central core staged illustrated in Figure 2.11:

- Stage 1: Initial set of destinations, formally called the awareness set.
- Stage 2: A discarding of some of the destinations to form a smaller late consideration/ evoked set.
- Stage 3: Final destination selected.

Figure 2.11 represents a structure taxonomy and as a particular destination moves from right to left through the structure, the possibility increases of being selected as a final destination choice. Howard and Sheth (1969) suggested that all destinations can be categorised as either in a potential tourist's awareness set or unawareness set. The awareness set is defined as all the destinations the potential tourist is aware of at any given stage and vice versa regarding the unawareness set.

The destinations of which the potential tourist is aware of but not considering as a possible destination within a given time period is called the excluded set. Um and Crompton (1992:19) have already defined the initial consideration set and late consideration set derived from Howard and Sheth (1969) in the previous section. In the context of tourism the evoked set (late consideration set can be defined as all the destinations which a potential tourist is considering as a possible destination within a period of time.

The inert set consists of destinations that a potential tourist is aware of but is not necessarily interested in and doesn't necessarily refer to any negative or positive notations with regards to these destinations and consist of the foggy and hold sets. The foggy set refers to destinations for which individuals didn't acquire sufficient information to form any evaluation of it. The hold set on the other hand consists of destination of which the potential tourist is indifferent, even though sufficient

information is available and has been evaluated by the tourist. The reject or inept set consist of rejected destinations due to the fact that these destinations are being perceived as negative due to either an unpleasant previous experience or due to negative feedback from external sources.

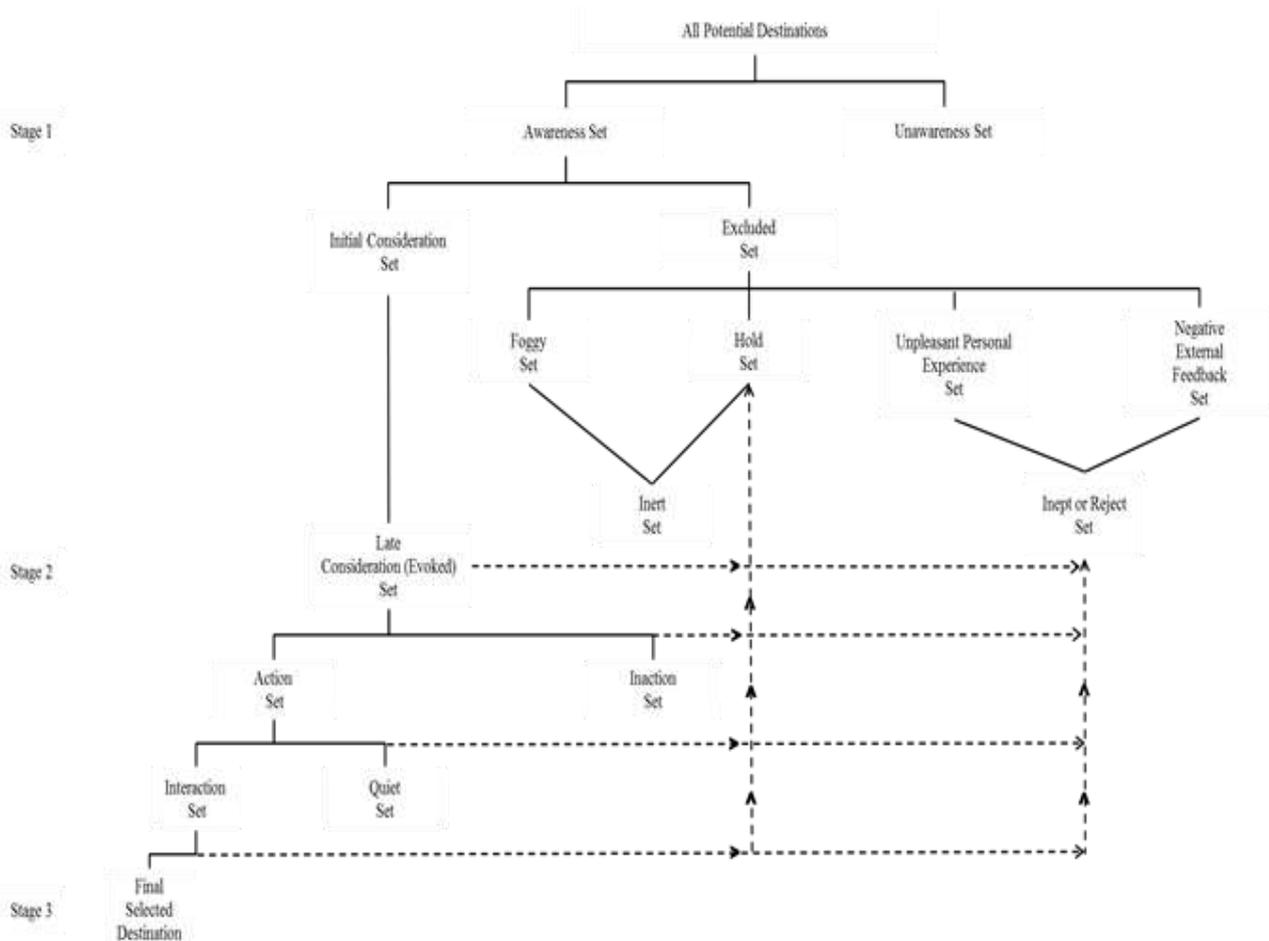


Figure 2.11: Structure of destination choice sets
Source: Crompton (1992:421)

The final stage in the decision-making process is the selection of a destination from the late consideration set. The inaction set is destinations in the late consideration set where no further destinations are sought. The actions set in the late consideration set consist of all the potential destinations that the tourist has contacted destination marketers or representatives (Crompton, 1992:425). The interaction set, an subset of the action set, includes all destinations that a potential tourist permit themselves to be exposed to a sales representatives to engage with on a personal level and the sales representative therefore have an opportunity to sell a destination directly the prospective client. A destination of which further information

is required before engaging on a personal level with a sales representative is called the quit set.

In figure 2.11 the dashed type lines indicate the filtering/funnelling process whereby tourists reduce alternatives and make transitions from one choice set to the next. The rational and linearity approach of the conceptualisation assumes that the situational factors are relative constant.

Um and Crompton (1992:432) state that the choice structure taxonomy is not an explanatory model, set in stone, but rather an analytical tool that destinations can use to ascertain their strengths and weaknesses at the three different stages of the model.

2.2.3.9 Choice Set Propositions in Destination Decisions

Crompton and Ankomah (1993:462) based their research on the concept of choice sets, that entails individuals to make decision based on filtering process whereby a wide range of alternatives are considered (Howard & Sheth, 1969; Narayana & Markin, 1975). The filtering/funnelling process consists of three primary stages namely (Figure 2.12):

- Development of an initial set of destinations also referred to as the early consideration or awareness set
- Late consideration set or evoked set includes a smaller set of choices than the previous set. Most of the destinations have been discarded and only the most relevant destinations are included in this set
- Final destination selected from the late consideration or evoked set

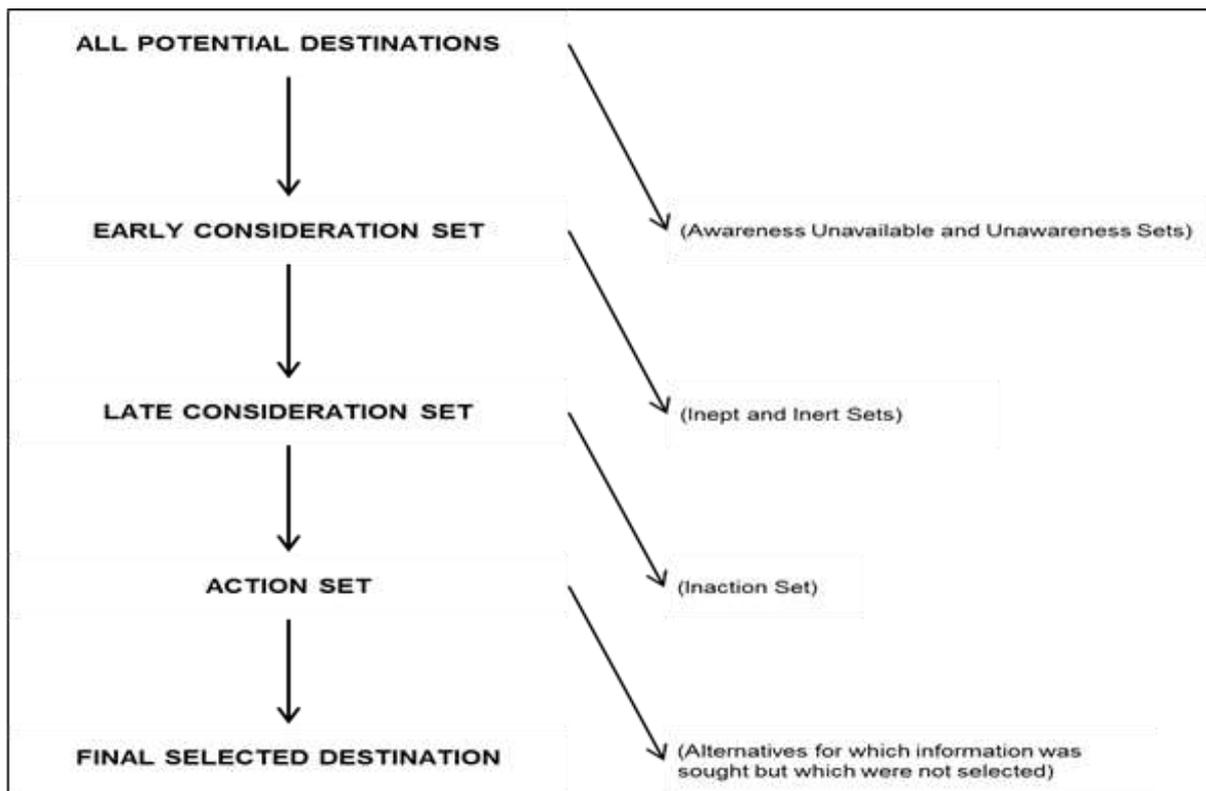


Figure 2.12: Relationships between the central choice sets
Source: Crompton and Ankomah (1993:462)

Crompton and Ankomah (1993:462) suggest that choice sets are most relevant when two particular settings; when the purchase is a new task in which individuals are forced to seek information and evaluate alternatives; and secondly when the purchase entails some degree of perceived risk and entail a high level of involvement. This is most likely to occur in the majority of vacations due to the intangible nature of tourism (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990). Crompton and Ankomah (1993:463) aim to define the early consideration set as the destinations that is considering as potential vacation destinations within a period i.e. a year. Late consideration set can be defined as the destinations that a traveller is considering as credible destinations within a period of time. The action set entails all destinations in the late consideration set for which a potential tourist physically contacts the destinations representatives.

In this study, Crompton and Ankomah (1993:463) developed propositions relating to the three different sets, which will be discussed in the following sections.

➤ Choice Set Propositions for the Early Consideration Set

The early consideration set consists of the destinations that are being considered as potential vacation destinations within a specific period by a potential tourist. According to Crompton and Ankomah (1993:463), if the destination is not considered within the early consideration set, the chances of being selected are very limited and the greater the distance to a destination the possibility decreases for people to be exposed to information about the destination.

○ Proposition 1a (Awareness):

The destinations in the early consideration set which there is a higher level of awareness have a greater possibility of being selected as a holiday destination than the destinations in the this particular set, but with a lower level of awareness

○ Proposition 1b (Awareness):

The destinations in the early consideration set where there is a higher level of awareness have a greater possibility of being selected as a holiday destination than the destinations in this particular set, but with a lower level of awareness

○ Proposition 2a (Geographic location):

Destinations within a geographical area that potential tourists have visited before is more likely to be considered to advance into the next choice set than destination in another geographical area not visited before by potential tourists

○ Proposition 2b (Geographic location) :

The destinations in the early consideration set from a geographical area which is neighbouring or close to geographical area in which the potential tourists resides in are more likely to advance to the next choice set than destinations from geographical areas not neighbouring or close to where the potential tourists resides in

➤ Choice Set Propositions for the Late Consideration Set

When the subject of size in the consideration set arises, ample research has been done in this regard, originally introduced by Howard and Sheth (1969). Considering that Howard and Sheth (1969) had no empirical evidence and the notion that the size of this group is about seven destinations was merely a rule of thumb. Since each and every destination have multiple attributes and constraints to be evaluated, the above mentioned number seemed subsequently high. Crompton and Ankomah (1993:465) state that after numerous new studies which investigated the size, it is more accurate to say that a group size of four and is therefore relatively small.

○ Proposition 3a (Size):

The average number of tourism destinations potential tourists will consider in the late consideration set will not exceed four destinations.

○ Proposition 3b (Size):

Perceived risk and/ or perceived importance of the decision to travel to a destination will not influence the size of the late consideration set.

According to Crompton and Ankomah (1993:466), it is also possible to express the size in the late considerate set based on the size of the early considerate set, taking into consideration the magnitude of the reduction of alternatives between the two stages.

○ Proposition 4 (Size Ratio):

The ratio of size of the late consideration set to size of early consideration set is likely to be between 0.6 and 0.9.

According to Crompton and Ankomah (1993:466), the relationship between set size and higher education level refers to the potential tourist's ability to process more information and thus handle a larger number of alternatives in the late consideration set.

- Proposition 5 (Education):

Late consideration set size is likely to vary positively in accordance with the education level of potential tourists.

Although ample research exists regarding the size of the different sets, but the understanding of their formulation is not well developed. One of the key issues in this phenomenon is whether the process used to formulate the late set from the early set is the same as the formulation used to make the final destination decision (Crompton & Ankomah, 1993:468). Changes in perception and images of a destination and attitudes towards them occurs through-out the dynamic filtering process and therefore the choice map of the potential tourists is updated regularly.

- Proposition 6 (Decision formulation):

The decision-making strategy used by potential tourists to decide on their late consideration set of destinations is autonomous of their decision strategy to decide on the final destination.

Three questions related to the issue of how decision formulation differs between the different stages in order to determine the information likely to be the most influential in each stage: Firstly, are the criteria used to evaluate destination alternatives different at each stage? Secondly, are the sources and types of information sought and used to assist in making these evaluations different? Lastly, are the decisions rules used to discard and select alternatives at each stage different?

Relating to the above mentioned issue is the number of evaluative criteria that will be used in a decision. If a large number of destinations are considered in both sets, the number of evaluative criteria used will be relatively large in order to take advantage of the number of reasons which will assist in eliminating destinations from the sets.

- Proposition 7a (Choice criteria: destination attributes and constraints):

The criteria used to evaluate alternatives in the early consideration set will primarily focus on the attributes of the destination, while the criteria used to evaluate alternatives in the late consideration set will primarily focus on constraints associated with each of the alternative destinations.

- Proposition 7b (Choice criteria):

The number of choice criteria used to evaluate destinations in the early and late consideration sets is likely to be inversely related to the number of destinations in those sets.

During the following propositions, Crompton and Ankomah (1993:469) state that information in the early consideration sets are generally acquired passively. The information is used to discard destinations not relevant to the potential tourists needs and other alternatives are selected into the late consideration set. At the late consideration set the active search for information is dominant. Figure 2.7 refers to an action set and an inaction set. The action set encompasses all destinations for which potential tourists physically contacts the destinations marketers or representatives. It is also during this phase that the investment from the potential tourists is bigger and more likely to result in a final decision.

- Proposition 8a (Information gathering):

Confidence in information acquired passively will be high at the early consideration set, lower and lowest in the late consideration and final decision stages. Confidence in information acquired actively will be lowest at the early consideration set and vice versa for the late consideration and final decision set.

- Proposition 8b (Information gathering):

A destination in the late consideration set for which a potential tourist has requested some information has a greater possibility of being the final destination choice than a destination similar to the above mentioned destination, but for which no information was required.

- Proposition 8c (Information gathering):

The greater the perceived investment in effort and resources directed to contacting the representatives of a destination to acquire additional information, the more likely that a destination will be the final vacation choice.

Crompton and Ankomah (1993:470) state that five decision-making rules are generally recognised, two of which are supportive/compensatory i.e. a weakness of a destination can be compensated by a strength attribute. By unknowingly using the unweighted linear compensatory rule, a potential tourist calculates the attributes of each destination in the particular set and then selects the destination(s) (Crompton & Ankomah, 1993:471). The weighted linear compensatory rule is similar; however the attribute ratings are weighted by their importance before calculated. Non-compensatory decision rules propose that potential tourists evaluate alternative destinations on two or three attributes and eliminate destinations perceived to be not relevant on these attributes.

- Proposition 9 (Compensation):

Potential tourists are most likely to use a combination of reward and reprimand rules to select both their late consideration set and final destination choice. The rule might be different for every stage.

In this section, the choice set as described by Crompton and Ankomah (1993) have been reviewed in detail. In this section the focus remained on the issue of destination choice sets and selection of a destination.

2.2.4 Tourism Interpretive and Conceptual Frameworks

After a substantial number of studies have been focusing on a cognitive approach to decision-making (discussed in the previous section), Decrop (2006:39) states that this view have been challenged by new, lean and postmodern frameworks of decision-making. Based on the principles that decision-making is a formalised, multistage process, interpretive frameworks support a naturalistic and experiential approach on tourist behaviour. Alternative sets of propositions that include variables

not taken into account in the previous models will therefore be considered in the following sections.

The work of Teare (1994) and Dellaert *et al.* (1998) will be discussed in more detail in the following sections.

2.2.4.1 Generating Consumer Theory

Based on the work of Moutinho (1987) and an in-depth review of pre-purchase and purchase studies especially focusing on the hospitality industry, Teare (1994:37) states that consumer decision-making requires further systematic investigation. In order to achieve the above mentioned, the use of theory generating rather than theory testing research methods might be required. Through a case study of consumer decision-making done in the UK hotel leisure market another effort towards a more interpretive approach to tourist decision-making was conducted by Teare (1994:44). By using qualitative methods in theory generation several distinct advantages were defined by Teare (1994:40)

- It provides the means if exploring the consumer decision process holistically.
- It enables the construction of a theoretical framework on which subsequent relationship studies can be based.
- It makes the integration of data easier and more likely to meet the expectations of marketing theory.
- It brings consistency to the field work through systematic cross-comparison of data.
- It ensures that the emerging theory is 'grounded' in the research observations.

By discovering the theory from the data collection the following study findings were presented by Teare (1994:46);

A. Pre-purchasing decision-making

A six-part classification of primary motives was derived from the field data where at least one of the following was noted as the respondent's primary reason for a leisure break:

1. To coincide with attending a pre-arranged event.
2. In response to the need for a break from family/ domestic commitments/ routine problems/ employment related pressures.
3. In response to a desire to relax, recover in different surroundings.
4. In response to a desire to visit a particular town, region, hotel or somewhere new.
5. To compensate for a missed holiday opportunity.
6. For the specific benefits derived from taking short breaks on a regular basis.

From the findings Teare (1994:47) states that it is clear that motives plays an important role on pre-purchasing behaviour. Teare further states that motives associated with physical needs relate to specific symptoms of tiredness, fatigue and stress. Throughout the study many variations of physical needs influencing the desire to take a leisure break were noted.

The provision and interpretation of product information can be a matter of importance in the pre-purchase decision-making phase, especially for the consumers who seek tangible assurance that they are making an appropriate choice in destination or product. According to Teare (1994:49), consumers might have some difficulty in positioning the image associations conveyed by brochures and other sources of information, unless the received impressions are reinforced by experience. Word-of-mouth recommendations can provide consumers the security desired due to the complexity and intangible nature of tourism, especially from experienced tourists.

The influence of prior product experience on choice behaviour refers to the criteria that a consumer uses to evaluate choice options frequently referred to as the

'evoked set'. The evoked set consist of product attributes and brands which are important to the consumer to the extent that and overall evaluation of alternatives maybe retained in long term memory. Consumers often assess destinations or their attributes based on the closest comparison they can recall, however situational factors may influence the criteria by which decision are being made. There are also a number of factors which may influence the search and selection strategy that has worked for the consumer on previous occasions. According to Teare (1994) this includes the extent of product-related experience and the degree of perceived risk associated with the decision.

Inevitably, the strategy adopted by the consumer will depend upon how difficult the task is perceived to be and how much effort and attention will be required to make an acceptable choice between purchase alternatives. High involvement behaviour is defined by an extensive period of information search with special importance ascribed to selection criteria and or expectations whereby the final selection is based on a careful assessment of the information gathered. On the other hand low involvement decision-making is defined by a limited information search or in some cases none at all. The purchase decision is most likely to be subject to confidence acquired from previous experience. In summary, consumers using a high involvement strategy engage in extensive search to satisfy their selection criteria and expectations because of their limited previous experience. More experienced consumers might also engage in high involvement behaviour when special importance is placed on the decision. The general more experienced consumers feels less concerned about the return of investment risk associated with the decision.

B. The purchase decision

According to Teare (1994:55) consumers in many cases reach a decision to purchase despite remaining feelings of uncertainty. The transaction represents the initial contact with the product during which uncertainty might be reduced or increased depending on the response from the product personnel.

C. The consumption experiences

According to Teare (1994:56), when consumption of tourism products take place over a long period of time, the consumer faces a difficult task of assessing the overall product satisfaction. Especially with consumers with limited prior experience, the task is even more difficult. During this particular phase, Teare (1994:57) states that the main focus is to determine how consumers use pre-conceived expectations and assessment criteria to measure the various aspects of product performance during the consumption phases as well as the post-consumption phase. Based on the empirical research it was clear that the consumers are able to integrate individual assessments with a personal rating system capable of measuring satisfaction.

Therefore, by comparing perceived ideal attribute ratings of a product with the actual experience, the consumer is able to evaluate a form of cost benefits analysis to assess the 'value of money' in relation to the service received. If the expectations of consumers are based on experience, the consumer might compare their experience against certain reference standards that enables the consumer to assess whether the experience falls above or below their reference standards.

D. The post-consumption evaluation

According to Teare (1994:61), during the post-consumption phase, reflection is necessary in order to complete the consumption rating procedure in order to calculate the overall assessment of the experience. As stated previously as is the case with this phase, there are differences between consumers with extensive experience, who have been through this process of evaluation many times before, and the instinctive but more hesitant approach taken by consumers with limited prior experience.

Teare (1994:61) further states that strong feelings of dissatisfaction usually lead to recollections of the events and experiences. Both verbal and non-verbal responses by the consumers when describing the experiences to other and most often potential consumers express this. Sources of dissatisfaction are not easy to anticipate or rectify, especially as the responses of consumers is unpredictable. Based on the findings expressed by Teare (1994:62) the implications for repeat

buying is associated with the shared experiences among friends and relatives, and generalised assumptions about other products in the same sector and/ or geographic area. In generating repeat business, service providers must be able to ensure that expectations of consumers are met at every stage in the decision process.

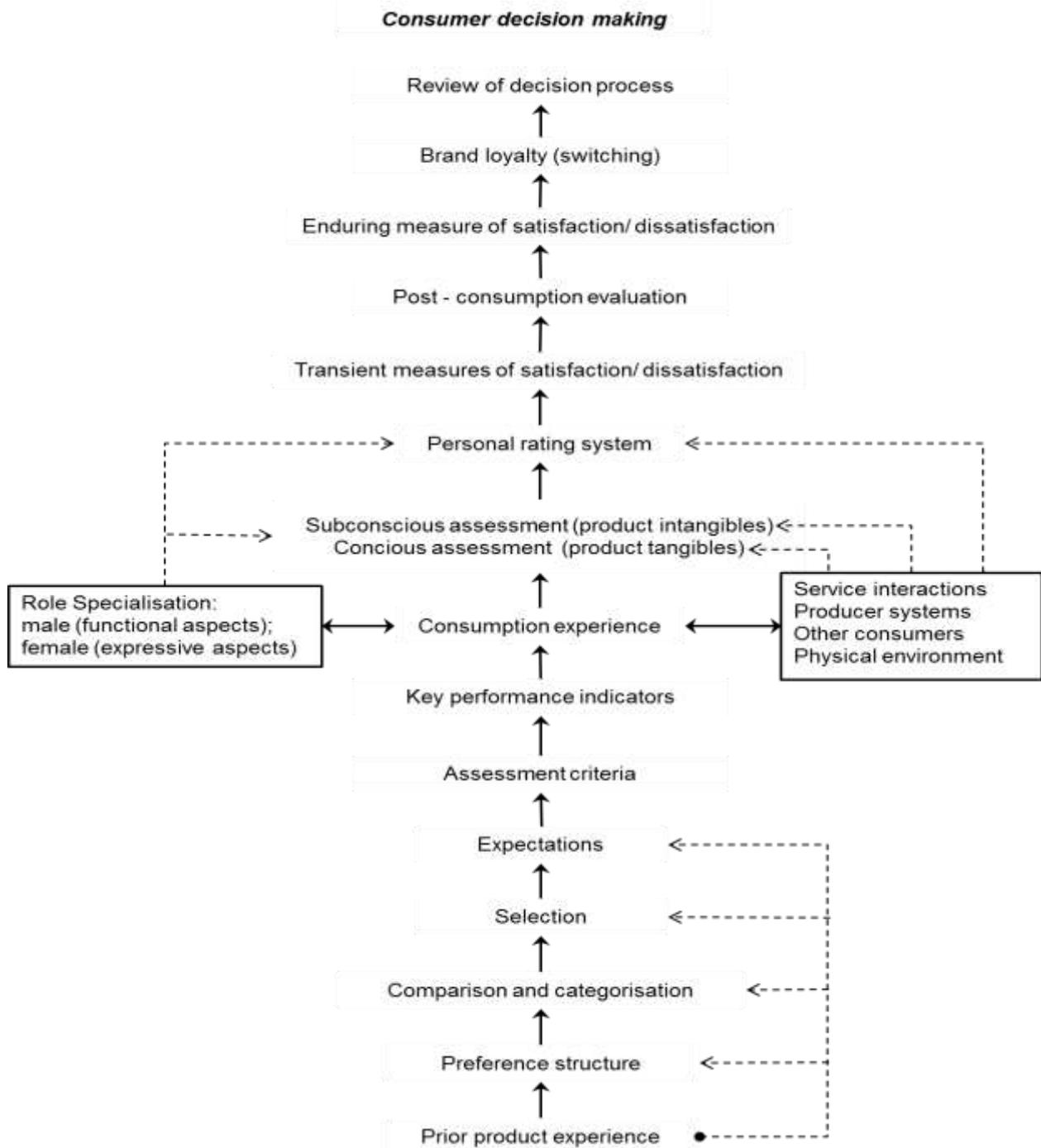


Figure 2.13: A consumer framework of assessing and evaluating hotels.
Source: Teare (1994:64)

In summary Teare (1994:64) represented a model (Figure 2.13) of the complete decision process based on generating theory principles. Teare further states that in contrast to the business traveller, leisure break consumers are spending their own money and therefore their definition of value for money is more critical. As there is often a saving and investment input, the satisfaction output requirement is more clearly defined in terms of ideal mental and physical states. Based on the findings that prior product experience and product involvement lie at the core of decision-making process, Teare (1994:63) summarises their potential explanatory value in six research propositions:

1. The tendency of consumers with extensive prior experience to engage in high involvement decision-making is related to the perceived importance of the product.
2. The tendency of consumers with extensive prior experience to engage in low-involvement decision-making is related to product familiarity and personal confidence in product class decision-making ability.
3. The tendency of consumers with limited prior experience to engage in high-involvement decision-making is related to perceived risk, and limited personal confidence in product class decision-making ability.
4. The tendency of consumers with limited prior experience to engage in low-involvement decision-making is related to pre-knowledge of product sustainability and low perceptions of risk.
5. The practices of pre-purchase decisions rules, and their relative effectiveness during the assessment of choice criteria, are positively related to the consumer's prior product experience.
6. Confidence in joint decision-making is positively related to product role specialisation.
7. The relationship between product expectations and experience is positively related to product familiarity.

8. The degree of sophistication inherent in the operation of the consumer's personal rating system is positively related to the extent of prior product experience.
9. Satisfaction during product consumption is a function of many differently weighted impressions and experiences, which are cumulative and which are continually being integrated into consumer's personal rating system.
10. Satisfaction during post-consumption evaluation represents the sum total of individual assessments made during consumption; this evaluation reinforces or modifies the consumer's preference structure and influence future decision-making.

2.2.4.2 Multi-faceted Tourist Travel Decisions: A Constraint-based Conceptual Framework

According to Dellaert *et al.* (1998:313), Tourism decision-making are multi-faceted decisions made sequential, over a period of time and confronted by constraints to be overcome. Dellaert *et al.* introduces a conceptual framework that allows one to analyse tourist behaviour that includes these multi-faceted decisions as well as the relevant decision-making constraints. For the purpose of this particular study, only single, vacation/ leisure trips have been considered.

From previous studies, Dellaert *et al.* (1998:14) have identified the following key determinants of destination choice and decision-making:

- Destination characteristics: This includes two main contributors to destination choice; activities at the destination and destination attribute itself.
- Traveller characteristics: They include demographic and socio-psychological determinants such as; age, income, travelling alone or in a group etc.
- Research focusing on structure and processes of decision-making rather than the outcome of choice (Crompton, 1992; Woodside & McDonald, 1994).
- Studies focusing on understanding the evolution of tourist travel choices over longer periods of time (Opperman, 1995).

It is clear that from previous research that many aspects influence tourist decision-making and many has been identified, thus making tourism decision-making multi-faceted. However, according to Dellaert *et al.* some aspects deserve more attention, especially the work of Woodside and McDonald (1994) where it is stated that the choice of a single trip are not taken at one moment in time but over a number of different stages. All facets of decision-making are also decided upon during different stages and therefore it will be useful to understand that these decisions are distributed over time. Dellaert *et al.* (1994:315) also continues by stating that in previous studies, constraints have been recognised, most studies to date is limited in how it deals with the general concept of constraints. The following major constraints can be identified:

- Authority constraints, these are constraints imposed by law.
- Coupling constraints, these are constraints originating from limitations faced by household members, friends and colleagues.
- Capacity constraints, these are constraints caused by the availability of travel options and money resources.

Figure 2.14 represents a proposed framework by Dellaert *et al.* (1998:315) whereby the choices that tourists make in order to book their holiday i.e. choices related before a trip is undertaken as these choices are more beneficial to tourism planners and marketers who want to understand the demand for long distance travel. In sequential order based on the different time stages the following decisions need to be made by tourists going on a single trip:

- Firstly the decision whether or not to make a trip has to be made. This decision will determine the outcome of the rest of the decisions.
- Secondly decisions regarding trip destination, type of accommodation, travel companions, travel mode for the trip, when to make the trip and the duration of the trip needs to be decided.

- Thirdly other factors such as choices of special attractions, travel routes, day-to-day expenditure, and rest and food stop locations and timing are more often made during the trip.

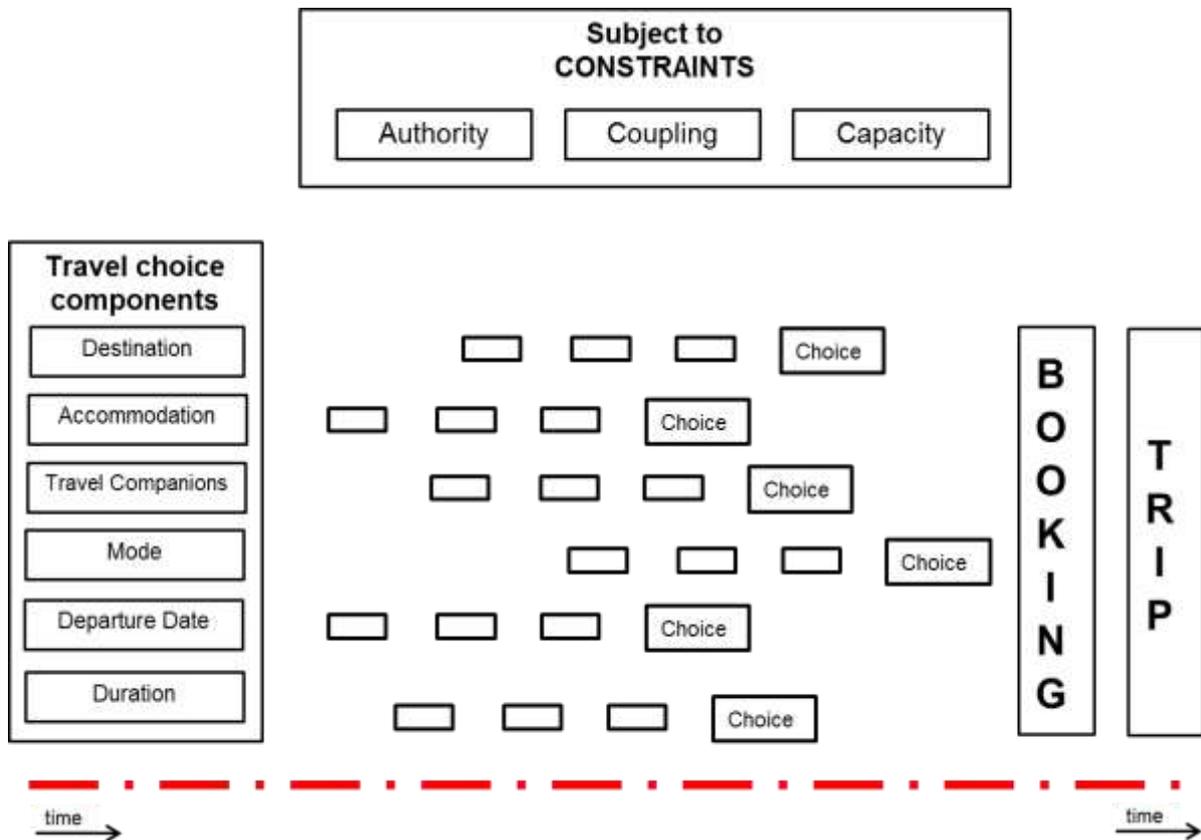


Figure 2.14: Proposed conceptual framework

Source: Dellaert *et al.* (1998:316)

All the above decisions are generally interrelated and subject to constraints. These constraints determine restrictions to the set of possible alternatives from which tourists can choose their travel options. Dellaert *et al.* (1998:315) summarises the framework by suggesting the following elements that should be addressed in models of multi-faceted tourist travel choice.

- Analysis of destination choice, accommodation choice, choice of companions, mode choice, choice of travel and duration of the trip for each separate trip.
- Analysis of the planning horizon decisions on different aspects of trips, such as initiation of the first idea, start of information search and the final decision taken.

- Analysis of how overnight long-distance trip decisions are affected by different types of constraints.

2.2.5 A Critical Analysis of Decision-Making Models

In the previous sections decision-making models relevant to this study have been discussed in detail. Ample models have contributed to the field of tourism decision-making and this section aims to analyse these models based on the objectives of this study. The value added by these models with reference to the objectives of this study as well as the limitations and opportunities for further research will be discussed in detail. The models have been divided into three basic conceptualisations of the models namely microeconomic, cognitive and interpretive frameworks (Decrop, 2006:23). Some reference has also been made to important consumer behaviour models that influenced tourism decision-making. Figure 2.15 summarises the models reviewed, plotted on a timeline with reference to the major contributors of the certain model(s) over a specific timeframe. Table 2.2 also summarises each model and give some context to the key variables of the particular study as well as reference to constraints theory.

2.2.5.1 Consumer Behaviour Models

Consumer behaviour models have influenced the tourism literature by integrating consumer behaviour into frameworks of decision-making (Harrison-Hill, 2001:37). The above mentioned frameworks represent decision-making as a systematic filtering process from numerous alternatives of the brands the consumer is aware of to a single final choice. It can therefore be assumed that Howard and Sheth's (1969) as well as Narayana and Markin's (1975) main contribution to tourism decision-making models was the introduction of choice sets now widely used by the majority of tourism decision-making models.

Although widely used by the tourism literature, consumer behaviour models cannot be directly applied to the field of tourism. Rugg (1973); Morley (1992); Papatheodorou (2001) as well as Seddighi and Theocharous (2002) state that the application of the traditional demand and consumer behaviour theory, suffers from the serious blemishes with regards to tourism literature, mainly because of the exclusion of attitudes, perception and consumer characteristics measurements.

Papatheodorou (2001:165) elaborated on these blemishes of the traditional demand theory applied to tourism:

- The assumption of representative tourists who visits all the applicable destinations simultaneously is unrealistic.
- Due to its intangible nature, tourism cannot be compared to supermarket shopping or commodities.
- The stagnant nature of the demand theory cannot account for the evolutionary features of the tourism product.
- Microeconomics assumes the presence of a homogeneous good and does not consider differences in the horizontal dimensions i.e. where preferences and characteristics of the consumer are considered and not only the variety of goods.
- The traditional demand theory can only ensues within a competitive environment where the norm is that producers acts as price takers, incapable of manipulating tourist flows.

In the theory of buying behaviour, Howard and Sheth (1969:35) acknowledge the fact that certain inhibitory contingencies may be present and play a central role decision-making. Due to the fact that this theory assumes repetitive buying behaviour, these inhibitors/ constraints mainly exists during the Intention phase of learning constructs. This indicates that the buyer had some frame of reference regarding the brand or product that influence or modified the buyer's attitude towards the brand or product feeding from the outputs identified in the theory.

Narayana and Markin (1975) have no reference in their study to any type of constraints or inhibiting factors that might influence decision-making. Only five types of inhibitory situations have been identified by Howard and Sheth (1969) as a) high price of brand, b) lack of availability of the brand, c) time pressure on the buyer, d) the buyer's financial status and e) social influences. Howard and Sheth (1969:35) state that the inhibitors are not generally internalised and is only situational. Only

when the inhibitor persists over time, may it become part of choice criteria and thus being internalised by the buyer.

Due to the intangible nature of tourism, the influence of alternatives that are more available and for the purpose of this study buying behaviour cannot be assumed as repetitive. For the same reason attitude towards certain destinations might play a bigger role earlier in the decision-making process based on the inputs identified in the model without any first-hand experience from the particular destination.

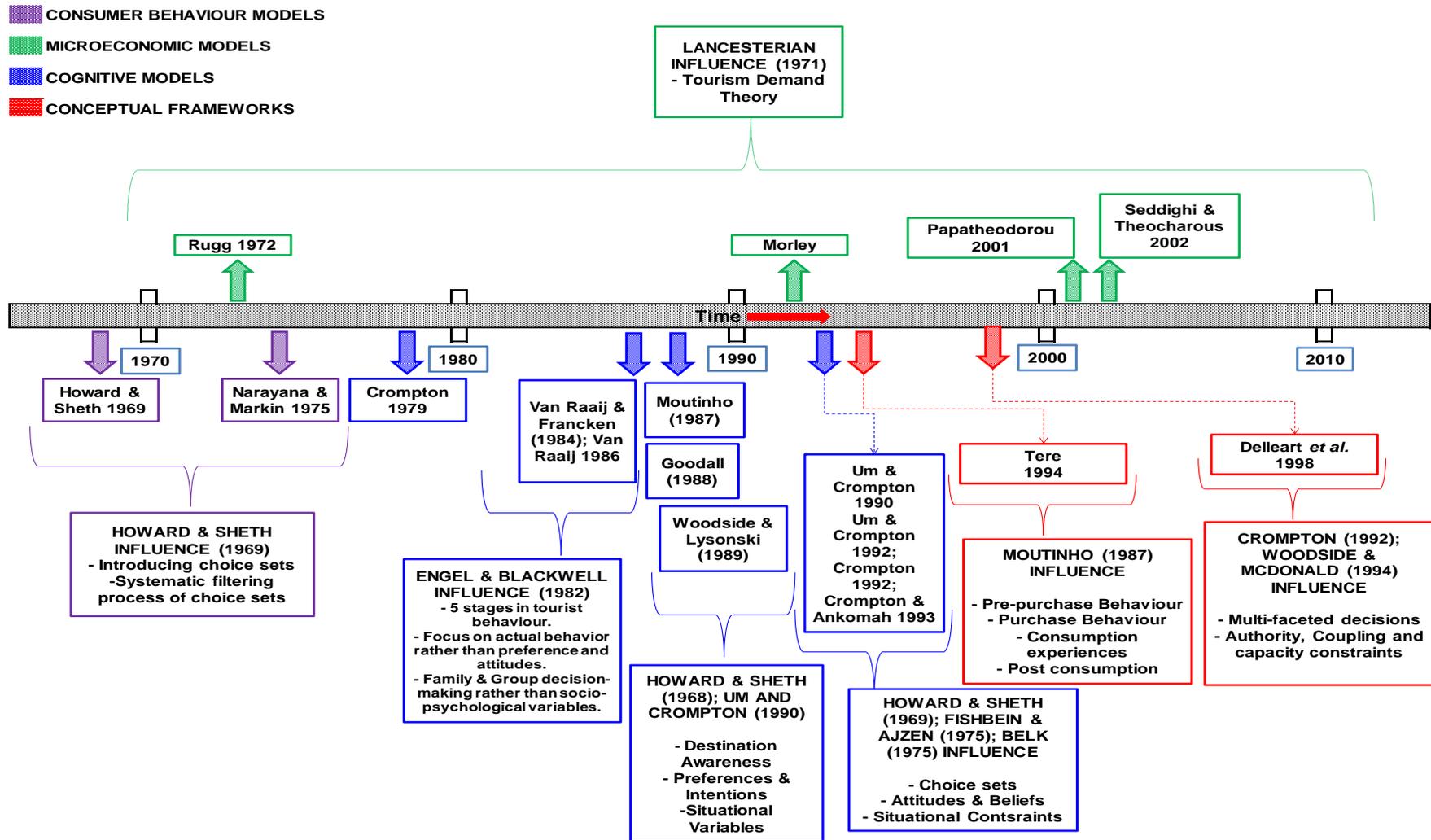


Figure 2.15: A summary of decision-making models
Source: Researcher's own compilation

Table 2.2: Models summary

Decision-making Models		
Title of study	Author(s)	Focus of study
The Theory of Buyer Behaviour	Howard & Sheth (1969)	Buying behaviour is repetitive and purchase cycles for various products are established by buyers, which determine the frequency of purchases.
Consumer Behaviour and Product Performance: An Alternative Conceptualisation.	Narayana & Markin (1975)	Consumers make purchase decisions based on brand awareness or unawareness. The set of brands in a product class of which the consumer is aware is signified by the awareness set and it is from this awareness set that the consumer makes a decision to purchase.
Tourism Microeconomic Models		
Title of study	Author(s)	Focus of study
The Choice of Journey Destination	Rugg (1973)	A theoretical framework analysing consumer's choice of journey destination with the inclusion of time and budget (money) constraints.
Experimental Destination Choice Analysis	Morley (1994)	Decision model including decision to travel or not, the allocation of time and budget and the choice of the tour.
Why People Travel to Different Places	Papatheodorou (2001)	The characteristics approach of decision-making in tourism offers a systematic framework, where destination choice is based on a set of micro foundations. The application of the traditional tourism demand theory is discretely confronted.
A Model of Tourism Destination Choice: a theoretical and empirical analysis.	Seddighi & Theocharous (2002)	A methodological framework within which the impact of characteristics of a tourism product on foreign travel can be apprehended and studied. The characteristics of the tourism product/destination including quality of service, advertising and political instability are combined to generate a perception of the destination/product.
A New Economic Framework for Tourism Decision-making	Bailey & Richardson (2010)	The article challenges conventional microeconomic and macroeconomic approaches in tourism. Due to emerging concerns of the modern tourism system, which require economic analysis, that considers community as a unit of analysis. An ecological economics framework for analysing economic decision-making is proposed. Extensions of microeconomic models are proposed as an alternative framework for addressing dynamic decision-

		making and trade-offs in resource use.
Cognitive Models		
Title of study	Author(s)	Focus of study
Motivations for Pleasure Vacation	Crompton (1979)	A conceptual framework where the motivations of pleasure-seeking tourists are identified that influence their decision to visit a destination. In total nine motivations were identified, where seven is classified as socio-psychological.
Consumer Research on Tourism: Mental and Behavioural Constructs	Van Raaij (1986)	Emphasising the significance of perceptions and preferences as a basis for understanding tourism behaviour.
Consumer Behaviour in Tourism	Moutinho (1987)	An analysis of all the major variables that influence tourist decision-making. Amongst the variables, include: culture and reference group influences, the relationship between individuals and their environment, perceived risk and family decision processes. A model defining the complex interaction of many influencing elements in the pre-purchase and post-purchase decision processes.
How Tourists Choose their Holidays: An Analytical Framework	Goodall (1988)	An analysis of the holiday selection process and the choice of the resort. The holiday selection process is sequential and involves decisions influenced by implicit and explicit constraints.
Vacation Decisions, Activities, and Satisfaction.	Van Raaij & Francken (1984)	Analysing lifestyle, equity and attribution in understanding vacation behaviour.
A General Model of Traveller Destination Choice	Woodside & Lysonski (1989)	A review of the proposition that perception and preferences should be the basis for tourism marketing and the development of destination awareness and choice model.
Attitude Determinants in Tourism Destination Choice.	Um & Crompton (1990)	A two stage approach was developed based on the construct of an evoked set of decision-making. The two stages comprehend firstly the development from an awareness set to an evoked set and secondly destination choice from the evoked set.

The Roles of Perceived Inhibitors and Facilitators in Pleasure Travel Destination Choice.	Um & Crompton (1992)	The conceptualisation of destination choice as a three-stage sequential decision. The role of perceived inhibitors and facilitators were examined and measured as part of the sequential decision.
Structure of Vacation Destinations Choice Sets.	Crompton (1992)	Choice sets as described in consumer behaviour models were adapted to the context of tourism and integrated into a structure relevant to tourism.
Choice Set Propositions in Destination Decisions.	Crompton & Ankomah (1993)	Research propositions related to the three stages in the choice set concept.
The effect of environmentally friendly perceptions on festival visitors' decision-making process using an extended model of goal-directed behaviour.	Song, Lee, Kang & Boo (2012)	An analysis of the effect of perceptions on the behavioural intention indicates that in general perceptions formed positive and contributing relationships with the constructs in the extended model of goal-directed behaviour (EMGB). Attitude, subjective norm, and positive anticipated emotion affected desire, which, in turn, influenced the behavioural intention.
Investigating the Role of Prior Knowledge in Tourist Decision Making: A Structural Equation Model of Risk Perceptions and Information Search	Sharifpour, Walters, Ritchie & Winter (2014)	An investigation of the relationships among tourists' risk perceptions and types of their prior knowledge, and past international travel experience. The results indicate that objective knowledge did not significantly reduce or increase the risk associated with travelling, however subjective knowledge had the strongest influence on tourist risk perceptions. Various dimensions of perceived risk may provoke the use of different information sources; prior knowledge also plays a role alongside risk perceptions in determining the information sources used.
Interpretive and Conceptual Frameworks		

Title of study	Author(s)	Focus of study
Consumer Decision-making.	Teare (1994)	Reviewing pre-purchase and post-purchase studies. The main outcome is that product involvement and prior product experience are the core variables of tourism decision-making processes.
Multi-faceted Tourist Travel Decisions: A Constraint-based Conceptual Framework.	Dellaert <i>et al.</i> (1998)	Analysing tourist travel behaviour integrating multi-faceted travel decisions and decision-making constraints. The outcome of the choice is emphasised rather than the structure of tourists' travel decision-making processes.
A refined model of factors affecting convention participation	Zhang, Leung & Qu (2007)	A two-step refinement of conceptual models was performed: firstly, an existing model of Oppermann and Chon (1997) was used as the foundation framework; secondly, a modified model was proposed as the conceptual framework for future study.
Process Studies of Tourists' Decision-Making	Smallman & Moore (2010)	A Review of tourism decision-making paradigms incorporating ontology of decision-making as a process.
Testing the effects of congruity, travel constraints, and self-efficacy on travel intentions: An alternative decision-making model.	Hung & Petrick (2012)	This study applied the Motivation Opportunity Ability (MOA) model to explain travel intentions. Furthermore, this study explored the role of self-congruity, functional congruity, perceived travel constraints, constraint negotiation, and self-efficacy in travel intentions.

Source: Researcher's own compilation

2.2.5.2 Tourism Microeconomic Models

According to Decrop (2006:24), the normative approach of microeconomic models fails to include and rarely questions how and why tourists makes decisions. Decisions according to the microeconomic 'way' are governed by price: the lower the price, the higher the volume of demand and vice versa. These decisions are context free and mostly focus on how tourists should behave, rather than how they are behaving.

Rugg (1973) mainly focusing his efforts on foreign travel, which supports the purpose of this study since South Africa is a long haul destination to most European countries, was the first to include three dimensions, ignored in the past namely:

- The inclusion of a time constraint
- The modification of the budget constraint to include transportation costs
- The modification of the time constraint to include the time costs incurred whilst traveling.

Morley (1992) extended the work of Rugg and incorporated three elements that will add benefit to this particular study, while Papatheodorou (2001) investigated destination choice by focusing on two additional dimensions

- The decision to travel or not (the "no tour option")
- The allocation of time and budget
- The choice of destinations
- Attractions and facilities (Papatheodorou, 2001).

Although the microeconomic models have influenced the theory of predicting tourist and destination choices, some limitations are still evident. Ample variables and constraints that have the possibility to influence an entire decision either to travel or not, or to travel to a different destination are not included in the microeconomic models. Since tourism is an emotional, and experiential product, most characteristics does not necessarily match the economic views of tangible return on investment.

Lastly, the microeconomic models focus on individual tourists, although it cannot be assumed that decisions will be made based on an individual alone. In the modern age group travel has significantly grown in popularity (Decrop, 2006: 28).

2.2.5.3 Tourism Cognitive Models

As stated in the section 2.2.5.2, microeconomic models focused mostly on decisions based on budget and time in order to fulfil specific need. Due to monetary issues, the microeconomic models rely on external factors in essence mostly not within the control of the tourists. Decrop (2006:28) states that cognitive models related to tourism decision-making focuses on socio-psychological variables involved in decision-making. According to Decrop (2006:28), with regards to models focusing on socio-psychological variables, the tourist is no longer passive but actively develops rules and strategies in order to solve the problems in order to satisfy their needs. Perception and information processing becomes an integral part of decision-making.

A. Crompton (1979)

The work of Crompton (1979) focused on developing a conceptual framework and from the data of the empirical research it is evident that the respondent's motives can be conceptualised as being positioned along a cultural and social-psychological disequilibrium continuum. Crompton states that in contrast to previous studies the findings in this particular study suggest that the destination in itself was relatively unimportant and that respondents did not desire to visit a destination to seek cultural insights, but rather for socio-psychological reasons not necessarily related to any specific destination. The destination served merely as a medium through which these motives could be satisfied. Therefore, the socio-psychological motives were not necessarily based on a particular destination choice, but rather unique to a specific individual or group.

The minority in the empirical study did indicate that the destination was a primary motive rather than socio-psychological motives and can be identified as cultural motives. In some cases respondents indicated that there was no socio-psychological satisfactions, but ample cultural benefits. There is no reference in this study of how constraints of a particular destination, might influence the socio-

psychological and cultural motives. In this particular study where both socio-psychological motives as well as the destination will play an integral part in the empirical research, the question therefore still remains: What is the influence of the constraints of a particular destination on the decision-making of the potential tourists?

B. Goodall (1988)

Goodall's first contribution to decision-making and especially for the purpose of this particular study is the distinction made between the holiday selection process and the choice of destination. Whereas the selection process can be described as a sequential and systematic process and involves a potential tourists taking satisficing decisions (based on the demand of the immediate environment, both intrinsic and extrinsic). Secondly, Goodall made strong reference and association between the potential tourist and the implicit and explicit constraints of an uncertain environment.

The final decision to travel is made by the potential tourists when a certain destination exceeds the aspiration level by the greatest amount. In other words, after the needs, desires and motivation have been established by the potential tourists (sequential filtering process, incl. implicit constraints), the final decision purely depends on whether the destination attributes exceeds the explicit constraints of the destination. Tourists vary in terms of their knowledge of a holiday experiences and opportunities gained, but also in terms of the extent to which their choice of holiday destination is a systematic process. Therefore, a behavioural rather than an economic perspective is required in order to fully understand decision-making in tourism. A potential tourist interacts with an environment (behavioural, perceptual and operational elements) which not only determines the holiday opportunities available, but also the motivations and preferences regarding decision-making. Goodall (1988:16) concludes that images influence tourist's destination choices. In addressing the problems faced in tourism with regards to matching demand and supply images in tourism, effectiveness of information rather than exposure to information should be the basis of all tourism promotion.

In theory and principle the work of Goodall supports the questions asked in this study thus far, however the study lacks empirical evidence. Goodall also fail to elaborate on the constraints theory and to which extend the level of constraints whether implicit or explicit might results in a potential tourists to choose another destination or not travel at all. There is also no significant reference between the perceived constraints and the image of the particular destination.

C. Crompton and Colleagues

The critical analysis of this section will include the following studies:

- Attitude Determinants in Tourism Destination Choice – Um and Crompton (1990).
- The Roles of Perceived Inhibitors and Facilitators in Pleasure Travel Destination Choice – Um and Crompton (1992).
- Structure of Vacation Destination Choice Sets – Crompton (1992).
- Choice Set Propositions in Destination Decisions –Crompton and Ankomah (1993).

The above mentioned studies were strongly influenced by Howard and Sheth's (1969) input-output theory, multi-attribute attitude model by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Belk's situational variables.

Um and Crompton's (1990) main contribution to this particular study was the inclusion of perceived situational constraints and preferences towards a potential and alternative destination. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) emphasised the fact that attitude measurement should be based on attitude towards the action, in this case travelling to a destination, rather than the attitude towards the destination. In this particular case the situational constraints refers to time, budget and distance to the destination. Part of the contribution Um and Crompton (1990:436) made to the field of decision-making in tourism, was the empirical part of their research, whereby the deference between attitude scores (the difference between perceived inhibitors and facilitators) in order to take situational constraints into account have been analysed at both evoked and destination selection phases. Um and

Crompton (1990:445), who aimed to identify the role of attitudes in an individual's destination choice process strongly suggested that situational constraints should be an integral part of decision-making frameworks/ models in the tourism literature. Although the majority of decision-making models include destination attributes in their research, they are frequently failing to reflect decision-makers anticipations towards inhibitors in terms of achieving their needs and goals in order to accommodate situational constraints.

Um and Crompton (1992) continues their work from their research in 1990 by conceptualising vacation destination choice as a three-stage sequential decision consisting of the early evoked set, late evoked set and final decision, an evolved version from the two-stage model described by Um and Crompton (1990). This study also aim to describe destination choice as a function of interaction between perceived constraints such as time, money and travebility (distance) and destination image. Crompton's main contribution that is in line with the objectives of this study is the particular focus on destinations not previously visited by potential tourists due to limited knowledge whereas Um and Crompton (1990) mainly focused on individual tourists. Therefore, the image of a specific destination plays a major role in the decision-making process of potential tourists. According to Um and Crompton (1992:24) the operationalization of the awareness set not considered by previous research, will be a breakthrough in the study of tourism decision-making. From this empirical research, two significant hypotheses concerned with identifying the roles of inhibitors/ constraints and facilitators resulted in the following findings:

- During the early stages of selecting a destination, the magnitude of perceived facilitators was a significant indicator, which destinations evolved to a late evoked set.
- During the later stages, the magnitude of inhibitors/ constraints was a significant indicator of destination selection.

According to Um and Crompton (1992:24) these notions are in line with the renowned, Nobel Prize winner – Simon Herbert on his work on 'Satisficing'

behaviour. Simon (1972) stated that choice is a satisfying behaviour that is constraints driven, rather than an optimising behaviour which is attribute driven.

The aim of the study by Crompton (1992) is limited to identifying the combined structure of choice sets that have been conceptualised by earlier studies and considered the implications of these sets. No empirical research was done and no particular reference to constraints and facilitators. Um and Crompton (1992:432) states that the choice structure taxonomy is not an explanatory model, set in stone, but rather an analytical tool that destinations can use to ascertain their strengths and weaknesses at the three different stages of the model. Crompton (1992:427) states that the operational definitions of the choice sets have not been consistent which in return makes comparison to results challenging and open to generalisation. Based on the model presented and discussed by Crompton (1992) in section 2.2.3.8, all the different stages have been carefully operationalised by Um and Crompton (1990).

Similar to the previous studies done by Crompton and colleagues (Um & Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992; Um and Crompton, 1992) that was based on the initial research done by Howard and Sheth (1969), the study of Crompton and Ankomah (1993) reviews similar concepts and principles. Crompton and Ankomah (1993) is suggesting certain choice set propositions on the most generalised choice sets focused on empirically as well theoretically and not only in the tourism field in order to synthesise and guide future research efforts. These sets are the early consideration set, late consideration set and final choice sets. Except for the nine propositions that can be used as a rule of thumb for marketers and researchers in determining where the target group at a particular point in time, no new significance to the objectives of this study can be brought to the Table.

The work of Crompton and colleagues has been crucial in the field of tourism decision-making, and has been the source of numerous studies that followed based on the ground breaking work. According to Decrop (2006:31) these studies are somewhat limited in key variables which in return make it simple and user-friendly especially with empirical studies. However, these studies are partial because only a small portion of variables and relationship are being considered in the decision-making processes. However, the specific reference to constraints will

be valuable for this study, although it cannot be reduced to only situational constraints.

D. Woodside and Lysonski (1989)

Based on the same foundation as the Crompton studies and in line with Um and Crompton's (1992) study, Howard and Sheth (1969) played an integral part in this study. Important variables, not considered by the Crompton studies were added to the work of Woodside and Lysonski (1989).

- Affective associations: specific feelings related to a specific destination.
- Traveller destination preferences: influenced by both destination categorisations and affective associations, and resulting in a ranking of destinations.
- Intentions to visit; perceived likelihood of visiting a particular destination within a specific time frame.

Also similar to the analysis by Decrop (2006:31) towards the work done by Crompton and colleagues, the study of Woodside and Lysonski is limited in key variables considered. No reference to the influence of constraints/ inhibitors was mentioned in this particular study.

E. Moutinho (1987)

Moutinho's model of vacation tourist behaviour is by far the most comprehensive model researched thus far that includes all major variables that intervenes in tourism decision-making. An extensive and somewhat complex framework was developed by Moutinho and at the end of the article simplifies it into behaviour decision-making model that consist of three parts: pre-decision and decision processes, purchase evaluation and repeat-buying probabilities. References to decision-making variables that will add value to the objectives are singling out perceived risks that will impact decision-making such as:

- Functional
- Financial

- Physical
- Social
- Psychological

Specifically the alternate evaluation stage described by Moutinho will also give valuable input with regards the modelling of this research:

- The decision-maker may reject destinations, because there is no incentive to satisfy travel objectives.
- Destinations which are considered to be neutral alternatives may require further information and discussion inputs from other family or friends members.
- Destinations considered after preliminary judgement to be feasible alternatives may require more detailed evaluation.

However, Decrop (2006:39) states that as is the case with most cognitive models, the work of Moutinho (1987) also lack empirical evidence, simplicity and the formulation of a precise research hypothesis. Further it will be important in mentioning that the model take most of the decision-making sub-decisions into account, but do not describe nor explain how the sub-decisions are related.

2.2.5.4 Tourism Interpretive and Conceptual Frameworks

After a substantial number of studies have been focusing on a cognitive approach to decision-making (discussed in the previous section), Decrop (2006:39) states that this view have been challenged by new, lean and postmodern frameworks of decision-making. Based on the principles that decision-making is a formalised, multistage process, interpretive frameworks support a naturalistic and experiential approach on tourist behaviour. Alternative sets of propositions that include variables not taken into account in the previous models will therefore be considered in the following sections.

A. Teare (1994)

Based on the work of Moutinho (1987), Teare (1994) made an effort towards a more interpretive and conceptual framework of pre-purchase and purchase research in decision –making. Specific emphasis is placed on prior product experience and product importance. Based on the findings that prior product experience and product involvement lie at the core of decision-making process, Teare (1994: 63) summarises their potential explanatory value in six research propositions:

Decrop (2006:42) states that the framework proposed by Teare (1994) results in alternative sets of propositions with variables not previously considered in tourism decision-making research. However, the only reference to constraints, inhibitors or risks was linked to the two interrelated variables mentioned above. The tendency of consumers with limited prior experience to engage in high-involvement decision-making is related to perceived risk, and limited personal confidence in product class decision-making ability. Clear definitions of vacation or tourist product and its attributes and constraints lacks where the only reference to either of the above mentioned are accommodation.

B. Dellaert et al. (1998)

According to Dellaert *et al.* (1998:313), Tourism decision-making are multi-faceted decisions made sequential, over a period of time and confronted by constraints to overcome. Dellaert *et al.* introduces a conceptual framework that allows one to analyse tourist behaviour that includes these multi-faceted decisions as well as the relevant decision-making constraints.

Based on the limitations described in the conceptual models, the work of Dellaert *et al.* (1998) is a step in the right directions. Variables noted as important in the previous studies such socio-psychological variables, destination choice structures, initiation of the first idea information search, and the final decision taken, were not excluded in this study. However, key variables such as accommodation choice, choice of companions, mode choice, choice of travel and duration of the trip were included in this model that was not particularly reviewed in the previous studies. It is also the first model reviewed thus far that includes and defines the different

constraints as an integral part of the model. Dellaert *et al.* (1998:315) state that in previous studies, constraints have been recognised, most studies to date is limited in how it deals with the general concept of constraints.

The critical analysis of the decision-making models was discussed in this section. This analysis will provide critical context and capacity in order to firstly be able to ask the right questions to the target population by means of a questionnaire and secondly to be able to develop a model that can contribute to the field of tourism and tourism marketers in terms of the influence of certain constraints in the decision-making process of tourists. In the next section, the different types of constraints as well as constraints theory will be critically analysed.

2.3 CONSTRAINTS ANALYSES

According to Schmierer and Jackson (2006:64) the increase impact of public liability has become significant in tourism decision-making. An understanding of the constraints facing consumers can help transform potential demand into purchase decisions (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999:28). Hsu and Kang (2009:707) define a constraint as “An external barrier that may prevent or limit people from traveling or selecting particular tourism products/ services”). Chen *et al.* (2013:199) define constraints as influences that restrict development of tourism and limit the tourism destination development. When perceived constraints are removed, individuals are more likely to consider the destination and finally travel to that destination. Removing perceived constraints would enhance the competitiveness of tourism destinations. Furthermore, deciding where to travel might depend heavily on the image of the destination (Stepchenkova & Eales, 2011; Tasci & Gartner, 2007; Dellaert *et al.* (1998:315) state that in previous studies, constraints have been recognised, most studies to date is limited in how it deals with the general concept of constraints. These constraints determine restrictions to the set of possible alternatives from which tourists can choose their travel options. Constraint factors are also likely to be detrimental rather than attributes of benefits (Um & Crompton, 1999).

According to Hudson and Gilbert (1999:69) previous models of consumer and tourism behaviour have neglected the constraints on participation, especially the non-user and their associated constraints. Therefore, the tourism industry should not

only seek to understand decision-making processes, but should attempt to comprehend the range of constraints preventing non-tourists from becoming tourists. In context of this study, it would be trying to understand the range of constraints preventing tourists and non-tourists from visiting South Africa. According to Hudson and Gilbert (1999:70) consumer and tourism behaviour models have failed in the past regarding the following:

- Ignored people with a lack of motivation.
- Models and typologies do not include the non-participant and/ or non-users.
- Models do not take into account the full range of constraints facing decision-making processes in tourism.
- Models assume that purchase is the outcome and there is no reference to the negotiation of constraints.

Constraints can be seen as barriers that prevent consumers from purchasing tourism products and can broadly be categorised in the following categories namely, budget and monetary constraints, time constraints, crime, political unrest and terrorism, natural and human-caused disasters, physical and cognitive distance and perceptions (Buhalis & Darcy, 2010:55). Individual constraints can be defined in terms of three characteristics such as capacity constraints, coupling constraints and authority constraints (Müller & Ulrich, 2007:87; Dellaert *et al.*, 1998:315).

- Authority constraints refer to constraints imposed by law. These constraints are the outcome of societal contracts creating a certain common set of rules that apply to a large number of individuals.
- Coupling constraints, these are constraints originating from limitations faced by household members, friends and colleagues.
- Capacity constraints, these are constraints caused by the availability of travel options and money resources. Also referred to as the individual's physical ability to do things for.

This section of the chapter will focus on constraints by firstly looking at theories with regards to constraints apart from the theories already discussed in the previous section. Secondly, all the different constraints identified as relevant for the study will be defined and researched in the context of South African tourism.

2.3.1 Theories of Constraints

Despite the potential applications of leisure constraints theory in studying travel behaviour, only a few articles have used the theory in a tourism context (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008:433). Some emerging studies in the field of leisure research contributed to constraints theory (Hudson & Gilbert, 1999:71). Some of the major breakthrough studies concluded the following subjects:

- Ceasing Participation (Jackson & Dunn, 1988; McGuire, Yeh, O'Leary, & Dottavio, 1989; Boothby, Tungatt & Townsend, 1981; Chick & Roberts, 1989; Robinson & Carron, 1982; Backman & Crompton, 1990)
- Classification for constraints facing non-participants (Jackson, 1988; Haukeland, 1990; Searle & Jackson, 1985; Romsa & Hoffman, 1980; Davies & Prentice, 1995)
- Constraints Negotiation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Crawford, Jackson & Godbey, 1991; Jackson, Crawford & Godbey, 1993)

Of these studies, only the work of Davies and Prentice (1995), Crawford *et al.* (1991) as well as Hudson and Gilbert (1999) are indirectly or directly viable in terms of tourism. Because of the limitations described above, the first section of will be contributed to the work of Herbert Simon in the field economic and behavioural science decision making for some context after which the studies mentioned above that's specifically related to tourism and leisure will be researched thoroughly.

2.3.1.1 Theories of Bounded Rationality

Simon (1972:161) states that rationality refers to behaviour concerned with achievement of certain goals, within the limits of certain conditions and constraints. Behaviour economics suggest that the well-known theory of demand and costs is applicable to this subject. In other words, the value of demand must be more than

the value of costs to make the specific decision, a good decision (with regards to economics a good decision would mean profit). With regards to constraints Simon (1972:163) poses that constraints and risk can be introduced in either or both the demand and cost functions i.e. the value one obtain from the decision must be more than the risk or alternatively the risk imposed in the decision must be less than the value one obtain from the decision. Simon further uses the example that certain parameters of one or both of these functions can be random variables with known distributions. The person involved therefore has perfect knowledge of the distributions (difference in value vs constraints). Secondly, another way in which rationality can be described is that the person only has incomplete information about alternatives. The task of the person is therefore to find alternatives to maximise the value obtained. Lastly, Simon (1972:164) describes that rationality can also be bound by assuming complexity in the cost function or other environmental constraints to the extent that it prevents the person to calculate the best decision or course of action.

Another principle Simon introduced is the Scottish word 'Satisficng'. The word has been derived to signify problem solving and decision-making that sets an aspiration level. The aspiration levels refer to the motivation, desire, optimisation or objective to search until an alternative is found that is acceptable according to the aspiration levels criteria and then the selection of alternatives follows. The existence of a satisfactory alternative is realised by turning aspirations into reality through information about the immediate environment.

The work of Simon is definitely applicable to decision-making as well as constraints related to decision-making. Simple as it may sound the work of Simon can be directly be applied to the study as follows:

- A person will decide to travel to a destination of the demand (Aspirations, motivations) is more than the value of the costs (inhibitions, constraints).
- Potential tourists might be under the assumption that he/she has full knowledge of value of the propositions or due to a lack of information about alternatives.

- Satisficing in context of tourism will therefore refer to a potential tourists either find alternative destinations to maximise perceived value or if the constraints are too great the tourists might considering not to travel at all.

Considering the context provided in this section, the following section will focus specifically on the constraints theory relevant to the subjects of tourism and leisure.

2.3.1.2 A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints

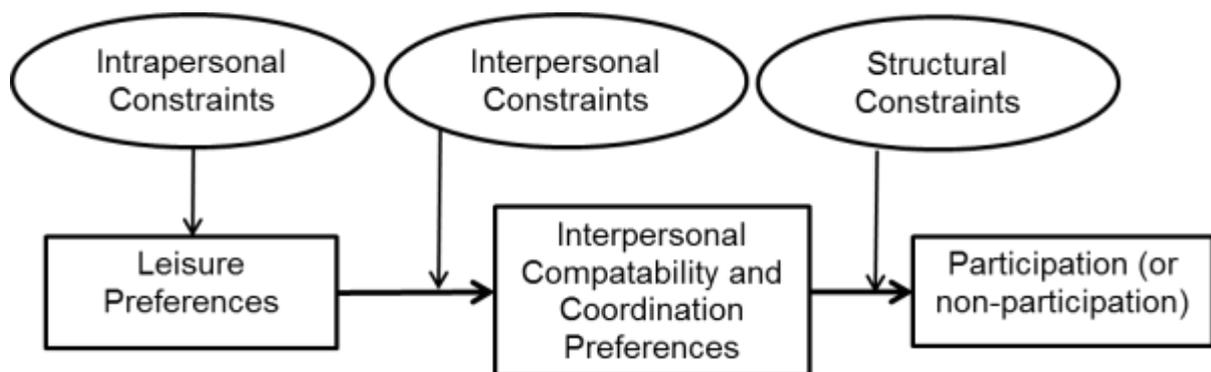


Figure 2.16: A Hierarchical model of leisure constraints

Source: Crawford *et al.* (1991)

Crawford *et al.* (1991) present a model indicated in Figure 2.16 that contains a clearly defined hierarchy of constraints. The hierarchy starts with constraints affected by preferences, leading to constraints that effect participation.

In order for an individual to face the succeeding level of constraints, each level of constraints must to be overcome. The first level of constraints is intrapersonal that involve individual psychological states and attributes which interacts with preferences rather than intervening between participation and preferences i.e. stress, depression, anxiety.

Leisure preferences are formed based on the negotiation or absence of intrapersonal constraints. Interpersonal constraints transpire based on the interaction between individual's characteristics i.e. when an individual fail to find a partner or friends to participate with. Once the former and latter constraints have been overcome an individual might face structural constraints such as economic barriers, availability of time, access and opportunity. Therefore, structural constraints can be defined as the intervening factors between preferences and participation.

As discovered in the decision-making models in the previous sections of this chapter it is the structural constraints that were mostly referred to with regards to tourism. However, although this study is focussing on leisure participation it is evident from the examples above that the model can be applied to tourism principles.

2.3.1.3 Tourism Constraints: The Neglected Dimension in Consumer Behaviour Research

Despite the growing body of literature related to leisure constraints, studies with regards to consumer behaviour, especially in the field of tourism is somewhat limited (Hudson & Gilbert, 1999:69). In this section Hudson and Gilbert’s main objective was to operationalize the model proposed by Crawford *et al.* discussed in the previous section. Although the constraints analysis was done on skiing, much can be learned and used to apply for the purpose of this study. In order to develop the model a list of 30 constraints was developed from in-depth interviews and focus groups as indicated in Figure 2.17.

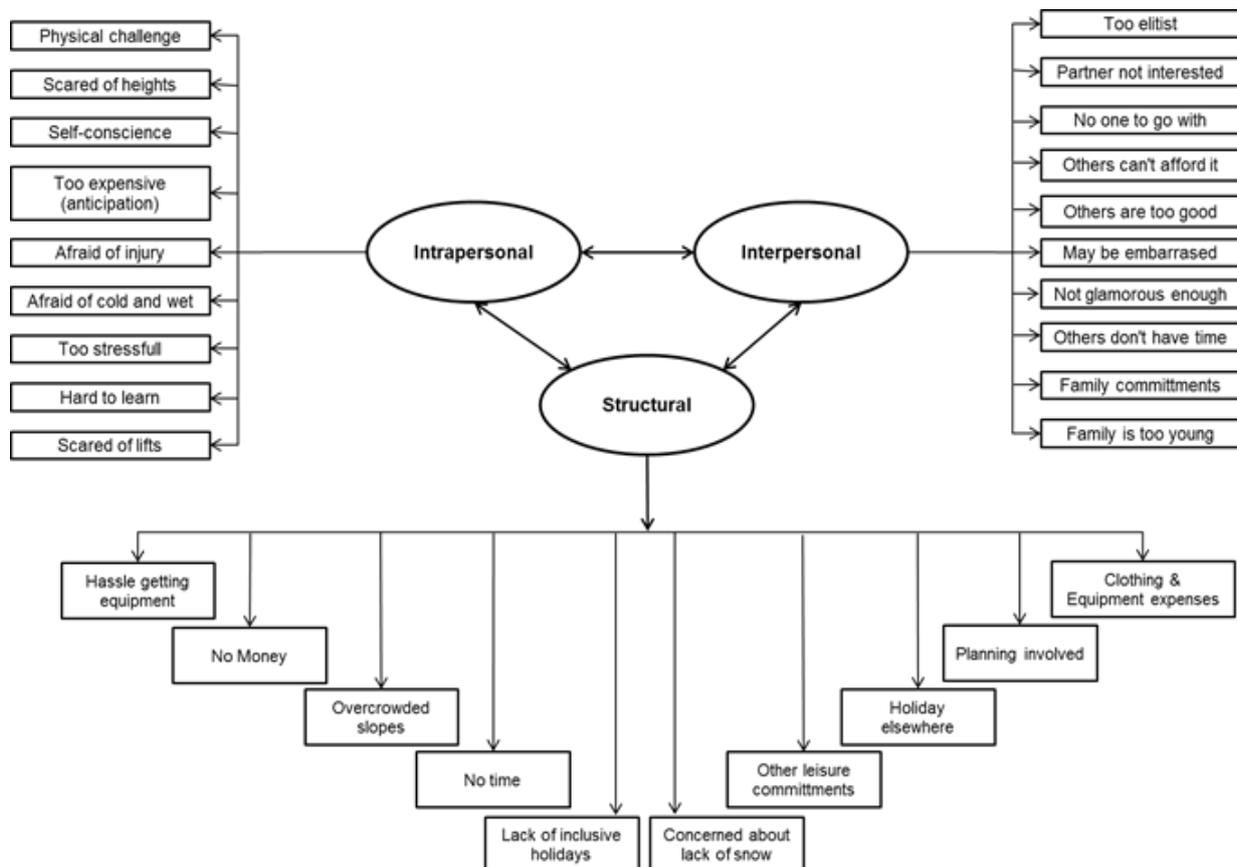


Figure 2.17: Constraints to skiing participation
Source: Hudson and Gilbert (1999:75)

According to Hudson and Gilbert (1999:75) one of the most important findings from the research is that different constraints inhibits participants and non-participants and therefore different strategies and marketing efforts will be needed to increase participation. For example the strategy used for non-participants to change their preconceived ideas regarding skiing would be education which includes information through advertising. While the fear of heights, lack of desire for physical challenge or being afraid of learning of a new sport might persist, however the main decision to ski or not to ski is income based.

For existing skiers promotion should focus on the emotional benefits and well-being of the sport even though skiing is an expensive activity. Hudson and Gilbert (1999:76) state that the studies in leisure constraints are abundant and tourism constraint theories are limited, however long term success in tourism organisations would depend on converting non-users into users and therefore more focus on constraint theory in tourism would be important.

2.3.1.4 Conceptualizing the latent visitor to heritage attractions

The research of Davies and Prentice (1995) focuses on the demand of tourists to museums and heritage sites. Although the majority of inputs were aimed at museums and heritage sites, in principle the authors agree with previous authors regarding the following:

- Recent tourism and leisure research mostly focused exclusively on visitors and are inadequate to the application of non-consumers/ non-visitors.
- Lack of time and money barriers usually are excuses for non-participation and do not reveal the real constraints.

Based on the insufficient past research into motivations and constraints, Davies and Prentice (1995:493) identified three aspects of non-visiting behaviour as displayed in Figure 2.14.

1. Behaviour: participation and non-participation of leisure and tourism activities.
2. Motives: positive and negative motives for leisure and tourism participation.

3. Reaction to constraints: whether constraints are perceived and whether they can be overcome.

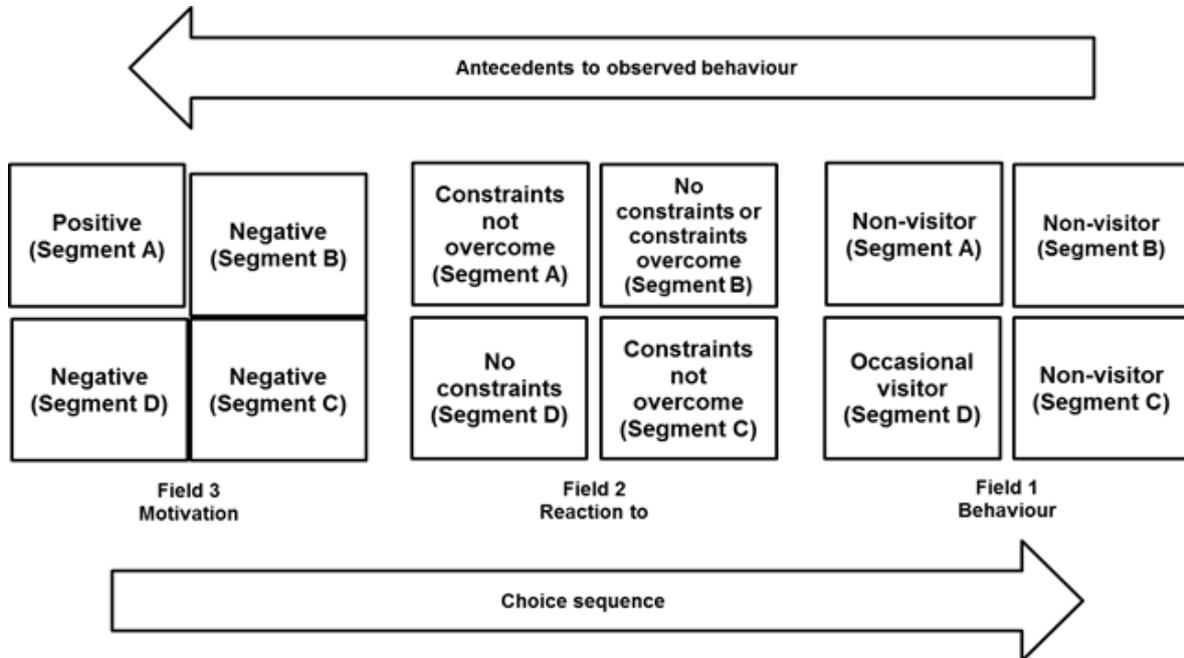


Figure 2.18: The latent visitor to heritage sites

Source: Davies and Prentice (1995:494)

The model illustrated in Figure 2.18 depicts each field as a layer of a three dimensional cube. These three levels imply refining generic categories of non-visitors and occasional visitors on measures of both their motivations and constraints. Crucial for a research agenda addressing the non-visitor is to understand the relationship between motivations and constraints and whether positive and negative motivations can increase or decrease the effects of constraints and vice versa. Therefore describing segment A of the three different fields as a non-visitors who have positive motivation towards visiting a destination but experience constraints they cannot overcome. Segment B represents non-visitors who hold negative motivations towards visiting a destination but who either does not perceive constraints or are able to overcome them. Segment C describes non-visiting behaviour where negative motivations towards visiting a particular destination are compounded with perceived constraints which individuals are unable to overcome. Segment D portrays potential tourists/ visitors to a destination who have negative

motivations towards visiting and because they do not perceive constraints do visit infrequently. The model does not suggest that individuals are rational in their leisure and tourism choices but rather represents the choice process of non-visiting and occasional visiting behaviour.

A. Field 1: Behaviour

Behaviour is the easiest of the three fields to observe and therefore needs the least attention. According to Davies and Prentice (1995:495), the behaviour of non-visitors can be categorised into two groups: those individuals who would like to participate but are constrained financially or socially; and those individuals able and willing to participate but for whom constraints such as lack of facilities or knowledge prevent participation. Both of the above mentioned scenarios assume positive motivation is suppressed by intervening constraints.

B. Field 2: Reaction to constraints

Davies and Prentice (1995:495) state that constraints not only affect participation but also enjoyment, satisfaction, continuing participation and increases in participation. It would be important to differentiate between barriers to participation and constraints limiting participation and those leading to ceasing participation, thereby suggesting that constrained leisure and tourism is not an internally homogeneous concept. The model as identified in Figure 2.14 refers to constraints that inhibit individuals who have never visited, constraints inhibiting former visitors, constraints perceived and overcome by infrequent visitors and how these constraints differ. Davies and Prentice (1995:496) characterised constraints as multidimensional:

- How they vary across a number of leisure and tourism activities.
- Their influence at a number of points in the decision-making process.
- Their ability to reduce the number of available alternatives when encountered at each stage of the decision-making process.

Both intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints determine preferences; however, interpersonal constraints intervene between preferences and participation, as do structural constraints.

C. Field 3: Motivation

According to Davies and Prentice (1995:496) the strength of an individual's tendency to visit (not to visit) a particular destination depends upon the strength of the expectation that visiting will be followed by consequences valued or not by the individual. Therefore, visiting destinations results in experiences and benefits, which individuals value positively or negatively, depending on the perceived ability of these to fulfil specific needs, and motivation to visit these destinations, can be defined as either positive or negative. Positive motivation results from the belief that expected valued consequences (experiences and benefits) will satisfy needs. On the other hand, negative motivation ensues when no match exists between consequences perceived in heritage visiting and individual's needs. Lack of interest is one example of negative motivation.

Davies and Prentice (1995:498) conclude their work by stating that by understanding the hierarchical nature of leisure and tourism motives and constraints and evaluating whether these are activity specific or general, the model (Figure 2.14) offers both a potential means of assessing the substitutability of experiences for other leisure and tourism activities and exploring whether and how non-visiting behaviour varies by attraction type.

In the following sections, the type of constraints relevant to the purpose of this study will be defined and discussed in detail with particular reference to the current situation of these constraints in South Africa.

2.3.2 Types of Constraints

According to Reisinger and Movondu (2006), five major risks associated with tourism can be identified with both an absolute (real) and perceived (subjective) risk. Chen *et al.* (2013:199) identified major constraints affecting travel. Through excessive research of various individual studies, Appendix C indicates a list of all possible

constraints influencing travel decision-making in South Africa. For the purpose of this study, the main focus will be on the constraints identified in Addendum 2.

2.3.2.1 Crime and Perceptions of Crime

Botterill and Jones (2010:12) crime at the basic level can be defined as an infraction of law. However, crime is not a concrete or universal category and has different meanings at different times and places. The concept of 'fear of crime' can be defined as public concerns and worries about becoming a victim of crime, perceptions of the risk of victimisation and precautionary behaviour for example avoiding certain situations and places (Shelby, Shelby & Botterill, 2010:198). Shelby *et al.* (2010:186) further state that place or destination image plays a significant role in consumer decision-making.

Crime in tourism can be distinguished into two categories: tourists as victims (Mawby, 2010a; Mawby 2010b; Brunt, 2010) and tourists as offenders (Tarlow, 2006; Montgomery, 2010; Shiner, 2010; Bott, 2010). Tarlow (2006:96) states that crime are not necessarily crimes committed against tourists. As is often the case, tourists may be the one responsible for the crimes committed and may commit crime against a tourism site or personnel. For the purpose of this study the main focus will remain on crime against tourists and victimisation of tourists.

Tarlow (2006:97) states that tourists or visitors to destinations are often extremely vulnerable to be victimised by crime or to become crime perpetrators for the following reasons:

- Tourists often leave their common sense at home. The tendency to leave all your worries at home.
- Tourists are easy identifiable. Tourists often fail to blend in with local cultures.
- Tourists are often in a state of anomie due to jetlag, unfamiliarity to the geographical environment, currency and local language.
- Tourists often let go of their inhibitions when they travel. Tourists tend to do abnormal things; they would not normally do at home for example experimentation with drugs or sexual.

- Stress-related issues.
- Time constraints. Time is a very valuable asset for a tourist and losing time results in stress causing them to lose their inhibitions, common sense or state of anomie making them extremely vulnerable targets to crime.

Substantive research and evidence exists on destination image and how it can affect the decision-making process of potential tourists, as well as satisfaction/dissatisfaction resulting from experience a number of scholars argues that crime and safety problems at a tourist destination have an impact on tourism demand (Sönmez, 1998; Law, 2006; Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007; Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009, Selby *et al.*, 2010). While decisions are mainly based on image rather than facts or first hand experiences, it is evident that the facts exist with regards to the current situation in South Africa.

According to Starmer-Smith, Marthinus van Schalkwyk, former South African minister of travel and tourism admitted that according to government research more than a third potential tourists had cited crime and safety concerns as a reason for not visiting South Africa. According to Starmer-Smith (2008), South African authorities were hoping to achieve a drop in crime in the 12 months ending in March 2008 of between seven and ten per cent. Instead, figures show that murders increased by 2.4 per cent (to 19,202), bank robberies by 118 per cent, residential robberies by 24 per cent, car hijackings by 6 %, drug-related crimes by 8.2 % and commercial crimes by 12.6 %. The number of rapes (52,617) and attempted murders (20,142) decreased. According to Smith (2009) the latest statistics available before the start of the 2010 world cup showed that that 2.1million serious crimes were recorded. Violent crime in general was down 2.8%, but the overall crime level rose by 0.2%. While, the murder rate fell by 3%, this still represented 18,148 killings a year, one of the worst rates in the world. Street robbery was also down, by 7%, and common assault by 4%. Sexual offences rose by 10%, which the government partly attributes to the inclusion of attacks on men for the first time. Starmer- Smith (2008) states that no figures were available on the number of foreign tourists involved in the crime statistics and that Mr van Schalkwyk admitted that separate breakdown of crimes against tourists will help change perceptions that South Africa is not safe.

According to Selby *et al.* (2010:193), in the context of the situation of South Africa with reference to the soccer world cup it is possible to recognise the discourse in the mass media relating to the crime in South Africa and this might have a great influence on the perceptions of people about South Africa. The media frequently sensationalise and shock by excessively reporting on crime, almost as if an obsession exists with crime within the mass media. When crime in exotic and distant destinations is reported on, the events become even greater. Image formation is also affected by advice from family and friends, television programmes, travel reviews and newspaper articles. Despite the unimpressive crime statistics in South Africa, positive perceptions about safety increased from 32% to 55% and negative perceptions decreased from 35% to 14%.

George and Swart (2013:56) did a study on perceptions of crime and future intentions to revisit South Africa during the 2010 FIFA world cup. From the research eighty-one per cent of the 398 respondents visited South Africa for the first time. A vast majority (90%) of the respondents were aware of the high crime rates in South Africa. The majority of respondents felt that South Africa was a safe destination to visit (64%), although it must be added that twenty-five per cent was neutral in answering the specific question. While ninety-one per cent of the respondents have not witnessed or experienced crime whilst in South Africa and the majority (79%) felt safe walking down the streets. Lastly, 51% of the respondents revealed that they were not worried about their safety. George and Swart (2013:54) state that respondents gave mainly positive responses to the items related to likelihood to recommend and return to South Africa. Ninety-two per cent of respondents were likely to recommend South Africa as a tourism destination. Further research by Donaldson and Ferreira (2007:362) indicates that the conception or perception about general safety and security in South Africa before they travelled to the country; 37 respondents stated that they were worried about travelling to South Africa, whereas most indicated neutral sentiments (39 per cent). Twenty-three per cent indicated that they are not worried. Of the three main source markets, it is the Americans who are worried most (38 per cent), followed by visitors from the UK (28 per cent) and Germany (25 per cent). When asked to compare other tourism destinations, most visitors (56 per cent) indicated that they were not running a bigger

security risk by planning a trip to South Africa and did not consider the country to be more unsafe than other parts of the world.

As with the case in South Africa one might argue that the crime has or has not a major influence in the decision-making process of potential tourists. Mass media on the one hand magnify the danger of crime at destinations with supporting statistics being evident. On the other hand, tourists' fear might well be justified given evidence from published research of high crime rates in tourist areas and the higher probability of tourists to become victims of crime. Destinations rely heavily on positive images. Donaldson and Ferreira (2007:355) state that safety and security are important purchase criteria for South Africa's target consumers in all its core markets. Unless radical improvement can be quantified, South Africa's image as a tourist destination will deteriorate further and many tourists who might have visited South Africa will choose other destinations perceived as safer.

The issue of crime is a major potential constraint especially with reference to South Africa as a desirable destination and will form part of the empirical research done in this study.

2.3.2.2 Political Unrest

Ritchie (2009:36) and Mansfield and Pizam (2006:28) state that political stability and political relations is extremely important in determining the image of destinations in tourist-generating regions as well as the real and perceived safety of tourists. Nieman, Visser and Van Wyk (2008:285) argue that tourism depends mainly on the quality of a destination's resources and its political stability Political unrest refers to examples of protests, violence, civil and international wars, as well as political coups. Tourists can be direct or indirect victims of political instability and unrest. Further can tourists also are part of short term objective to gain money to fund terrorist activities. Longer terms political instability can also have an impact on tourism demand and travel flows. Mansfield and Pizam (2006:28) support the statements made by Ritchie by referring to terrorism and civil unrest as being the cause of many crises since the beginning of modern tourism in the late 1950s. Mansfield and Pizam further state that civil unrest is more confined to specific destinations and the frequency is much lower than terrorism. Mansfield and Pizam (2006:141) define a political situation as:

- Restrictions on undertaking certain religious activities, including preaching and distributing religious materials;
- Regulations against any public demonstrations that do not have prior approval from authorities.
- Disturbances motivated by political, racial, ethnic, or religious conflicts, which can lead to social disorder and instability.

Based on the definition of Pizam and Mansfield (2006:141), political, labour or social strikes can also have an impact on tourism of a particular destination. Some most recent examples of where strikes have had an impact on the tourism of a destination are listed below;

- Egyptian crisis strikes – 2013 (World Bulletin: 2013)
- Greece riots, strikes, social upheaval and political unrest from 2011- 2013 (Smith, 2013)
- Canadian tourism and education industry strikes – 2013 (Keung: 2013)

According to Bond and Mottair (2013:290), the various reasons for protest in South Africa include local complaints over lack of water, sanitation, electricity, housing and infrastructure in general, lack of response by local authorities, billing issues, the lack of employment and business opportunities and high crime rates. According to Petrus and Isaacs-Martin (2011:49) and Bond and Mottair (2013:284) strikes and protest action is not a new phenomenon in South Africa. Even after the Apartheid regime ended in 1994, violent strikes and protests have continued on various levels of South African society. Petrus and Isaacs-Martin (2011:50), even describe these frequent events in South Africa as a 'strike and protest culture' which in most cases includes acts of violence and the notions of 'scapegoating'. Anon (2012) published a summary of all the mining strikes occurring in 2012 (Table 2.4) which includes the massacre at Marikana mine in North-West Province. Bond and Mottair (2013:291) state that, in sum, thousands of unstoppable service-delivery protests have occurred each year.

Table 2.3: Mining strikes in 2012

Anglo American Platinum Ltd	
March, 2012	A legally protected one-month wage strike involving 3,000 workers at its Modikwa mine.
August, 2012	The world's largest platinum miner receives a range of demands directly from workers rather than via union representatives.
Impala Platinum Holdings Ltd	
February, 2012	An unprotected six-week strike over wages and working conditions resulted in three deaths and an estimated 120,000oz in lost production for the world's second-largest platinum producer.
May 2012	Further disturbances result in a fourth person being killed.
Lonmin plc	
August, 2012	More than 40 people were killed in clashes among workers and police at the company's Marikana mine. The world's third-largest producer said it was losing output and could face difficulties meeting debt commitments.
Aquarius Platinum Ltd	
August, 2012	The company was forced to suspend part of its Kroondal mine after unidentified assailants killed three workers and injured a further 20.
Royal Bafokeng Platinum	
August, 2012	The mid-tier producer said around 500 employees have interrupted operations at its North shaft due to unprotected industrial action.
Eastern Platinum Ltd	
May–June, 2012	Work suspended on its Maresburg open-pit mine and concentrator project and major development at its Crocodile mine is ceased. The firm said: "We see no merit in depleting the deposit and financial resources of the company until economic and operating conditions improve."

Source: Anon (2012:19648)

The Business Monitor report (2014: 7) on the financial prospect of South Africa in 2014 and the mere future concludes that many issues threaten South Africa's political stability over the long term, not least the inequalities still stemming from the apartheid era. The question therefore remains how this form of political unrest influences the tourism industry in South Africa and specifically the perceived constraints and risk for potential tourists to South Africa. In the following section, the health risks will be considered as a travel constraint.

2.3.2.3 Health Risks and Epidemic Disasters

The first pandemic of the 21st century, Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS), had caused 774 deaths in 26 countries on five continents within months (Wilder-Smith, 2006:53). Amongst the first primarily affected in the early stages of the outbreak, were travellers. The outbreak of SARS created international anxiety because of its ease of transmission and the speed of its spread through jet travel, causing a significant impact on the travel and tourism industry. International tourism arrivals decreased by 1.2% to 694 million in 2003 according to the World Tourism Organization (WTO) statistics. Major economic losses due to the outbreak, especially for China and Beijing calculated at 11 billion Yuan (US\$ 1.3 billion) in the five months of 2003 (Wilder-Smith, 2006:55). Psychological as well as political impacts together with travel restrictions have limited international travel in 2003 exceeding the limitations to SARS-hit areas (Wilder-Smith, 2006:55). On the international scene South Africa was one of the few countries showing a positive growth in tourist's numbers while the international market had shown a contraction of 2% in 2003. This was amidst the time of the American war against terrorism in Iraq and the SARS outbreak. However according to South Africa (2003:44) and Nieman *et al.* (2008:293) the perception of HIV/AIDS and the safety and security of South Africa has a negative impact on the development of tourism in South Africa.

The second significant outbreak in this century is the Ebola outbreak. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2015), Ebola has so far led to the deaths of more than 6,000 people in Liberia, Guinea, Sierra Leone, Nigeria, Mali and the US; the total number of reported cases is in excess of 15,000. According to the South African Update (2014), a recent downturn in the tourism growth in South Africa has been witnessed in the industry mainly due to the fear of the Ebola outbreak rather

than the outbreak itself. According to News24 (2015), holiday bookings across eastern and southern Africa decrease by as much as 70% since the Ebola outbreak on the continent. However, there has yet to be a case of Ebola reported in Sub Saharan Africa and the indication by experts is that the current fears are injudicious since it is more than 3,000 miles from the infected areas in West Africa to East Africa, and even further to Southern Africa.

Van Dyk (2012:5) defines AIDS (Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome) as an acquired disease cause by a virus (the human immunodeficiency virus or HIV) that enters the body externally. HIV destroys the body's ability to fight infectious disease. This fatal disease can ultimately lead to death. According to Van Dyk, the first documented case of AIDS in South Africa was recorded in 1983. The Aids epidemic grew from less than ten million people being infected world-wide in 1990 to about 33.3 million in 2010 (Van Dyk, 2012:7). Southern Africa remains the area most heavily affected by the epidemic. South Africa constitutes of 16.9% of the total prevalence of Aids in the world, is also the country with the largest population of people living with HIV in the world, namely 5.7 million, and contributes to about 17% of the global number of HIV infections. According to Fourie (2006:1) South Africa had 1.1 million Aids orphans by December 2003 and the life expectancy in South Africa has fallen from 68.2 years in 1998 to 48 years in 2010 mainly as a result from AIDS. Anon (2012:3) states that 31% of all deaths in South Africa is AIDS related. According to the study done by the South African Institute of Race Relations, by 2025 there will be 125% more deaths due to AIDS.

Although these statistics paints a dark picture for Southern Africa, Van Dyk states that South Africa has one of the world's largest antiretroviral programmes in the world in 2011 with a 50% coverage South Africa is further on the forefront of biomedical research to prevent HIV infection. Apart from HIV/ AIDS, Leggat (2006:27) defines two major infectious and hazardous diseases that can be obtained while travelling to Africa in general:

➤ **Vector-Borne Diseases**

Vector-borne diseases remain one of the great personal concerns for travellers abroad. Malaria is the single most dangerous vector borne diseases, although

arboviral diseases are becoming more important when it comes to travel related health problems.

- Malaria: Malaria is caused by a protozoan parasite carried by mosquitoes in mainly tropical areas. According to the WHO (2015) over 300 million malaria cases and 2.5 million deaths were reported worldwide. Most death cases due to infection with plasmodium falciparum species of malaria.
- Ebola: Ebola virus disease (EVD), formerly known as Ebola haemorrhagic fever, is a severe, often fatal illness in humans caused by the transmittance from wild animals to people. The Ebola virus spread through human-to-human transmission via direct contact with the blood, secretions, organs or other bodily fluids of infected people, and with surfaces and materials. There are currently no Ebola vaccines, although the World Health Organisation is working hard on possible vaccines (WHO, 2015).
- Arboviral diseases include diseases like yellow fever and dengue vectors carried by infectious mosquitoes carrying *Aedes aegypti*. Two thirds of the world population lives in areas infected these mentioned diseases (Leggat, 2006:28).

According to the LSDI Malaria Control Program, malaria has hampered the development and growth of tourism as the fear of contracting malaria is a major deterrent to many tourists. According to Maartens, Sharp, Curtis, Mthembu and Hatting (2007:96) South Africa encompass the southernmost distribution of malaria in Africa. During the start of the 20th century, malaria was more widely spread in South Africa than today. Sustained resource-intensive malaria control measures were put in place in the 1940s and were successful in confining unstable malaria transmission to only three of the nine provinces in South Africa. According to the research done by Maarten *et al.* it was clear that the perceived risk of malaria influences the tourism industry in northern KwaZulu-Natal. Natal. Fifty three per cent of interviewed tourist facilities recorded cancellations specifically due to malaria in the 1999/2000 malaria season. Only 9% of the same tourist facilities recorded cancellations due to malaria in the 2002/2003 malaria

season, which is a significant reduction in malaria-related cancellations (Maartens *et al.*, 2007:100). The decreases cancellation can be ascribed to improved awareness of visitors to the area. Malaria updates and prophylaxis advice booklets have been distributed to inform tourism authorities, tourists, and tourist facility operators of the malaria reductions in the province. Maartens *et al.*, (2007:102) further state that malaria risk reporting in the international media is far more irregular due to the malaria-free status of most first-world countries.

➤ **Prevention of Infectious diseases through Vaccination**

According to Leggat (2006:29) quite a number of diseases can be prevented by immunisation. Mandatory vaccines like yellow fever, meningococcal meningitis and Hepatitis A and B is required for all travellers entering or returning from an endemic area. Standard malaria-preventative measures are considered as pre-travel health planning for travellers based on disease patterns and based on policy guidelines. All the national and provincial information centres and websites provide potential tourists with the basic information needed for Vector-born disease.

Although the tourism industry is facing turbulent times in terms of health and safety, ultimately tourists themselves are responsible for their own health; local communities including the local health facilities can and should play a major role in accident prevention (Schmierer & Jackson, 2006:72). Pearce (2011:76) states that there are two dimensions when it comes to health and tourism; one describing level of risk and one defining the tourist's degree of responsibility. According to Schmierer and Jackson (2006:72) potential health risks to tourists are well documented and countless ways to eliminate risks/constraints/inhibitors exist. HIV and Malaria in South Africa currently are and will remain major contributors of perceived and real constraints/inhibitors for international tourists and will therefore form an integral part of the empirical study.

2.3.2.4 Tourism Crises (Natural & Economic)

According to the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR, 2004) a disaster is a serious disruption of social or community functions where losses (human, economic, material or environmental) are substantial, and where the ability

of the country or region to cope is limited. According to Ritchie (2009:7), a crisis describes a situation where the root cause of an event is to an extent self-inflicted because of incompetent management structures and practices or a failure to adapt to change. The difference between disasters and crisis is the extent to which the situation is due to actions from within an organisation itself or originating from outside the organisation (Ritchie, 2009:7; Beirman, 2003:4).

To be termed and captured on the database of the OFDA/CRED International Disasters Database (EM-DAT) at least one of the following criteria must be fulfilled:

- 10 or more people reported killed
- 100 people reported affected
- Declaration of a state emergency
- A call for international assistance.

Ritchie (2009:28) defines three specific types of crises and/or disasters:

A. Natural and physical disasters

Natural disasters are a specific type of disaster defined according as the name indicates Specht (2006:125). In recent years tsunamis were the major cause of a call for international assistance. According to Rittichainuwat (2013:112) a tsunami is a large and very powerful series of ocean waves caused by underwater disturbances such as an earthquake, a volcanic eruption, or a landslide. The underwater disturbances cause sudden vertical changes in the seafloor which, in turn, cause a large volume of water to be displaced from its position of equilibrium to a new position of rise or depression. Two of the most severe tsunamis have already occurred in the 20th century Rittichainuwat (2013:113): Indian Ocean tsunami on December 26, 2004, which killed more than 225,000 people and the Japanese tsunami on March 11, 2011.

South Africa's vibrant tourism industry is being put at risk by the rising number of natural disasters happening around the country (Anon, 2013). Nearly R400 million in claims were paid out by a well-known insurance company due to natural

disasters which was more than three times the average annual catastrophe claims registered by the group over the past 12 years. Although not nearly as significant as the natural disasters in recent years globally, the question must be raised how will an increase in natural disasters influence the prospective and lucrative tourism industry in South Africa in the future. More importantly, how will the perceived risk of natural disasters influence the decision making of potential tourists to South Africa?

Table 2.4: Typologies of disaster and crises

Type of crises/ disasters	Characteristics
Natural or physical disasters	<p>When an organisation or destination is damaged as a result of weather, 'acts of God', human influence or a combination of above.</p> <p>May be as a result of natural processes such as climate change or a result of human processes or action such as deforestation, forest burning, and pollution.</p>
Political crises/ disasters	<p>The tourism industry and tourists are often an indirect victim but can be specifically targeted in some cases.</p> <p>Examples can range from within international tourism such as international wars, civil war, coups, terrorism, riots and political and social unrest.</p>
Economic crises	<p>Ranging from international recessions, regional currency crises to national recession or monetary crises.</p>

Source: Ritchie (2009:28)

According to Rittichainuwat (2013:114) a crisis management plan which includes risk retention, risk transfer, risk reduction and risk avoidance plays a crucial part in tourism marketing.

B. Political Crises/disasters

This section will be discussed under section 2.3.2.2 – political unrest.

C. Economic Crises/disasters

Ritchie (2009:39) states that tourism is extremely vulnerable to changes in the economic macro environment. This includes economic patterns, for example

exchange rates and level of disposable income. Times of recession or global down turn patterns of outbound, tourism in general might suffer and destinations and organisations may have to deal with drop in demand and visitation. Ritchie (2009:39) specifically refers to the Asian Economic Crises of 1997-1998 which specifically hampered the growth rates of tourism. Due to a decline in visitation, businesses suffered as a result in a drop of expenditures and airlines in the Asia-pacific region were severely impacted with many cutting back routes, retrenching staff and reduced the size of fleets.

According to the PESTL country Analysis report (ReportLinker, 2012:18), the South African economy has weathered the global economic crisis relatively well, due to strict government regulation of the banking sector. Another positive for the economy has been the reduction of the budget deficit. Despite these positive developments, the South Africa has and will continue to see high unemployment rates and rareness of power supply in the mere future. As ascribed as an economic strength, the PESTL country analysis further states that In 2011 South Africa emerged as one of the most successful tourist destinations in the world, with arrivals growing by 3.3% to 8.33 million visitors. The tourism industry is known for being labour-intensive and has created one job is created for every 16 visitors in recent terms. The tourism industry employed 567,378 people in South Africa in 2010 and contributed R74.77 billion to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2010, accounting for nearly 4.84%. Further, the FIFA World Cup in 2010 had a positive impact on tourist arrivals (accounting for around 309,000 visitors). Moreover, the government has stepped up efforts to increase the contribution of the tourism industry to GDP from ZAR74.77bn (\$9.10bn) in 2010 to ZAR118bn (\$14.36bn) in 2012. In the midst of an economic recession, the above mentioned information paints decent prospects for South Africa. On the negative side, still a number of challenges faces the South African economy;

- Unemployment remains high
- Rising current account deficit
- There has been a steady rise in the current account deficit since 2010.

- The lingering crisis in Europe, which accounts for nearly a quarter of South African exports.

Although South Africa has come off lightly from the Worldwide Economic crises and recession, the problems are far from over. One has to consider if the current situation in Europe persist, how it will influence the growing tourism market of South Africa, especially the target markets from European countries.

2.3.2.5 Travel Distance, Cognitive Distance and Long-Haul travel

International long-haul travellers face specific constraints like costs, distance and time according to Agrusa, Sizoo and Lema (2012:311); McKercher and Lew (2003:159) and McKercher, Chan and Lam (2008:209). Due to the above mentioned considerations high involvement is required where time and energy is invested to form a reasoned judgment about the destination. McKercher and Lew (2003, as well as McKercher *et al.* (2008) introduces the term distance decay to describe the trade-off being made between travel time and time spent at the end destination, as distance increases, demand will decline exponentially. In the research done by McKercher and colleagues, an idealised distance decay curve have been developed whereby the curve peaks close to the origin and then declines exponentially as the perceived costs of travel distance and time increase. McKercher *et al.* (2008:209) state that the relationship between the origin and possible destinations seems to exert the greatest impact on changing rates of demand over distance. Therefore, accessible space increases geometrically as one travels away from a source market, so too should tourism opportunities.

The model by McKercher and colleagues also considers the fact that people must travel a minimum distance before they feel sufficiently removed from their home environment to make an overnight holiday journey worthwhile. Tourists need to balance the travelling time to the destination with time spent at the destination, usually by trading off one for the other. Those who wish to fully exert their time at a destination might decide to minimise their travel time, while those for whom the journey is important may spend relatively more time traveling and less time at the destination.

McKercher and Lew (2003:160) further state that the concept of market access is related and complicating the decay effect in tourism because of the barriers it imposes. Lastly, not all destinations have the same appeal which further complicates the decay effect. In the study done by McKercher and Lew (2003), this study sought to examine the effect of distance decay on destination choice of international pleasure tourists from Hong Kong who travelled by air. Direct distances between Hong Kong and destination cities were calculated in statute miles. Destinations were then grouped at 500 mile intervals to facilitate analysis. As contextualised earlier the demand curves peaked between 1000 – 1500 miles after which they dropped sharply. Unfortunately South Africa was more than 7,000 miles, however for long haul destinations, the destination, rather than absolute distance, appears to have a greater influence on trip duration.

The travel distance between South Africa (Johannesburg) and France (Paris) is 5,406 miles/8,700 km and it takes approximately 11 hours and 19 minutes for a one way flight (travelmath.com). According to Earle (2008:7) the South African tourism industry competes directly with other long-haul destinations in the likes of Kenya, Australia, Thailand and Brazil. Based on the study by McKercher and Lew (2003) as well as McKercher *et al.* (2008), the demand to travel to South Africa from France will be less in demand than nearby countries, unless the appeal the country has to offer is sufficient. In an article published online by the Guardian (2012) based on a survey of the Guardian and Observer readers, South Africa was among the top 5 favourite long-haul destinations in the world. According to the readers, South Africa was the third (behind Japan and Cambodia) favourite place. The question still remains whether the target market of this study perceive the distance to travel to South Africa as an inhibiting factor or constraint and will the perceived risk involved alter their decision to visit South Africa in the near future? In the following section the impact of market access and how it might influence the decision-making process of the target market will be reviewed.

2.3.2.6 Market Access; Infrastructure and the role of intermediaries

A market can be defined as the place where buyers and sellers of a product interact. However, according to Forstner (2004:500) this definition appears to be less applicable when it comes to tourism products. In the context of tourism, the market is

considered as representing the (potential) buyers of a product, and the distance from markets can therefore be described as the physical distance between the destination as 'producers' of tourism services and tourists as consumers of these services. A lack of accessibility, linking the places in which a tourism venture is operating, discourages tourists from visiting the site and from buying the tourism products. Forstner further states that the distance from markets should not only be measured in physical distance. In tourism marketing, it may also refer to some form of 'socially and culturally determined distance' between service providers and their markets. Forstner (2004:497) concludes that tourism ventures are constrained by a lack of knowledge and that market access of tourism ventures should be facilitated by intermediaries such as private companies, membership organisations, public sector institutions and non-governmental organisation.

In a study done by the South African Department of Labour, Earle (2008) indicates that factors such as economic globalisation and innovations in transport, information and communication technologies make travel cheaper and more accessible. Earle (2008:5) further states that intermediaries, play a critical role in connecting potential tourists with the products of South Africa that make up the travel experience. South Africa as a destination, is generally linked to a geographical area, the appeal of the destination is defined not only by the diversity of tourism products, but also by natural features, infrastructural factors and social issues.

According to Lubbe (2005:385), the traditional tourism market access models were based on a linear approach where products and services moved either directly or indirectly from the supplier to the consumer through distribution channels such as travel agents. Travel agents were viewed as mediators for the supplier who was paying them a commission for selling their services. The major source of income for the mediators was earned from airline sales. Due to changes in technology, particularly the Internet and parallel changes in consumer demands a new tourism distribution system has emerged. The Internet has created an excess of new channels for both direct as well as indirect market access and therefore travel agent has had to become a mediator for the consumer rather than for the supplier.

In an article published on the South Africa SAT (2012a) website based on a Summit focusing on e-marketing of South Africa as a destination that was held on 13

September 2012, it was clear the role of the internet in providing market access for potential tourists has become significantly important. Collaborating between South African Tourism, E Tourism Frontiers and Cape Town Tourism, with major global companies such as Facebook, You Tube, TripAdvisor, WAYN.com and Expedia all participating at the summit, the main focus was set to entrench South Africa's status as global leaders in online tourism destination marketing. Based on the information shared during the Summit, South African Tourism has a powerful digital presence, which is set to increase in response to World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) estimates that 90% of all global travellers now search for and book their travel experiences online. South Africa's partnership with TripAdvisor, has delivered more than 23,000 forum topics about South Africa in the last year and close to 7,300 reviews of South African hospitality establishments by TripAdvisor's global participant base. A unique three-year partnership was signed with TripAdvisor, helping to bring awareness of South Africa's tourism qualities to the forefront of the 60 million travellers looking for inspiration when planning their next trip on TripAdvisor. In the previous year alone, 188,452 trips have been booked to South Africa via SA Tourism's online platform partners, with 177,001 of these trips booked by foreign visitors who spent R655 million on flights and accommodation and a further R2-billion in South Africa.

According to South Africa (2005:295) and Earle (2008:17), South Africa has the most advanced infrastructure in Southern Africa and this provides the country a distinct advantage as the diplomatic hub of the region, if not the continent. About 20 scheduled domestic airlines are licensed to provide air services. These airlines provide internal flights that link up to the international networks of domestic airlines including South African Airways (SAA), Comair and Nationwide. OR Tambo International Airport (ORT) in Johannesburg is the largest of South Africa's international airports and processes in excess of 11 million passengers each year. Many of the country's airports, particularly those that serve as national and regional gateways, went through upgrades to increase capacity and passenger handling efficiency in anticipation of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup.

Foreign air arrivals generally make use of the transport arranged or owned by tour operators such as TourVest and Thompsons Africa, or rent vehicles from companies

such as Avis Southern Africa or Budget Rent-A-Car (Earle, 2008:16). The constraints however remain sufficient airlift capacity to support South Africa's strategy to grow foreign tourist arrivals, particularly those from beyond the Southern African region. The major capacity constraint of airlift from major source countries during peak seasons remains a key constraint (Earle, 2008:25).

With regards to the accommodation sector and infrastructure the South African tourism industry supports around 700 hotels, 2,800 guesthouses and B&B establishments, and 10,000 restaurants ranging from five-star luxury hotels to inexpensive backpacker lodging.

South Africa has the longest road network in Africa. The national road system of 9,200 km links all the major centres in the country to one another as well as to neighbouring countries, and is supplemented by an extensive network of provincial roads. Toll-roads, which are serviced by 31 mainline toll-plazas, cover about 2,000 km of the national system (South Africa, 2005:295).

Nieman *et al.* (2008:285) refers to South Africa as a future tourism destination with much to offer and more can be done for the country to reach its full potential. This would mainly depend on the quality of the destination's resources and political stability. The study done by Nieman *et al.* (2008), indicates that local entrepreneurs perceive the government infrastructures as adequate and supporting tourism development in South Africa. It will therefore be important to analyse the impact of how market access is still being perceived as a potential constraints to the target market. In summary, research done by Shaw, Saayman and Saayman (2012:197) results indicated that from all the risks associated to South Africa especially within the travel intermediary and accommodation sector, internal risks in other words what can be controlled by management were deemed the strongest. Amongst these risks, the majority of the above mentioned factors featured. This poses an interesting dimension since the majority of literature focus mostly on external factors (Shaw *et al.*, 2012:193). The relation to this study therefore remains whether internal risks might inhibit people from visiting South Africa.

2.3.2.7 Service Quality

According to Narayan, Rajendran, Sai and Gopalan (2009:66), service quality can be described as a form of attitude that is related but not comparable to satisfaction, which results from the comparison of expectations with performance. On the other side of the coin, customer satisfaction can be defined as the tourist's fulfilment response. It can therefore also be described as a judgement whether a product or service features, provided a level of consumption related satisfaction, including levels of under or over fulfilment. In differentiating the two concepts discussed above, Narayan *et al.* (2009:66) further state that perceived service quality is a form of attitude, evaluation, whereas satisfaction is a measurable transaction. In their study, Narayana *et al.* (2009:74) proposed to define the dimensions that characterised service quality for tourism:

- A. Core tourism experience: Natural beauty; Climate; Variety of landmarks; Richness of cultural heritage
- B. Information: Availability of tourist information centre at airports; Availability of tourist information centre at place of stay
- C. Hospitality: Courtesy of immigration officials at the port of entry; Courtesy of staff at the place of stay; Courtesy of people outside the place of stay; Trustworthiness of staff at the place of stay; Responsiveness of staff at the place of stay to solve complaints
- D. Fairness of price: Fairness of cost at place of stay (i.e. same rates for domestic and foreign tourists); Fairness of cost at tourist spots (i.e. same entrance fee for domestic and foreign tourists)
- E. Amenities: Internet connectivity at the place of stay; Telecom connectivity at the place of stay; Money exchange or bank facilities at airports; Access to medical help in case of emergencies
- F. Value for money: Price worthiness of accommodation; flights, catering and shopping

- G. Logistics: Accessibility of tourist spots; Condition of infrastructure at the tourist spots; Condition of infrastructure on the way to tourist spots; Possible disturbance by traffic congestion
- H. Food: Taste of local food served at the accommodation, public places and availability of food
- I. Security: Security at the place of stay; Security at the tourist spots/places of visit; Safety of domestic travel (e.g. airlines, trains, buses, taxis, auto rickshaws)

South Africa is not known for its impeccable service quality in the tourism sector (South Africa, 1996; Nicolaidis, 2008). In South Africa, the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism has admitted and established poor service as one of the key constraints in the development of tourism in South Africa since 1996. To change the negative prospect of service quality, government has vowed to ensure and maintain high standards of service and facilities in implementing the following guidelines and policies:

- Promote the development and promotion of quality tourism standards in a consultative manner.
- Apply standards to all tourism activities and do not limit it to the accommodation sector.
- Review and reform the existing structure and system of standards and grading to make it more effective and equitable in application.
- Introduce flexibility, consumer relevance and the interests of labour to grading and standards procedures.
- Ensure that standards and their related costs do not act as barriers to entry of the previously neglected.
- Encourage all establishments, particularly smaller establishments and previously neglected entrepreneurs, to upgrade their standards of service (South Africa, 1996).

One of the success stories in service quality between the 1990s and 2010 is the accommodation sector, specifically the hotel industry. Rogerson (2013:62), states that the number of hotels in South Africa increased by 75% and the number of available rooms increased by seventy five percent during this period. The total international tourism growth during the same period was recorded as an increase of 800%. However, one of the most dramatic transformations in the South African hotel industry over the period 1990 - 2010 relates to the changing nature of 'hotels' and of an associated major improvement in quality or upgrading of hotel products. Rogerson (2013:62) states that historically South African hotels would not satisfy the norms or standards required for international tourism until the re-insertion of South Africa into the global tourism economy the majority of the country's hotels mainly offered basic low standard forms of accommodation. A massive upgrading in the quality of the country's hotel industry occurred as the result. While the Tourism Grading Council as part of South African Tourism quality assurance initiatives, main function is to ensure quality standards in all the different accommodation types, there are limited results and research on the impact of this institution on the quality service of the accommodation industry in South Africa.

Kgote and Kotze (2013:330) state that perception regarding service quality can mostly be measured after the specific experience has occurred. This will give marketers an indication whether the actual experience matched, exceeded or was below their expectations. For the purpose of this study, the main focus will remain on non-participants and therefore the results will purely indicate the image or perception the respondents have of the destination formed through various inputs such as word o mouth and the media. Although the accommodation sector compromises only one of the many sectors within the tourism industry, for the focus of this study a holistic approach will be followed when the empirical research is done. The focus will remain on how the respondents perceive service quality of South Africa as a destination that will include the following sectors:

- Accommodation
- Food and beverage
- Attractions

- Infrastructure
- Healthcare
- Transportation

In the next section the impact of word-of-mouth on the perceptions of constraints of South Africa as a tourism destination will be reviewed.

2.3.2.8 Word-of-mouth

Vast amount of research have been done regarding the impact of word –of –mouth (WOM), firstly as a marketing tool and secondly the impact of WOM on the travellers decision-making (Sotiriadis & Van Zyl, 2013:108). Phillips, Wolfe, Hodur and Leistritz (2013:94) state that positive word-of-mouth (WOM) recommendations from past visitors could be one of the most effective marketing tools to bring new visitors to a respective destination. Good WOM creates a positive image of the destinations, but also increase awareness of the destination to people who are not that familiar with the destination. However, on the other side of the coin, Lin (2012:837) explains that destinations are directly and significantly influenced in a direct marketing environment when a service failure or negative WOM occurs. WOM is the major factor that determines the purchase decision of consumers.

Litvin, Goldsmith and Pan (2008:459) define WOM with regards to the tourism industry as the communication that exists between tourists and/or potential tourists regarding tourism products, services and businesses that can impact their purchase decisions and behavioural intentions. According to Tham, Croy and Mair (2013:144), key aspects of decision-making have been information and referrals from friends and family among others known as word-of-mouth.

Sotiriadis and Van Zyl (2013:108) and Tham *et al.* (2013:144) state that in the modern age with the technology available to consumers allows sharing of information among people from different parts of the world. Tham *et al.* (2013:144) state that essentially Social Media (SM) is electronic word-of-mouth unlike the traditional word-of-mouth. Social networking is bringing changes to communication patterns and interpersonal relationships. Furthermore the rise of SM such as Twitter

and online review and booking networks such as Tripadvisor, allow organisations to engage in timely and direct end-consumer contact at relatively low cost and higher levels of efficiency, making it a very attractive alternative to the traditional communication tools. Tham *et al.* (2013: 144) state that essentially SM is electronic WOM unlike the traditional word-of-mouth. Lui, Fang, Chan and Lin (2013:507) state that the growing popularity of Internet sites, where consumers discuss their emotional response about destinations, allows WOM information to thrive in all aspects. Therefore, researchers and marketers has shown and increasing interest in the impact of WOM.

Concerning WOM and South Africa, a number of official publications and strategic annual plans have stated that tourist numbers to South Africa have grown up to 10.5% during the period 2011/2012. This in a time of global financial crises and despite the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) predictions that global arrivals will slow down during the same period. The recent success is deliberated to the successful growth strategy of Tourism South Africa of which WOM and SM forms a vocal point of marketing South Africa as a destination (SAT, 2012a; SAT, 2012b; South Africa, 2012).

However, the question remains whether word-of-mouth serves as a constraint on the decision making of the target market of this study?

2.3.2.9 Budget, Money, Price and Foreign exchange

In contrast to the previous types of constraints, this section will mainly focus on the target market's economic behaviour as a possible to constraint to visiting South Africa. As indicated earlier in the chapter when the consumer and tourism decision making models have been discussed, budget, disposal income and money form an integral part of the decision-making of potential tourists to a destination (Rugg, 1973; Morley, 1992; Papatheodoro, 2001). Grotte (2013:104) states that tourism demand mainly includes disposable income and motivation.

As for the role of budget and disposable income as a constraint on the non-participation of tourists, Alegre *et al.* (2010) made a significant contribution for the objective of this study. In their article, Alegre *et al.* (2010:45) examines whether households have the capacity to afford annual holidays and states the importance of

households' budget constraints as a barrier to participation in tourism. Furthermore Alegre *et al.* (2010:45) state that the participation in tourism is one of the most interesting aspects of tourism decision – making. Although the study mainly focused on Spanish households, the main findings from the empirical research include the following:

- A high percentage of Spanish households suffer from a financial barrier to tourism participation.
- The households' probability of being able to afford a holiday is not just dependent on their level of income, but on their financial situation which could include the households' saving capacity, employment stability, and housing tenure status.
- Nonfinancial household factors that can also determine their decisions are cultural factors, their age and members in illness (Alegre *et al.* 2010:45).

Wang (2014:15) states that tourism expenditure differs across countries based on cultural and national characteristic differences. In the article, Wang aims to establish the impact of budget constraints on tourism participation, measured by the household income level and savings ability. Factors taken into account in the research include Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita, savings and international expenditure. Significant findings from the study explain that the influence of GDP per capita on international tourist expenditure is substantial. Another important factor indicated as the savings rate indicates the threshold and link between GDP and tourist expenditure. While countries like the US that traditionally has a stable GDP might indicate a low savings rate, while Asian countries indicate a high savings rate and a strong motivation for precautionary savings. In the lower savings regime the increase in GDP per capita on tourism expenditure is more pronounced. Increases in GDP and income in the origin country increases the number of outbound tourists and in return, also increases the tourists spend in the outbound country (Wang, 2014:17).

With regards to Europe and especially France which forms an integral part of this study, Ezrati (2013:25) paints a sombre picture with regards to the current economic

situation, which can greatly influence the outputs of this study. Some statistics of the current situation in France will be listed below:

- More than one thousand factories have closed in France since 2009.
- Rates of new business formation remain 13.3 percent lower than at the end of 2009,
- Business failures increased by 7 percent.
- Home sales, remain 16 percent below 2008 levels.
- Residential real-estate prices continue to decline.
- Unemployment rolls have grown and are currently averaging 10.5 percent of the nation's workforce, while youth unemployment averages over 26 percent.
- Wages have declined for the last four consecutive quarters.
- The shortfall of exports to imports almost doubling in just the past year to almost 3 percent of GDP.
- Government finances, too, continue in deficit, far exceeding the EU'S mandated maximum of 3 percent of the economy.

The only redeeming feature seems to be the weak South African Rand (ZAR) against the Euro (EU). According to Oanda (2015), for the period of April 2014, the average for a Euro was R14.531. This might change the statistics slightly. However, as indicated above many constraints can influence the decisions to travel and therefore the question still remains whether budget and money constraints might inhibit potential tourists from Europe especially France to South Africa.

2.3.2.10 Time

Grotte (2013:104) states that tourism demand is all about free time, discretionary income and motivation. Both discretionary income (budget) and motivation have been dealt with in previous section. Literature studies have been focusing on time constraints indicated as time being consumed to travel to a destination (Rugg, 1973; Morley, 1992; Papatheodoro, 2001) and time available at the primary and secondary

destinations (Botti, Peypoch & Solonandrasana, 2010). This specific reference to time as a constraint has also been dealt with in section 2.3.2.5 under travel distance.

The main focus of this section would be to analyse literature concerning time/free time as a possible constraint in decision making. Alegre *et al.* (2010:48) state that family size, time and physical constraints limit tourism participation. In the same way that income generator's variable while controlling for income also obtain a negative relationship, reflecting the difficulties involved in coordinating families' leisure time. Dickinson and Peeters (2014:11) state that the availability of time has played an integral part of tourism analysis. In developed countries, industrial, or clock time, has controlled social life since industrialisation. Recreation and tourism developed from the notion that time-out from work was essential for human well-being because of the social institution of clock time.

Dickinson and Peeters (2014:11) further state that the hours of work per week has decreased while annual holiday privileges has increase in most industrialised nations adding a rising disposable income into the mix has led to rapid growth of the tourism sector. However, since the 1990s, it has been widely discussed that for some groups of workers, working hours maybe on the increase due to the focus on empowering women into the labour market. For many educated professionals, time has become more relative and contextual rather than a linear, measurable concept as work and leisure spaces become blurred. The latter suggests that society has entered a stage where two phases of time coincide which as a result has played a pivotal role in the emergence and most of the development of tourism. It will be a focus of this study to explore whether the perception of travel time, travel distance in conjunction with available time to travel have an impact in decision making of potential tourists to South Africa.

2.3.2.11 Image formation and the Role of Media

Image formation concepts carry important consequences for the behavioural intentions of potential visitors and re-visits to a destination (Walker, Kaplanidou, Gibson, Thapa, Geldenhuys, & Coetzee 2013:82; Rodríguez Molina, Friás-Jamilena & Castañeda-Garci'a, 2013:107). In a study done by Chen *et al.* (2013:189) a significant relationship has been found between destination image and

travel constraints during the early decision-making process. The biggest contributors to formation processes that produces destination image are:

- Organic image: due to daily exposure to mass media (e.g. television, newspapers, documentaries, and social media and blogs).
- Induced image, transformed from organic image to induced image due to exposure to promotional materials (advertisements). In the absence of physical visitation of a destination image are formed through exposure to induced agents.
- Complex image: Induced images becomes complex after visiting a destination (Chen *et al.* 2013:200).

As described above, media coverage of a destination has a significant impact on the perceived image of a destination and in return can influence decision making to a great degree. Hammet (2014:221) states that 500,000 international visitors were expected for the 2010 FIFA football world cup however, these numbers were reduced due to certain contributing factors. Amongst the factors as identified by FIFA and the Local Organising Committee a key deterrent for many potential travellers was the destination image of South Africa as presented within the British media with newspaper publicity surrounding fear and uncertainty over safety and security.

The work of Swart, Linley and Bob (2013); Allen, Knott and Swart (2013) and Lepp and Gibson (2011) focused their studies partly or wholly on the impact of the media coverage of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup during the pre, lead-up, and post event phases. Although the findings show generally positive or favourable media coverage in relation to sport and leisure consumption patterns, a higher level of adverse media coverage was apparent during the pre- and lead-up periods. Allen *et al.* (2013:1994) state that given the unfamiliarity of the South African brand including obsolete and stereotyped associations, South Africa Tourism had their work cut out for them with the challenge of improving the image of South Africa. Considering the challenges it remained an opportunity to offset the negative perceptions of the country as well as the continent.

In return the coverage may have had an influence on the attendance of the World Cup and therefore leisure consumption. During the pre-2010 (2 years before the World Cup) it is general consensus that in the South African negative media focus has had unfavourable effects on the tourism industry (Swart *et al.*, 2013:1978). Given the focus of the study the main output was to determine whether the negative perceptions that has tended to dominate South Africa's image has persisted after the successful hosting of the World Cup. Whereas the main positive views being the crime and safety constraints and the ability to successfully host the event in terms of infrastructural readiness. On the other side of the coin, the main positive views associated with the scenic beauty attributes of the destination and the atmosphere associated with the event. The key findings from this study state that the overall views changed to a more positive perception over the four time periods of the study, with the UK as the only exception due to the negative media attention of the murder of Annie Dewani in 2010 (Swart *et al.*, 2013:1979).

In this section, the role of destination image on decision making with specific focus on the role of media play, have been explored. Ample studies emerged in the last four years regarding perceptions before and after the 2010 FIFA World Cup Mega event in South Africa. The general consensus seems to be that the event had a positive impact on the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. In the following section the final potential constraint, attributes of attractiveness and utility will be discussed.

2.4 CONCLUSION

The main focus of this chapter was to analyse models and processes of travel decision making. Constraints related to travel decision-making were researched as well. An in depth literature review of the models and constraints was done to provide sufficient context for the chapters following which include three articles and recommendations and conclusion. It is evident that travel and tourism decision making have been thoroughly researched from various perspectives. The majority of the models indicate the complexity of tourist behaviour. Tourism constraints/inhibitors are mentioned in some of the models especially in the filtering processes of the choice sets. A point of concern is the fact that the majority of the models focus on individual tourist behaviour and according to Decrop (2006:45)

some models only deal with one particular aspect of decisions, such as the destination or accommodation. Other models take sub-decisions into account, but fail to explain how they are related. Hsu and Kang (2009:707) stated that in-depth knowledge of constraints as a part of decision-making will assist marketers in understanding and minimising these constraints. This might lead to the development or the growth of new markets and existing markets. This will provide valuable information for a marketing strategy of non-users for the identified countries.

CHAPTER 3: KEY INHIBITORS OF TRAVELLING TO SOUTH AFRICA AS A TOURISM DESTINATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism continues to play a vital role in the South African Economy and the industry is contributing 2.9% to the total Gross Domestic Product (GDP) which is more than the automotive industry. Tourism also employs 4.4 % of the total workforce in South Africa which is more than the gold mining industry (Statistics South Africa, 2015). Foreign arrivals increased by 7.1%, which indicates good prospects for the tourism industry. Ongoing growth from the majority of European markets has been reported, while markets with the biggest growth from 2012 to 2013 were, Germany (14.2%), France (10.3%) and Italy (10.6%). Specifically tourist arrivals from France, South Africa's fifth biggest overseas source market, grew to 134 840.

This certainly paints a good picture for South African tourism going forward; however it's important to be reminded of the potential of growth still to be nurtured. South African tourism in its current capacity is underperforming compared to the global growth rate of 5% (SAT, 2014b:5). South Africa is ranked as the 33rd global destination according to arrival statistics (SAT, 2014b:5). Although statistics indicate growth in arrival statistics, the foreign direct spend decreased by 4% in 2013 (SAT, 2014b:27). For a country with all the available resources and pull factors imaginable, this raises questions related to the reasons why people do not consider South Africa as a suitable tourism destination.

Decision making is an everyday human activity and is omnipresent, whatever the domain (Decrop, 2006:ix). Decisions guide one's current and future behaviour and are considered the cornerstone of marketing and consumer behaviour. According to Hudson and Gilbert (2002:137) behavioural concepts, such as decision making, are at the heart of marketing in tourism, hospitality and leisure and have been researched extensively. However, the absence of research into the non-user and the associated constraints (noted as inhibitors, variables, factors, risks or characteristics)

represents an important limitation to fully grasp consumer behaviour research (Hudson & Gilbert, 1999:70). Jackson and Rucks (1995:85) clearly stated that, in the past, researchers would assume that when individuals are faced with constraints the result would be non-participation. However, some individuals would negotiate through the constraints and therefore continue leisure participation. Hudson and Gilbert (1999:70) as well as Dellaert *et al.* (1998:315) state that, in previous research, constraints have been recognised but most research to date is limited in how it deals with the general concept of constraints in market and product development as well as marketing. Decision-making models assume that purchase is the outcome and there is no reference to the negotiation of constraints. These constraints determine restrictions to the set of possible alternatives from which tourists can choose their travel options. Inhibiting factors are also likely to be detrimental rather than attributes or benefits (Um & Crompton, 1992). Therefore, the tourism industry should not only seek to understand decision-making processes, but should attempt to comprehend the range of constraints preventing tourists from becoming tourists and travel to a country such as South Africa.

Research on non-users (non-travellers) is difficult, yet vital for tourism marketers in understanding and minimising these inhibitors and the development or growth of tourism markets (Hsu & Kang, 2009:707; Hudson & Gilbert, 2002:142; Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999:28; Schmierer & Jackson, 2006:64). To the knowledge of the researcher, no research currently exists aiming at the non-tourists to South Africa. Lots of assumptions exist as to the constraints faced by South Africa as a country and more importantly how these constraints inhibit non-tourists from travelling to South Africa. A better understanding of these constraints factors and their impact on decision-making of non-tourists can impact strategies towards better educating, information and miss conceptions about South Africa. Therefore, the aim of this research is to analyse constraints inhibiting travel decision making to South Africa. To achieve this, the literature review, method of research, listing of research results and conclusions are presented below.

3.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Constraints can be seen as barriers that prevent consumers from purchasing tourism products or limit people from travelling (Buhalis & Darcy, 2010:55; Hsu & Kang,

2009:707). When constraints and inhibitors (perceived constraints) are removed, individuals are more likely to consider the destination and finally travel to that destination. Removing inhibitors would enhance the competitiveness of tourism destinations. Furthermore, deciding where to travel might depend heavily on the image of the destination (Cronch, 2011; Stepchenkova & Eales, 2011). The following section deals with theories concerning constraints.

3.2.1 Theories of Constraints

Despite the potential application of leisure constraints theory in studying travel behaviour, only a limited number of studies have used the theory in a tourism context (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008:433). Research in leisure constraints is abundant and tourism constraint theories are limited, however the long-term success of tourism destinations and products would depend on converting non-users into users and therefore more focus on constraint theory in tourism is important (Hudson & Gilbert, 1999:76; Davies & Prentice, 1995). Because of these limitations, the first section will be focused on the work of Herbert Simon in the field of economic and behavioural science decision making for some context after which the research mentioned above will be discussed which is specifically related to tourism and leisure

Simon (1972:161) states that rationality refers to behaviour concerned with achievement of certain goals, within the limits of certain conditions and constraints. With regards to constraints, Simon (1972:163) poses that constraints and risk can be introduced in either or both the demand and cost functions; in other words the value one obtains from the decision must be more than the risk or alternatively the risk imposed in the decision must be less than the value one obtains from the decision. The person involved therefore has perfect knowledge of the distributions (difference in value versus constraints). Secondly, another way in which rationality can be described is that the person only has incomplete information about alternatives. The task of the person is therefore to find alternatives to maximise the value obtained. Lastly, Simon (1972:164) describes that rationality can also be bound by assuming complexity in the cost function or other environmental constraints to the extent that it prevents the person from calculating the best decision or course of action.

Another principle Simon introduced is the Scottish word 'Satisficing'. The word has been derived to signify problem solving and decision making that sets an aspiration level. The aspiration levels refer to the motivation, desire, optimisation or objective to search until an alternative is found that is acceptable according to the aspiration levels criteria and then the selection of alternatives follows. The existence of a satisfactory alternative is realised by turning aspirations into reality through information about the immediate environment. Simple as it may sound, the work of Simon can be directly applied to the research as follows: Firstly, a person will decide to travel to a destination if the demand (Aspirations, motivations) is more than the value of the costs (inhibitions, constraints). Secondly, potential tourists might be under the assumption that he/she has full knowledge of the value of the propositions or due to a lack of information about alternatives. Lastly, either satisficing in context of tourism will therefore refer to a potential tourist finding alternative destinations to maximise perceived value or, if the constraints and inhibitors are too great, the tourists might consider not travelling at all. Considering the context provided in this section, some emerging research in the field of leisure research contributed to constraints theory (Hudson & Gilbert, 1999:71). Some of the major breakthrough research concluded the following themes: Ceasing Participation (Jackson & Dunn, 1988; McGuire *et al.*, 1989; Boothby *et al.*, 1981; Chick & Robert, 1989; Robinson & Carron, 1982; Backman & Crompton, 1990); Classification for constraints facing non-participants (Jackson, 1988; Haukeland, 1990; Searle & Jackson, 1985; Romsa & Hoffman, 1980; Davies & Prentice, 1995) and Constraints Negotiation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Crawford, Jackson & Godbey, 1991; Jackson, Crawford & Godbey, 1993).

Of the above mentioned research, only the work of Davies and Prentice (1995), Crawford *et al.* (1991) and Hudson and Gilbert (1999) are indirectly or directly applicable to the field of tourism. Crawford *et al.* (1991) present a model that contains a clearly defined hierarchy of constraints. The hierarchy starts with constraints affected by preferences, leading to constraints that affect participation. For an individual to face the succeeding level of constraints, each level of constraints must be overcome. The first level of constraints is intrapersonal that involve individual psychological states and attributes which interact with preferences rather than intervening between participation and preferences for example stress,

depression, anxiety. Interpersonal constraints transpire based on the interaction between individual's characteristics; in other words, when an individual fails to find a partner or friends to participate. Once the former and latter constraints have been overcome an individual might face structural constraints such as economic barriers, availability of time, access and opportunity. Therefore, structural constraints can be defined as the intervening factors between preferences and participation.

Hudson and Gilbert's main objective was to operationalise the model proposed by Crawford *et al.* discussed in the previous section. Although the constraints analysis was done on skiing, much can be applied for the purpose of this research. To develop the model, a list of 30 constraints was developed from in-depth interviews and focus groups. According to Hudson and Gilbert (1999:75) one of the most important findings from the research is that different constraints inhibit participants and non-participants and therefore different strategies and marketing efforts will be needed to increase participation.

The research of Davies and Prentice (1995) focuses on the latent demand of tourists to museums and heritage sites. Lack of time and money barriers usually are excuses for non-participation and do not reveal the real constraints. Based on the insufficient past research into motivations and constraints, Davies and Prentice (1995:493) identified three aspects of non-visiting behaviour. Firstly, behaviour refers to participation and non-participation of leisure and tourism activities. Secondly, motives suggest positive and negative motives for leisure and tourism participation. Lastly, reaction to constraints implies whether constraints are perceived and whether they can be overcome.

For the purpose of this research, the work by Müller and Ulrich (2007:87) and Crawford *et al.* (1991) was considered relating constraints relevant to South Africa as a potential tourism destination. Individual constraints can be defined in terms of three characteristics such as capacity constraints, coupling constraints and authority constraints (Müller & Ulrich, 2007:87). Authority constraints refer to constraints imposed by law and refer to societal contracts creating a certain common set of rules that apply to a large number of individuals for example visas. Coupling constraints are constraints originating from limitations faced by household members, friends and colleagues. Capacity constraints are constraints caused by the availability of travel

options and money resources. As discussed previously, Crawford *et al.* (1991) define individual constraints in terms of three characteristics such as interpersonal, intrapersonal and structural constraints. In the following sections the type of constraints relevant to the purpose of this research are defined and discussed in detail with particular reference to the current situation of these constraints in South Africa.

3.2.2 Types of Constraints

According to Reisinger and Mavondu (2006) five major risks associated with tourism can be identified with both an absolute (real) and perceived (subjective) risk: Terrorism; war and political instability; health risks; cultural and language difficulties and, lastly, crime. Chen, Chen and Okumus (2013:199) identified major constraints affecting travel as: Social, political, physical, financial, time, health, family stage, lack of interest, fear and safety, lack of transport, companionship, overcrowding, distance and limited information. Appendix C indicates a list of all possible constraints influencing travel decision-making. Considering the theories of constraints as well as all constraints researched in Appendix C, the following constraints as indicated in Table 3.1 are considered as viable in the context of South African tourism.

Table 3.1: List of constraints associated with tourism in South Africa

CONSTRAINTS ASSOCIATED WITH TOURISM	
–	Crime (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007; Cooper & Hall, 2008; Vanhove, 2005; Reisinger & Mavondu, 2006)
–	Health risks (Waner, 1999; Hsu & Kang, 2009; Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199; Reisinger & Mavondu, 2006)
–	Market access (McKercher, 1998).
–	Terrorism and political unrest (Sönmez, 1998; Ioannides & Apostolopoulos, 1999; Vanhove, 2005; Sheela, 2007; Reisinger & Mavondu, 2006).
–	Time constraints (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009; Coreira & Crouch, 2004; Stabler, Papatheodorou & Sinclair, 2010; Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
–	Lack of information (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999; Knowles, Diamantis & El-Mourhabi, 2004; Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2013:199)
–	Natural and human-caused disaster (Sönmez, 1998).
–	Infrastructure and facilities (Prideaux, 2000; Sheela, 2007; Albalade & Bel, 2010).
–	Physical distance and cognitive distance (Ankomah <i>et al.</i> , 1996; Harrison-Hill, 2001)

- Perception and perceived perception (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999; Knowles, Diamantis & El-Mourhabi, 2004).
- Budget & monetary constraints (Holden, 2005; Alegre, Mateo & Pou, 2010; Chen *et al.*, 2013:199)
- Cultural and language difficulties (Reisinger & Mavondu, 2006)
 - Social (Chen *et al.*, 2013:199)
 - Political (Chen *et al.*, 2013:199)
 - Physical (Chen *et al.*, 2013:199)
 - Family stage (Chen *et al.*, 2013:199)
 - Lack of interest (Chen *et al.*, 2013:199)
 - Fear and safety (Chen *et al.*, 2013:199)
 - Lack of transport (Chen *et al.*, 2013:199)
 - Companionship (Chen *et al.*, 2013:199)
 - Overcrowding (Chen *et al.*, 2013:199)
 - Distance (Chen *et al.*, 2013:199)

Source: Researcher's own composition

3.2.2.1 Crime and Perceptions of Crime

Botterill and Jones (2010:12) state that crime at the basic level can be defined as an infraction of law. The concept of 'fear of crime' can be defined as public concerns and worries about becoming a victim of crime, perceptions of the risk of victimisation and precautionary behaviour (Shelby, Shelby & Botterill, 2010:198). Crime in tourism can be divided into two categories: tourists as victims (Mawby, 2010a; Mawby 2010b; Brunt. 2010) and tourists as offenders (Tarlow, 2006; Montgomery, 2010; Shiner, 2010; Bott, 2010). For the purpose of this research the main focus will remain on crime against tourists and victimisation of tourists. Substantive research and evidence exists on destination image and how it can affect the decision-making process of potential tourists, as well as satisfaction/dissatisfaction resulting from the experience. A number of scholars argue that crime and safety problems at a tourist destination have an impact on tourism demand (Sönmez, 1998; Law, 2006; Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007; Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009; Selby *et al.*, 2010).

According to Starmer-Smith (2008), Marthinus van Schalkwyk, former South African minister of tourism between 2004 and 2014 admitted that, according to government research, more than a third of potential tourists had cited crime and safety concerns as a reason for not visiting South Africa. More than 22 million tourists might have

been put off by the crime statistics of South Africa. According to Selby *et al.* (2010:193), in the context of the situation of South Africa with reference to the Soccer World Cup it is possible to recognise the discourse in the mass media relating to the crime in South Africa and this might have a great influence on the perceptions of people about South Africa.. George and Swart (2013:56) conducted research on perceptions of crime and future intentions to revisit South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup. From the research, 81 % of the 398 respondents visited South Africa for the first time. A fast majority (90%) of the respondents were aware of the high crime rates in South Africa. However, the majority of respondents felt that South Africa was a safe destination to visit (64%). While 91 % of the respondents have not witnessed or experienced crime whilst in South Africa and the majority (79%) felt safe walking down the streets. George and Swart (2013:54) states that respondents gave mainly positive responses to the items related to the likelihood to recommend and return to South Africa. Donaldson and Ferreira (2007:355) state that safety and security are important purchase criteria for South Africa's target consumers in all its core markets. Unless radical improvement can be quantified, South Africa's image as a tourist destination will deteriorate further and many tourists who might have visited South Africa will choose other destinations perceived as safer. The issue of crime is a major potential constraint especially with reference to South Africa as a desirable destination and will form part of the empirical research done in this study.

3.2.2.2 Political Unrest

Political stability and political relations are extremely important in determining the image of destinations in tourist-generating regions as well as the real and perceived safety of tourists (Ritchie, 2009:36; Mansfield & Pizam, 2006:28; Shaw, 2010:72). Nieman, Visser and Van Wyk (2008:285) argue that tourism depends mainly on the quality of a destination's resources and its political stability. Political unrest refers to examples of protests, violence, civil and international wars, as well as political coups. Mansfield and Pizam (2006:28) further state that civil unrest is more confined to specific destinations and the frequency is much lower than terrorism.

Based on the definition of Pizam and Mansfield (2006:141), political, labour or social strikes can also have an impact on tourism of a particular destination. According to

Petrus and Isaacs-Maartin (2011:49) and Bond and Mottair (2013:284) strikes and protest action is not a new phenomenon in South Africa. Even after the Apartheid regime ended in 1994, violent strikes and protests have continued at various levels of South African society. Petrus and Isaacs-Maartin (2011:50), even describes these frequent events in South Africa as a 'strike and protest culture' which in most cases includes acts of violence and the notions of 'scapegoating'. The Business Monitor report (2014:7) on the financial prospect of South Africa in 2014 and the near future concludes that many issues threaten South Africa's political stability over the long term, not least the inequalities still stemming from the apartheid era.

The question therefore remains how this form of political unrest influences the tourism industry in South Africa and specifically the perceived constraints and risk for potential tourists to South Africa.

3.2.2.3 Health Risks and Epidemic Disasters

The first pandemic of the 21st century, Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS), had caused 774 deaths in 26 countries on five continents within months (Wilder-Smith, 2006:53). The outbreak of SARS created international anxiety because of its ease of transmission and the speed of its spread through jet travel, causing a significant impact on the travel and tourism industry. International tourism arrivals decreased by 1.2% to 694 million in 2003 according to the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) statistics. The second and more recent significant outbreak is the Ebola outbreak. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO, 2015), According to the South African Update (2014), a recent downturn in the tourism growth in South Africa has been witnessed in the industry mainly due to the fear of the Ebola outbreak rather than the outbreak itself. According to News24 (2015), holiday bookings across eastern and Southern Africa decrease by as much as 70% since the Ebola outbreak on the continent. However, there has yet to be a case of Ebola reported in Sub-Saharan Africa and the indication by experts is that the current fears are injudicious since it is more than 3,000 miles from the infected areas in West Africa to East Africa, and even further to southern Africa.

Further, according to South Africa (2003:44), Nieman, Visser and Van Wyk (2008:293) and Shaw (2010:63) the perception of HIV/AIDS and the safety and

security of South Africa have a negative impact on the development of tourism in South Africa. Southern Africa remains the area most heavily affected by the epidemic. South Africa constitutes of 16.9% of the total prevalence of AIDS in the world, is also the country with the largest population of people living with HIV in the world namely 5.7 million, and contributes to about 17% of the global number of HIV infections.

Apart from HIV/AIDS, Leggat (2006:27) defines another major infectious and hazardous disease that can be obtained while travelling to Africa in general, Malaria. According to the WHO (2004) over 300 million malaria cases and 2.5 million deaths were reported worldwide. According to Maartens, Sharp, Curtis, Mthembu and Hatting (2007:96) South Africa encompasses the southernmost distribution of malaria in Africa. According to Schmierer and Jackson (2006:72) potential health risks to tourists are well documented and countless ways to eliminate risks/constraints/inhibitors exist. HIV and Malaria in South Africa currently is and will remain major contributors of perceived and real constraints/inhibitors for international tourists and will therefore form an integral part of the empirical study.

3.2.2.4 Tourism Crises (Natural & Economic)

According to the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR, 2004) a disaster is a serious disruption of social or community functions where losses (human, economic, material or environmental) are substantial, and where the ability of the country or region to cope is limited. The difference between disasters and crisis is the extent to which the situation is due to actions from within an organisation itself or originating from outside the organisation (Ritchie, 2009:7; Bierman, 2003:4). Ritchie (2009:28) defines three specific types of crises and/or disasters: Natural/physical, political and economic. South Africa, a country not known for major natural disasters, can expect more natural disasters and their vibrant tourism industry is being put at risk by the rising number of natural disasters happening around the country (Govender, 2011; Shaw, 2010; Anon, 2013). Although not nearly as significant as the natural disasters in recent years globally, the question must be raised how will an increase in natural disasters influence the prospective and lucrative tourism industry in South Africa in the future. More importantly, how will the

perceived risk of natural disasters influence the decision making of potential tourists to South Africa?

Ritchie (2009:39) states that tourism is extremely vulnerable to changes in economic macro-environment. This includes economic patterns for example exchange rates and level of disposable income. Times of recession or global downturn patterns of outbound tourism in general might suffer and destinations and organisations may have to deal with a drop in demand and visitation. According to the PESTL country analysis report (Anon, 2012:18), the South African economy has weathered the global economic crisis relatively well, due to strict government regulation of the banking sector. Although South Africa has come off lightly from the Worldwide Economic crises and recession, the problems are far from over. One has to consider if the current situation in Europe persists, how it will influence the growing tourism market of South Africa, especially the target markets from European countries.

3.2.2.5 Travel Distance, Cognitive Distance and Long-Haul travel

International long-haul travellers face specific constraints like costs, distance and time according to Agrusa, Sizoo and Lema (2012:311); McKercher and Lew (2003:159) and McKercher, Chan and Lam (2008:209). McKercher and Lew (2003), as well as McKercher *et al.* (2008) introduced the term distance decay to describe the trade-off being made between travel time and time spent at the final destination, as distance increases, demand will decline exponentially. An idealised distance decay curve has been developed whereby the curve peaks close to the origin and then declines exponentially as the perceived costs of travel distance and time increase. McKercher *et al.* (2008:209) state that the relationship between the origin and possible destinations seem to exert the greatest impact on changing rates of demand over distance. Those who wish to fully exert their time at a destination might decide to minimise their travel time, while those for whom the journey is important may spend relatively more time traveling and less time at the destination.

According to Earle (2008:7) the South African tourism industry competes directly with other long-haul destinations in the likes of Kenya, Australia, Thailand and Brazil. Based on the research by McKercher and Lew (2003) as well as McKercher *et al.* (2008), the demand to travel to South Africa from France will be less than nearby

countries, unless the appeal the country has to offer is sufficient. In an article published online by the Guardian (2012) based on a survey of the Guardian and Observer readers, South Africa was the third most favourite long-haul destination in the world behind Japan and Cambodia.

3.2.2.6 Market Access & Infrastructure and the role of intermediaries

A lack of accessibility, linking the places in which a tourism venture is operating, discourages tourists from visiting the site and from buying the tourism products. In tourism marketing, it may also refer to some form of 'socially and culturally determined distance' between service providers and their markets. Forstner (2004:497) concludes that tourism ventures are constrained by a lack of knowledge and intermediaries such as private companies, membership organisations, public sector institutions and non-governmental organisations, should facilitate that market access of tourism ventures.

In research done by the South African Department of Labour, Earle (2008) indicates that intermediaries play a critical role in connecting potential tourists with the products of South Africa that make up the travel experience. South Africa as a destination, is generally linked to a geographical area, the appeal of the destination is defined not only by the diversity of tourism products, but also by natural features, infrastructural factors and social issues. According to South Africa (2005:295) and Earle (2008:17), this country has the most advanced infrastructure in Southern Africa and this provides the country a distinct advantage as the diplomatic hub of the region, if not the continent. The constraints, however, remain sufficient airlift capacity to support South Africa's strategy to grow foreign tourist arrivals, particularly those from beyond the Southern African region. It will therefore be important to analyse the impact of how market access is still being perceived as a potential constraint to the target market. In summary, research done by Shaw, Saayman and Saayman (2012:197) indicated that from all the risks associated to South Africa especially within the travel intermediary and accommodation sector, internal risks - in other words what can be controlled by management were deemed the strongest. Amongst these risks, the majority of these factors as well as Service Quality following this section featured. This poses an interesting dimension since the majority of literature focuses mostly on external factors (Shaw *et al.*, 2012:193). The relation to this study

therefore remains whether internal risks might inhibit people from visiting South Africa.

3.2.2.7 Service Quality

According to Narayan, Rajendran, Sai and Gopalan (2009:66), service quality can be described as a form of attitude that is related to, but not comparable to, satisfaction, which results from the comparison of expectations with performance. On the other side of the coin, customer satisfaction can be defined as the tourist's fulfilment response. It can therefore also be described as a judgement whether a product or service features, provided a level of consumption related satisfaction, including levels of under or over fulfilment. In differentiating the two concepts discussed above, Narayan *et al.* (2009:66) further state that perceived service quality is a form of attitude, evaluation, whereas satisfaction is a measurable transaction.

South Africa is not known for its impeccable service quality in the tourism sector (South Africa, 1996; Nicolaidis, 2008). In South Africa, the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism has admitted and established that poor service is one of the key constraints in the development of tourism in South Africa since 1996. Kgote and Kotze (2013:330) state that perceptions regarding service quality can mostly be measured after the specific experience has occurred. This will give marketers an indication whether the actual experience matched, exceeded or was below their expectations. For the purpose of this research, the main focus will remain on non-participants and therefore the results will purely indicate the image or perception the respondents have of the destination formed through various inputs such as word-of-mouth messages and the media.

3.2.2.8 Word-of-mouth communication

Research have been done regarding the impact of word-of-mouth (WOM), firstly as a marketing tool and secondly the impact of word-of-mouth on the traveller's decision making (Sotiriadis & Van Zyl, 2013:108; Phillips, Wolfe, Hodur & Leistriz 2013:94). Good word-of-mouth creates a positive image of the destinations, but also increases awareness of the destination to people who are not that familiar with the destination. However, on the other side of the coin Lin (2012:837) explains that destinations are

directly and significantly influenced in a direct marketing environment when a service failure or negative word-of-mouth occurs. Litvin, Goldsmith and Pan (2008:459) define word-of-mouth with regards to the tourism industry as the communication that exists between tourists and/or potential tourists regarding tourism products, services and businesses that can impact their purchase decisions and behavioural intentions. According to Tham, Croy and Mair (2013:144), key aspects of decision making have been information and referrals from friends and family among others known as word-of-mouth.

In an article published on the South Africa SAT (2012a) website based on a Summit focusing on e-marketing of South Africa as a destination that was held on 13 September 2012, it was clear the role of the internet in providing market access for potential tourists has become significantly important. Social media (SM) and social networking (SN) is bringing changes to communication patterns and interpersonal relationships. Tham, Croy and Mair (2013:144) state that essentially social media and social networking is electronic word-of-mouth unlike the traditional word-of-mouth. Lui, Fang, Chan, and Lin (2013:507) state that the growing popularity of Internet sites, where consumers discuss their emotional response about destinations, allows word-of-mouth information to thrive in all aspects. The recent success can be contributed to the successful growth strategy of Tourism South Africa of which word-of-mouth, social media and social networking forms a vocal point of marketing South Africa as a destination (SAT 2012a; SAT 2012b; South Africa, 2012).

3.2.2.9 Budget, Money, Price and Foreign exchange

In contrast to the previous types of constraints, this section will mainly focus on the target market's economic behaviour as a possible constraint to visiting South Africa. Budget, disposal income and money form an integral part of the decision making of potential tourists to a destination (Rugg, 1973; Morley, 1994; Papatheodoro, 2001). Grotte (2013:104) states that tourism demand mainly includes disposable income and motivation. Alegre, Mateo and Pou (2010:45) made a significant contribution to this field of research examining whether households have the capacity to afford annual holidays and state the importance of households' budget constraints as a barrier to participation in tourism. The households' probability of being able to afford

a holiday is not just dependent on their level of income, but on their financial situation which could include the households' saving capacity, employment stability, and housing tenure status.

With regards to Europe and especially France which forms an integral part of this research, Ezrati (2013:25) paints a sombre picture with regard to the current economic situation. Some statistics of the current situation in France are the following: More than one thousand factories have closed in France since 2009; Rates of new business formation remain 13.3 percent lower than at the end of 2009; Business failures increased by 7 percent; Home sales, remains 16 percent below 2008 levels; Residential real-estate prices continue to decline; Unemployment rolls have grown and are currently averaging 10.5 percent of the nation's workforce, while youth unemployment averages over 26 percent; Wages have declined for the last four consecutive quarters; The shortfall of exports to imports almost doubling in just the past year to almost 3 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Lastly, government finances, too, continue in deficit, far exceeding the EU'S mandated maximum of 3 percent of the economy. The only saving grace seems to be the weak South African Rand (ZAR) against the Euro (EU). This might change the statistics slightly, however as indicated above numerous constraints can influence the decisions to travel and therefore the question still remains whether budget and money constraints might inhibit potential tourists from Europe especially France to travel to South Africa.

3.2.2.10 Time

Grotte (2013:104) states that tourism demand is all about free time, discretionary income and motivation. Both discretionary income (budget) and motivation have been dealt with in previous section. Literature research have been focusing on time constraints indicated as time being consumed to travel to a destination (Rugg, 1973; Morley, 1994; Papatheodoro, 2001) and time available at the primary and secondary destinations (Botti, Peypoch & Solonandrasana, 2010). This specific reference to time as a constraint has also been dealt with in section 2.3.2.5 under travel distance.

The main focus of this section would be to analyse literature concerning time/free time as a possible constraint in decision making. Alegre *et al.* (2010:48) state that

family size, time and physical constraints limit tourism participation. Dickinson and Peeters (2014:11) state that the availability of time has played an integral part of tourism analysis.

Dickinson and Peeters (2014:11) state that the hours of work per week have decreased while annual holiday privileges have increased in most industrialised nations. Adding a rising disposable income into the mix has led rapid growth of the tourism sector. For many literate professionals, time has become more relative and contextual rather than a linear, measurable concept as work and leisure spaces become blurred. The latter suggests that society has entered a stage where two phases of time coincide which as a result has played a pivotal role in the emergence and most of the development of tourism. It will be a focus of this research to explore whether the perception of travel time, travel distance in conjunction with available time to travel have an impact in decision-making of potential tourists to South Africa.

3.2.2.11 Image formation and the Role of Media

Image formation concepts carry important consequences for the behavioural intentions of potential visitors and re-visits to a destination (Walker, Kaplanidou, Gibson, Thapa, Geldenhuys & Coetzee, 2013:82; Rodríguez Molina, Frías-Jamilena, & Castañeda-García, 2013:107). In research done by Chen *et al.* (2013:189) a significant relationship has been found between destination image and travel constraints during the early decision-making process. The biggest contributors to formation processes that produces destination image are firstly the organic image of a destination due to daily exposure to mass media (for example television, newspapers, documentaries, social media and blogs). Induced image, transformed from organic image to induced image due to exposure to promotional materials (advertisements). In the absence of physical visitation of a destination image are formed through exposure to induced agents. Complex images are induced images that becomes complex after visiting a destination (Chen *et al.*, 2013:200).

During the build-up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, 500,000 international visitors were expected; however, these numbers were reduced due to certain contributing factors identified by FIFA and the Local Organising Committee. A key deterrent for many potential travellers was the destination image of South Africa as presented within the British media with newspaper publicity surrounding fear and

uncertainty over safety and security (Hammet, 2014:221). Findings of research done during the pre, lead-up, and post event phases show that a higher level of adverse media coverage was apparent during the pre- and lead-up periods (Swart, Linley & Bob, 2013; Allen, Knott & Swart 2013; Lepp & Gibson, 2011). Considering the challenges, it remained an opportunity to offset the negative perceptions of the country as well as the continent. The key findings from this research state that the overall views changed to a more positive perception over the four time periods of the research, with the UK as the only exception due to the negative media attention of the murder of Annie Dewani in 2010 (Swart *et al.*, 2013:1979). .

It is clear from the above that there are various constraints. However, no consensus on exactly which factors or combination of factors might inhibit potential tourists to travel to South Africa.

3.3 RESEARCH METHOD

In the following section, the research methodology will be discussed followed by the results from the empirical research.

3.3.1 Sampling and description of sampling

In this research, a quantitative method was used to obtain data. According to Maree and Pietersen (2007:145), a quantitative method by definition is systematic and objective in its use of numerical data from a specifically selected subgroup of a population to simplify the findings of the population that is being researched. Descriptive and causal research design was implemented to summarise data in a meaningful way and investigate different variables and the effect they have on each other (Pietersen & Maree, 2007:183). Two different approaches were followed where non-probability sampling was applied in both cases. A complete list of residents of France and visitors to France that have not visited South Africa was not obtainable and therefore a complete sampling framework was not available.

In the absence of a complete sample framework, it firstly was argued that people who visit tourism attractions in France must have a propensity to travel and might consider international travel or are already travelling internationally. Secondly, a screening question related to previous travel to South Africa was asked to

respondents to determine whether they have previously travelled to South Africa. Where respondents indicated the latter to be true, they were not considered in the survey

3.3.2 Data collection method

The questionnaire (See Addendum 1) was developed according to the demographic variables, travel-decision variables and constraint variables identified in the literature review and previous research (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007; Sheela, 2007; Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999; Dellaert *et al.*, 1998). The questionnaire consisted of three sections: Section 1 focused on demographic information (for example age, education level, gender), Section 2 on the travel behaviour of respondents (for example number of holidays annually, preferred destinations, time of travel, type of travel) and Section 3 on the constraints pertaining to the decision to not visit South Africa (for example crime, economic factors, word-of-mouth messages). This research is exploratory in nature and therefore the questionnaire was also subjected to reliability and validity tests. Sections 1 and 2 mainly consisted of close-ended questions whereas in Section 3 a 4-point Likert-scale question was used. According Jupp (2006:161), a Likert scale is used for measuring attitudes by using a summarised rating scale that includes a series of statements expressing a favourable or an unfavourable attitude. For the purpose of this study, a 4-point Likert Scale was specifically used to avoid giving respondents the option of choosing a neutral option. The study's objective was to determine attitudes, either favourable or unfavourable towards South Africa as a potential tourism destination.

3.3.3 Distribution Process

Data was gathered in two phases by means of probability sampling, more specific simple random sampling was used for the sample frame. During phase one, a total number of 182 questionnaires were distributed by the researcher himself between 21 June and 30 June 2014 in key strategic tourism attractions in France which included Paris (Eiffel Tower, Sacré-Cœur, Montmartre); Angers (Le Château d'Angers, The Maine River) and Nice. Thus not only focusing on French nationalities as a target population, but also on the international and long-haul travelling market to France as statistics have indicated that the latter niche market made a significant contribution

on the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of France in 2011 (ETC, 2011:15). By using the resources that the Université d'Angers provided in negotiating accessibility with the authorities of the above mentioned attractions as well as communication and assisting in translation with the local tourists.

During phase 2 a total number of 91 questionnaires were distributed by means of Facebook to potential international travellers who have not visited South Africa before between August and December 2014. A total number of 273 questionnaires were completed to be used in the analyses. The sampling procedure was based on guidelines set by Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) for general research activities, which indicated that the recommended sample size (S) for a population (N) of 1,000,000 is 384. The probability that different nationalities will be present in the key strategic points was considered in the questionnaire. Limitations in terms of access to respondents, language barriers, time and financial constraints did contribute to the researcher not reaching the recommended sample size.

3.3.4 Statistical analysis

The data were collected and captured by the researcher, processed by a statistician of Statistical Services at North West University and interpreted by the researcher. Descriptive statistics were used focusing on the graphical display of frequency Tables. From the information sustained through the sampling, a factor analysis was done on constraints and these constraints were grouped according to their factor loadings to determine the most important constraints inhibiting potential tourists from travelling to South Africa.

3.4 RESULTS

The empirical results are presented in three sections, namely (1) the general profile and (2) travel behaviour of the respondent population based on samples taken as described in the previous section. Thirdly, a factor analysis was done on Section 3 of the questionnaire pertaining constraints inhabiting respondent's decision to not visit South Africa. A factor analysis purpose is to identify groups of variables and to reduce a dataset to a more meaningful size without omitting any of the original information (Field, 2005:619). These constraints were grouped according to their

factor loadings in order to determine the most important constraints inhibiting potential tourists from travelling to South Africa.

3.4.1 Demographic profile of respondents

The demographic information consisted of Section 1 in the questionnaire and included questions 1 to 7 (Table 3.1). The following results are evident:

Table 3.2: Demographic information frequencies

CATEGORY	VARIABLE	COUNT	VALID %	VARIABLE	COUNT	VALID %
DEMOGRAPHIC	<u>Gender</u>			<u>Occupation</u>		
	Male	135	49.5	Professional	64	23.8
	Female	138	50.5	Management	18	6.7
				Administrative	14	5.2
	<u>Age</u>			Technical	14	5.2
	< 19 years	21	10.1	Sales	9	3.3
	20-24 years	55	26.4	Civil service worker	9	3.3
	25-34 years	78	37.4	Education	33	12.3
	35-49 years	32	15.3	Student	78	29
	50-64 years	20	9.8	Unemployed	14	5.2
	65+ years	2	1	Housewife	2	0.7
				Pensioner	1	0.4
	<u>Marital status</u>			Other	13	4.8
	Single	142	52			
	In a Relationship	54	19.8	<u>Nationality</u>		
	Engaged	10	3.7	French	101	37
	Married	57	20.9	British	33	12.1
	Divorced	8	2.9	American	24	8.8
	Other	2	0.7	Australian	14	5.1
				Canadian	12	4.4
	<u>Level of Education</u>			Singaporean	11	4
	Higher Education	69	25.3	Dutch	10	3.7
	Diploma/ Degree	135	49.5	New Zealander	8	2.9
	Post Graduate	53	19.4	German	6	2.2
	Other	16	5.9	Swedish	6	2.2
				Italian	5	1.8
	<u>Family Size</u>			Swiss	4	1.5
	No Children	183	68.8	Belgian	4	1.5
1 Child	24	9	Other	35	12.8	
2 Children	35	13.2				
3-4 Children	23	8.6				
More than 4 children	1	0.4				

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Table 3.1 portrays the results obtained from collected data with regards to gender, age, marital status, family size, nationality occupation and level of education. The

majority of respondents were female by a slight margin of 50.5%. The majority of respondents were between the ages of 25 and 34 years (37%) followed by younger respondents between the ages of 20 and 24 years (26.4%). Most of the respondents were single respondents (52%) without children (68%) with a diploma or degree (49.5%) or are either currently a student (29%) or in a professional career (23.8%). The fact that most respondents were young and busy studying did present its challenges for the purpose of this study. However, considering that students are the future travel market it is still vital to get their opinions for medium to long term planning. Most of the respondents who actually visited the main tourist sites where the distribution of the questionnaires occurred were in fact from the above mentioned demographic profile. This also reveal a lot about the type of market who visit attractions and potentially spend money on direct and indirect tourism businesses. With regards to nationality, the majority of respondents were French (37%) followed by British (12.1%), American (8.8%), Australian (5.1%) and Canadian. However, quite a big portion of the respondents (12.8%) form part of other nationalities, too small to have an impact on the results individually. Amongst these nationalities are Chinese, Brazilian, Indian, Moroccan, Irish, Portuguese and Scottish. Therefore, respondents were primarily single (52%) female (50.5%) students (29%) from France (37%) between the ages of 25-34 years (37%).

The travel behaviour information consisted of Section B in the questionnaire and included questions eight to fourteen (Table 3.2). In summary, the typical respondent's travel behaviour indicates that they take 2-3 holidays (42.1%) and short trips (34%) per year either domestically (37.3%) or internationally (34.8%). The average respondent's last two destinations visited are Spain (11%) and England (7.4%), while the majority perceive USA (10.5%) and Australia (9.9%) as a more favourable destination than South Africa. From the results it is evident that the respondents in the target market do travel internationally frequently (between 2 and 3 international trips annually). Of this target market that travel often, South Africa did not feature once as a destination visited in the last twelve months. The majority of respondents are from Europe (French: 37%; British: 12.1%) and the majority of last destinations visited are in Europe which could indicate that either travelling distance; budget constraints or accessibility play an important role.

However the nationalities following the latter are mostly from long haul destinations (America: 8.8%; Australian: 5.1%; Canadian: 4.4%). Destinations more favourable than South Africa as perceived by respondents (USA: 10.5%; Australia: 9.9%; Kenya: 9.2%; Brazil: 5.7%) are also long haul destinations, which therefore contradicts an earlier observation that travel distance plays an integral role. Interesting to note that three African destinations are perceived as more favourable than South Africa according to respondents with majority indicating Kenya (9.2%). As previously stated a large portion of the responses (18.7%) form part of 'other' more favourable destinations as perceived by respondents.

3.4.2 Travel behaviour profile of respondents

Table 3.3: Travel behaviour

CATEGORY	VARIABLE	COUNT	VALID %	VARIABLE	COUNT	VALID %
TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR	<u>Number of holidays per year</u>			<u>Number of domestic trips per year</u>		
	One	57	21	One	40	14.9
	2-3 holidays	114	42.1	2-3 domestic trips	100	37.3
	4-5 holidays	44	16.2	4-5 domestic trips	34	12.7
	More than 5 holidays	43	15.9	More than 5 trips	36	13.5
	None	13	4.8	None	58	21.6
	<u>Number of shorter trips per year</u>			<u>Number of international trips per year</u>		
	One	40	14.9	One	74	27.7
	2-3 short trips	91	34	2-3 international trips	93	34.8
	4-5 short trips	46	17.2	4-5 international trips	20	7.5
	More than 5 trips	60	22.4	6-10 international trips	22	8.3
	None	31	11.6	More than 10 trips	5	1.9
	<u>More favourable destinations than SA</u>			<u>Last two international destinations</u>		
	USA	48	10.5	Spain	54	11.0
	Australia	45	9.9	England	36	7.4
	Kenya	42	9.2	France	35	7.2
	Brazil	26	5.7	Italy	33	6.7
	France	23	5.1	USA	23	4.7
	Spain	20	4.4	Netherlands	22	4.5
	England	18	4.0	Germany	17	3.5
	Morocco	14	3.1	Belgium	14	2.9
	Egypt	12	2.6	Indonesia	13	2.7
	Tanzania	11	2.4	Australia	12	2.5
	Italy	10	2.2	Greece	11	2.2
	New Zealand	9	2.0	Senegal	9	1.8
	Japan	8	1.8	Mexico	9	1.8
	Europe	8	1.8	Thailand	9	1.8
	Madagascar	8	1.8	Malaysia	8	1.6
	Canada	7	1.5	Morocco	8	1.6
	Thailand	7	1.5	Portugal	6	1.2
	Tunisia	7	1.5	New Zealand	6	1.2
	South America	7	1.5	Turkey	6	1.2
	India	7	1.5	Vietnam	6	1.2
Greece	6	1.3	Canada	6	1.2	
Netherlands	5	1.1	Europe	5	1.0	
Turkey	5	1.1	Austria	5	1.0	
Senegal	5	1.1	Denmark	5	1.0	
Indonesia	4	0.9	Ireland	5	1.0	
Argentina	4	0.9	Other	126	25.8	
Germany	4	0.9				
Other	85	18.7				

Source: Researcher's own compilation

3.4.3 Travel inhibitors to South Africa

Table 3.4: Factors, eigenvalues and percentage of variance explained

Factors	Eigenvalues	Percent of variance explained	Cumulative percent
External Inhibitors	10.50	29.15	29.15
Destination Attributes	2.49	6.93	36.08
Security Inhibitors	1.89	5.24	41.32
Structural Constraints	1.51	4.21	45.52
Intrapersonal Inhibitors	1.39	3.86	49.38
Intention Inhibitors	1.32	3.66	53.05
Information Access	1.22	3.39	56.43
Circumstantial Constraints	1.11	3.08	59.52
Preference Constraints	1.01	2.80	62.32

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Exploratory factor analysis was performed on the 36 items to reveal any underlying patterns of responses. A 9-factor solution, of which 5 factors yielded reliable factors, was obtained by using a Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalisation to indicate logical groupings of travel constraints (refer to Table 3.3). To determine the suitability of the data for a factor analysis the KMO measure of sampling adequacy, the Bartlett test of Sphericity and only factors with Eigenvalues of greater than 1.0 were deemed appropriate. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.885 which is highly acceptable (Field, 2005:633) with the Bartlett test Sphericity ($p < .000$) being significant. Nine factors with Eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were generated from 36 constraints attributes.

The factor loadings are displayed in Table 3.4 and the percentage of variance explained by each factor plus eigenvalues (all over 1.0) are indicated in Table 3.3. The total variance explained by this factor solution is 62.32% with factor 1 explaining 29% and is therefore the most significant factor.

Table 3.5: Factor analyses of travel inhibitors to South Africa

Inhibiting Factors Factor Label	Factor Loadings								
	External Inhibitors	Destination Attributes	Security Inhibitors	Structural Constraints	Intrapersonal Inhibitors	Intention Inhibitors	Information Access	Circums. Constraints	Preference Constraints
External Inhibitors									
The health risks are too high	0.80								
Health services are below standard	0.77								
The service in South Africa is poor	0.71								
South Africa is a malaria-infested area	0.70								
There are too many public service delivery strikes and protests	0.68								
The infrastructure is below standard	0.68								
South Africa is too polluted	0.67								
The accommodation is poor	0.66								
South Africa is too dirty	0.61								
There are too many bad reviews on Social Media about South Africa	0.59								
There is political unrest in South Africa	0.58								
It is not accessible to travel within South Africa	0.57								
I am worried about being exposed to diseases such as HIV Aids	0.54								
South Africa has a bad reputation as a tourism destination	0.48								
My friends and family advised me against travelling to South Africa	0.41								
Destination Attributes									
The climate in South Africa is not favourable		0.72							
There are not enough attributes of attractiveness and beauty		0.63							
The South African exchange rate is too strong		0.61							
There is not enough entertainment, shopping and night life		0.55							
Security Inhibitors									
I do not feel safe to travel to South Africa			0.76						
I heard too many bad things about South Africa			0.74						
I hear a lot of bad stories in the news about South Africa			0.56						
Structural Constraints									
It is too expensive to travel to South Africa				0.81					
I do not have the money to travel to South Africa				0.66					
I do not have the time to travel to South Africa				0.51					
I would rather go to a closer destination				0.48					
South Africa is too far away to travel				0.47					
Intrapersonal Inhibitors									
My children are too small to travel to South Africa					0.74				
My own health deters me from travelling to South Africa					0.57				
The travel agents advise me against travelling to South Africa					0.42				
Intention Inhibitors									
I am not interested in travelling to South Africa in general						0.83			
I am just not interested in South Africa as a tourism destination						0.80			
Information Access									
There is too little information available about South Africa							0.66		
Circumstantial Constraints									
I support green travel practices and therefore travel less								0.81	
The current economic crisis does not allow me to travel								0.60	
Preference Constraints									
I cannot find anyone who wants to join me on a trip to South Africa									0.70
Cronbach Alpha Coefficient	0.92	0.75	0.66	0.67	0.50	-	-	-	-
Inter-item correlation mean	0.45	0.42	0.39	0.29	0.25	-	-	-	-
Mean Value and Standard Deviation	1.77 (0.55)	1.59 (0.48)	2.11 (0.68)	2.3 (0.62)	1.37 (0.68)	-	-	-	-

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Factor 3, *Security Inhibitors*, includes three attributes including: “Safety in South Africa” (0.76); “Heard bad things about South Africa” (0.74) and lastly “Bad stories in the newspaper” (0.56). The Cronbach Alpha for this factor is 0.66, which is sufficient with an inter-item correlation of 0.39, a mean value of 2.11 and standard deviation of ± 0.68 . Significant to this research, results indicate that perception of security amongst tourists who have never visited South Africa is perceived as a real inhibitor.

Structural Constraints (factor 4) consist of attributes such as “It’s too expensive” (0.81); “I don’t have the money” (0.66); “Limited time to travel” (0.66) and “Travel distance” (0.46). Although the values are lower than the previous factor, the Cronbach Alpha is 0.67 with an inter-item correlation of 0.39 and for the purpose of this research these values will suffice. The mean value and standard deviation of 2.30 and ± 0.62 is similar to Factor 3 and therefore respondents agree that structural constraints might influence their decision to travel to South Africa. This is also the highest mean value of all the factors that agrees with the items as being a potential constraint. The two items with the highest factor loadings both include budget and monetary issues as a potential constraint while the latter two items include constraints relevant to time and travel distance. However, the Cronbach alpha and inter-item correlation scored the second lowest results which could influence the validity and reliability of the factor. Significant to this research, the result indicates that budget and disposable income together with travel distance forms a difficult combination. The combination of the two potential constraints forms an integral part of the decision-making models of Rugg (1973); Morley (1992); Crompton (1979); Um & Crompton (1992); Crompton (1992); Crompton and Ankomah (1993) and Dellaert *et al.* (1998). Also important to note that the existence of these constraints disclose in the early decision-making phases of the above mentioned author’s research.

Factor 1 is called “*External Constraints*”. Fifteen items with factor loadings above 0.4 constitute this factor namely: health risks (0.80); health services (0.77); poor service (0.71); malaria risks (0.70); public service delivery strikes (0.68) to name a few. The Mean Value and Standard Deviation is respectively 1.77 and ± 0.55 with a high level of reliability with a Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of 0.92 and an inter-item correlation of 0.45.

These results are indicative that the factor with most significant percent of variance explained (29%), the respondents disagree with external constraints potentially having an impact on their decision to visit South Africa. Interesting in this analysis is that items concerning destination image and word-of-mouth have the lowest factor loadings with 0.48 and 0.41 respectively. In comparison, all items to do with health related constraints have the highest factor loadings while service related and infrastructure related items scores average on the factor loadings.

Four attributes form part of factor 2 called, *Destination Attributes*. Significant factor loadings can be observed with attributes such as “the climate of South Africa” (0.72); “attributes of attractiveness and beauty” (0.63); “foreign exchange” (0.61) and “entertainment” (0.55). The Cronbach Alpha for this factor is 0.75 with an inter-item correlation of 0.42. The mean value and standard deviation is 1.59 and ± 0.48 . Similar to the first factor respondents disagree with destination attributes having impact in the way they perceive South Africa as a potential destination. The factor loadings are mostly evenly distributed and not significantly different from each other.

Factor 5, *Intrapersonal Inhibitors* includes “Personal Health” (0.57), “Siblings” (0.74) and “Travel agents influence” (0.42). The Cronbach Alpha for this factor is 0.50, an inter-item correlation of 0.25, a mean value 1.37 and standard deviation of ± 0.68 . Of all the factors explained, Personal Health has the lowest Cronbach Alpha and inter-item correlation, which could bring the mean value of 1.37 (disagreement) into question.

The final four factors could not be labelled due to low Cronbach Alpha coefficients. These items will be reported on in their individual capacity. “General interest in South Africa” indicated a mean value of 1.61, while “Interest in South Africa as a destination” indicated a mean value of 1.72. With regards to availability of information the mean value indicated was 2.35. The mean value related to green travel practices was 1.52 and the current economic crises 1.96. Lastly, with regards to travelling company a mean value of 1.97. From the factors that were not labelled, it is evident that respondents only agreed to the “lack of information” (2.35) as a potential constraint.

3.5 FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on the results, the following findings and implications were revealed:

Firstly, respondents have never visited South Africa before however; they travel internationally 2-3 times annually. Furthermore, the majority of respondents originated from either Europe (France & UK) or America. These groups of respondents thus do travel but not to South Africa, which highlights the importance of knowing what inhibit them from choosing this country as their next holiday stop. Secondly, destinations more favourable than South Africa as perceived by respondents are all long haul destinations relative to the nationality of the respondents. The destinations most frequently visited in the past year were either European or American destinations.

Novel to this research, it is evident that the target market is a travelling market that perceived other long-haul destinations more favourable than South Africa of which four of the top ten destinations were on the African Continent.

The first two findings have one implication as proposed by the researcher. The aim of this research is to investigate why people are not considering South Africa as a desired destination. The focus is therefore on non-users (non-travellers) and it is often a neglected dimension in travel decision-making (Hsu & Kang, 2009:707; Hudson & Gilbert, 2002:142; Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999:28; Schmierer & Jackson, 2006:64). Most of the statistical analysis focuses on inbound tourism to South Africa and is being done on visitors and en-route visitors to South Africa during flights, airports and at border posts. It is of the researcher's opinion that more research and resource allocation is needed on non-users rather than on tourists that already made the decision to travel to South Africa. Statistics on the profile of the current market and travel intentions remains important and service quality is important for maintaining the current markets to South Africa and to generate more word-of-mouth marketing. However, to grow the market share of South African tourism, the focus should be on the reasons and constraints that inhibit tourists from traveling to South Africa and then focus efforts on influencing perceptions of the travelling market about South Africa.

This can be done by means of target marketing efforts to certain countries in Europe, America and even Eastern countries through tour operators, trade shows and possibly social networks. It is important to constantly remind the current and potential market of South Africa as tourism destination and what it offers.

Thirdly, respondents indicated that they agree that *Security Inhibitors* might potentially impact their decision to travel to South Africa. As indicated in the literature review, the relationship between security, specifically crime and tourism has been researched extensively over the last twenty years. The majority of research states that security and perceptions of security impact decision making and tourism demand negatively (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009; Pizam & Mansfield, 1996; George 2003; Kim & Chalip, 2004; Pizam & Mansfield, 1999). The two research studies directly relevant to this research are the work of George and Swart (2013) as well as Donaldson and Ferreira (2009). This is in line with the results from the work of Donaldson and Ferreira (2009:15), where the perceptions towards South Africa with regards to crime, safety and security were negative with respondents before they travelled to South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Interestingly, respondent's perception changed while visiting South Africa. The majority of respondents indicated that they would consider recommending South Africa to other people or even potentially revisit South Africa in the future. Security issues especially crime have received a fast amount of scrutiny from media especially with the world's eyes on South Africa hosting the FIFA World Cup in 2010. *Security Inhibitors* in contradiction with what the media indicates and what was anticipated does play a role, but not such a significant role as expected.

The implication of *Security Inhibitors* include the following: Crime statistics against inbound travellers are miniscule as most violent crimes occur between people who know each other and these crimes are mostly localised, mainly affecting the poorest neighbourhoods where tourists are unlikely to visit (Plantive, 2010). However, it is still evident that perceptions of crime are a constraint amongst non-users (Selby *et al.*, 2010:193). It is of the researcher's opinion that to deal with negative publicity from media, more reliable information and statistics will be needed and made available, especially a comparison between crime statistics with inbound tourist arrival statistics and actual crimes against tourists. It is also important to be active in

the media to put criminal incidents in perspective for potential travellers. Crime is everywhere but it that is the only message that potential tourists see they will be discouraged to travel to South Africa.

Fourthly, respondents agreed *Structural Constraints* might potentially inhibit them from travelling to South Africa. Most of the decision-making models refer to budget, disposable income and money as the main constraint and/or decision-making variable for choosing a destination (Rugg, 1973; Morley, 1994; Papatheodoro, 2001). It is therefore no surprise that respondents consider it as a significant inhibitor or motivator not to travel. Of all the different constraint types, marketers have the least control over *External Constraints* and *Structural Constraints* including budget, discretionary income and time and travel distance. South Africa can however exploit this situation by using the exchange rate as a marketing tool. Advertisements should portray that visitors will receive value for their money as well as a five-star experience.

Lastly, respondents are not directly influenced by: *External Inhibitors; Destination Attributes* and *Intrapersonal Inhibitors*. With regards to *External Inhibitors, specifically health risks*, South Africa remains the area most heavily affected by HIV/ Aids in the world. One would assume that this would serve as a major constraint to potential visitors, especially from developed countries as suggested by Nieman, Visser and Van Wyk (2008:293). According to Aliza, Mansfield, Shlomit and Israel (2011) health risk perception ranks relatively high against other types of risk perception. However, the results from the empirical research suggest otherwise. Respondents either did not agree with the health risks South Africa as a destination could impose or the results could be a reflection of the respondents' lack of awareness of the health risks involved when travelling to South Africa. Ara, Vartti, Schreck, Turtiainen and Uutela (2009:68) state that a high majority of Finish tourists have the tendency to take high health risks when traveling to developing countries, however it is more common with tourists younger than 40 years than those older than 40 years.

As clearly stated in South Africa Yearbook (2009/2010:492) one of the strengths of South African tourism is in fact the rich biodiversity, fauna, flora and wildlife. Furthermore, South Africa is also amongst the top developed countries in Africa

which makes South Africa the shopping and nightlife hub of Africa. Therefore, the results of this *Destination Attributes* concur with what South Africa is known for in the global tourism industry.

Frías, Rodríguez, Sabiote and Buhalis (2012:445) indicate based on empirical results that international tourists' pre-visit image is influenced by the level of uncertainty avoidance of their national cultures. Thus, tourists from high uncertainty avoidance cultures, such as France, Belgium or Italy, hold more favourable destination images after having only used the travel agency than after having used both the travel agency and the Internet, the former being an information source that is more on keeping with their culture-bound preferences. The use of the Internet in addition to the travel agency negatively influence destination image since the Internet is an information source associated with risk and therefore inconsistent with their culture. This could be indicative of the inconsistent results from the results explained in *Intrapersonal Inhibitors*. In the next section, conclusions will be made regarding the article.

This implies that non-visitors might be easily convinced to visit South Africa especially the younger market. All efforts should be directed at increasing first-time visits as tourists leave South Africa with good memories and experiences. This will be of value in future visits, word-of-mouth recommendations and positive news about South Africa.

3.6 CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this research was to apply a factor analysis to determine the key constraints inhabiting respondent's decision to visit South Africa. Based on previous research, limited studies includes constraints/inhibitors and non-participation as part of the decision-making models and therefore a better understanding is needed of what keeps people from visiting a destination. As per the focus of the research, South Africa has ample potential to grow as the leading tourist destination first of all in the continent of Africa and amongst the best in the world. Understanding how people perceive South Africa and what inhibits them from visiting South Africa, will aid marketing efforts. The literature review indicated that constraint theory and research into non-participation is limited. While at the same time numerous types of

constraints might have an impact on the way South Africa is perceived by non-participants.

From the research, it is clear that there are clear constraints inhibiting people from travelling to South Africa. *Structural Constraints* are perceived as the most significant inhibitors by the target market. *Structural Constraints* correlate with previous research as one of the most significant factors in the early decision-making process, Intense marketing efforts can however improve non-visitors views on structural constraints. *Security Constraints*, the second most significant inhibitor, partly correlate with previous research. Supporting research indicates perceived *Security Constraints* are likely to change once an actual visit to South Africa has taken place. The main challenge for government bodies as well as public and private destinations will be to change the perceptions about security in South Africa based on actual experiences of previous tourists. It is however evident that active media-reporting is needed in South Africa and across borders to put negative events in perspective.

Within the context of this study, there are some positives. Results on inhibitors that the majority of the respondents disagreed with and that indicated it would not inhibit them from visiting South Africa narrows the path significantly towards the right direction. This also implies that the work already done specifically on health risks have had some success. This also implies that word-of-mouth marketing do have an effect specifically with regards to *Destination Attributes*.

As stated earlier, research into non-users is limited. To the knowledge of the researcher, this study is the first of its kind within the context of South Africa. The research was novel with regard to the development and assessment of a measuring instrument that might be standardised after testing it with different respondent groups. This research is the beginning of what must still be done to fully grasp the effects of constraints on inhibiting people from travelling. Not only does South Africa have other important target markets that will validate or refute the results of this target market, but also for tourism literature in general. More resources will be needed in getting a larger population of respondents. The questionnaire will need to be assessed in more than just one study to get the best possible results and work towards the standardisation thereof. To ensure growth of different target markets to South Africa it is important to continue with this type of research and create new

opportunities for South African to capitalise on. This research contributes to literature by developing and assessing an extensive list of travel constraints, developing a structured questionnaire and delivering reliable results in a developing country context

CHAPTER 4: THE INFLUENCE OF DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS AND TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR ON TRAVEL INHIBITORS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Hudson and Gilbert (2002:137), behavioural concepts, such as decision-making, are at the heart of marketing in tourism, hospitality and leisure, and have been researched extensively. It is essential for marketing departments, managers and national marketing initiatives to understand how internal, psychological processes influence individuals to decide on a certain holiday destination or a particular type of tourism product or service or why they do not (Hudson & Gilbert, 2002:137). Previous studies have indicated that socio-demographic and travel behaviour variables in the tourism industry can influence potential tourists' perceptions of and attitudes towards tourism (Ribeiro, Valle & Silva, 2013:660). Kruger, Viljoen and Saayman (2013:148) state that demographic characteristics and travel behaviour in tourism research are important for assessing the needs of potential and existing tourists. Demographic segmentation is also the most commonly used and extensively studied in tourism literature. However, Alegre, Mateo and Pou (2009:546) state that many socio-demographic variables only explain the participation decision. According to Hung, Shang and Wang (2013:612), the traditional segmentation approach is followed when visitors are segmented according to their travel activities and is based on tourism expenditure. However, more recent segmentation approaches have found that when factors related to demographic and socio variables and geographical location are ignored, tourism participation can be incorrectly estimated.

Although ample research into demographic characteristics and travel behaviour exists, research mostly assumes that the outcome is tourism participation (Ryan, 1998:3; Funk, Alexandris & Ping, 2009:43; Ritchie, Tkaczynski & Faulks, 2010:412; Lee & Joh, 2010:488). Research into non-users in tourism is a neglected dimension of tourism research (Hudson and Gilbert, 1999:70). To the knowledge of the researcher, no research exists on the influence of demographic characteristics and travel behaviour on travel inhibitors. It is also assumed in literature that travel

inhibitors would result in non participation (Jackson and Rucks, 1995:85). The ability of potential tourist on negotiating through these constraints is also absent in research. If the above mentioned is not considered in previous research, neither would the relationship of additional dimensions such as demographic characteristics and travel behaviour on inhibitors exist.

The main purpose of this chapter is to conduct a correlation analysis between the inhibiting constraints on non-users from travelling to South Africa, and the socio-demographic characteristics and travel behaviour to determine the influence, correlation and re-occurrence of certain constraints. The knowledge gained in this research will facilitate more in-depth analysis of potential visitors and their behaviour. This will assist marketers to identify different types of non-users for whom different marketing messages can be developed. A further understanding of the constraints these groups face can assist in altering potential demand into purchase decisions (Hudson & Gilbert, 2002:142).

4.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Understanding not only the effect of constraints on decision-making, but also how decisions can further be influenced based on their socio-demographic characteristics and travel behaviour has an important influence on the growth of the South African tourism industry. In Table 4.1, the socio-demographic and travel behaviour factors (independent variables) impacting on constraint factors (dependent variable) of South Africa as a destination are described as *Gender, Age, Marital Status, Level of Education, Nationality, Family Composition, Occupation, Holidays per Annum, Shorter trips per Annum, Domestic Trips and International Trips*. These factors, together with the dependent variables, will be discussed in the following section.

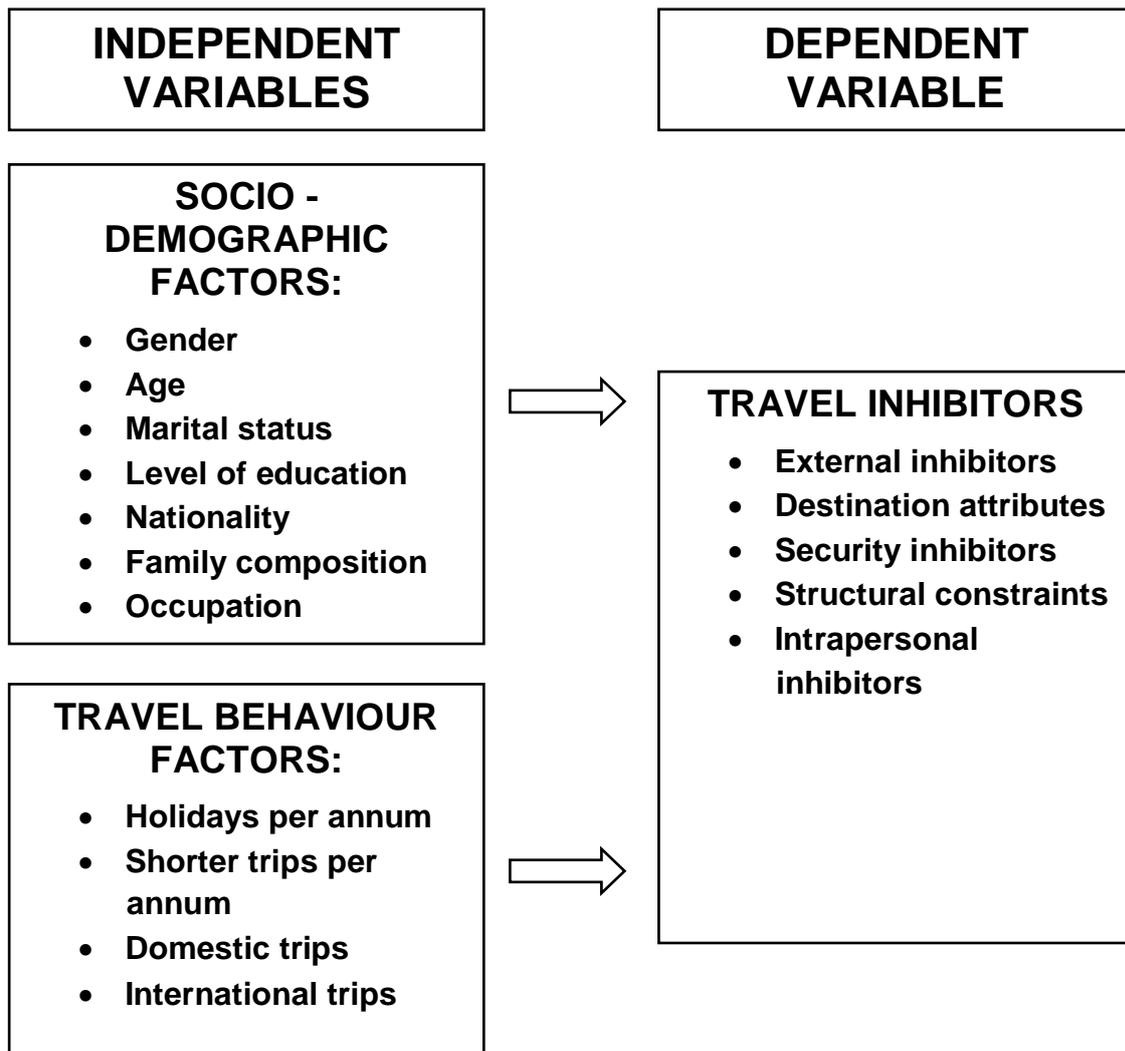


Figure 4.1: Theoretical model
 Source: Researcher's own compilation

4.2.1 Dependent Variable: Travel Inhibitors

Hudson and Gilbert (1999:70), as well as Dellaert *et al.* (1998:315), state that constraints were recognised in previous studies however, to date, most studies are limited in how they deal with the general concept of constraints in market and product development as well as in marketing. These constraints determine restrictions on the set of possible alternatives from which tourists can choose travel options. Therefore, the tourism industry should not only seek to understand decision-making processes, but should attempt to comprehend the range of constraints preventing non-tourists from becoming tourists to a specific destination. The purpose of this section is to understand the range of constraints inhibiting tourists and non-tourists from visiting South Africa. From the factor analysis the following inhibitors were eminent and grouped as follows: *External inhibitors, Destination attributes, Security inhibitors, Structural constraints and Intrapersonal constraints.*

4.2.1.1 External Inhibitors

External inhibitors include factors such as *Health risks and services*, *Influence of word-of-mouth*, *Destination infrastructure*, *Destination service quality* and *Political unrest*.

Political unrest refers to examples of protests, violence, civil and international wars, as well as political coups. There are various reasons for protests in South Africa, which include complaints about lack of water, sanitation, electricity, housing and infrastructure in general, lack of response by local authorities, billing issues, the lack of employment and business opportunities, and high crime rate (Bond & Mottair, 2013:290). More recently xenophobia attacks in South Africa against foreign nationals have broken out and these could have an enormous impact on the tourism industry in South Africa, similar to the same occurrence in 2008 (Adeleke, Omitola & Olukole, 2008).

As regards *health risks and services*, the most recent significant outbreak in this century is that of the Ebola virus. According to the South African Update (2014), a recent decrease in tourism in South Africa is evident, mainly due to the fear of an Ebola outbreak rather than the outbreak itself. Another health risk or perceived health risk is HIV/Aids. According to Van Dyk (2012:7), South Africa constitutes 16.9% of the entire population of Aids sufferers worldwide and is the country with the largest population of people who are HIV-positive. Malaria is another health risk that might influence decision-making.

A *lack of accessibility*, linking the places in which a tourism venture is operating, discourages tourists from visiting the site and from buying the tourism products. Forstner (2004:497) states that tourism ventures are constrained by a lack of knowledge and that market access to tourism ventures should be facilitated by intermediaries such as private companies, membership organisations, public sector institutions and non-governmental organisations.

South Africa is not known for its impeccable *service quality* in the tourism sector (Department of Environmental Affairs (South Africa, 1996; Nicolaidis, 2008). The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism established poor service as one of the key constraints in the development of tourism in South Africa since 1996.

The benefits of positive *word-of-mouth* (WOM) include the creation of a positive image of destinations, but also increase the awareness of the destination by people who are not that familiar with it. Lin (2012:837) states that destinations are directly and significantly influenced in a direct marketing environment when a service failure or negative WOM occurs.

4.2.1.2 Destination Attributes

Destination attributes include factors such as *Climate, Attributes of attractiveness and beauty, Shopping, Entertainment and Foreign exchange*.

The *climate* and *attributes of attractiveness and beauty* have always been among the strengths of the South African tourism industry. South Africa's diversity in flora and fauna (such as wildlife and marine life) and climate benefit South Africa as a potential tourism destination (South Africa Yearbook, 2009/2010). The weak South African *exchange rate* serves more as an attribute than an inhibitor for the European and American market with a Rand (ZAR) against the Euro (EU) exchange rate of R16.49 according to OANDA (2015) on 16 December 2015.

4.2.1.3 Security Inhibitors

Security Inhibitors include factors such as *perceived safety and security* and the impact of *word-of-mouth* and the *news* on the perceptions of potential tourists.

Donaldson and Ferreira (2007:355) state that safety and security are important for South Africa's target consumers in all its core markets. Radical improvement in this regard is needed or South Africa's image as a tourist destination will deteriorate further and many tourists who might have visited South Africa will choose safer destinations. There are so many destinations to choose from, which makes the travel decision-making process more intense.

4.2.1.4 Structural Constraints

Structural constraints include factors such as *budget, money, disposable income and time* and *travel distance* of potential tourists.

In contrast to the previous types of constraints, this section focuses on the target market's economic behaviour as a possible constraint to visiting South Africa.

Budget, disposable income and money form an integral part of the decision-making of potential tourists to a destination (Rugg, 1973; Morley, 1992; Papatheodoro, 2001). Alegre, Mateo and Pou (2010:45) examined whether households have the capacity to afford (annual) holidays and state the importance of households' budget constraints as a barrier to participation in tourism. The households' probability of being able to afford a holiday is not just dependent on their level of income, but on their financial situation, which could include the households' saving capacity, employment stability, and housing tenure status. *Time constraints* refer to time spent travelling to a destination (Rugg, 1973; Morley, 1992; Papatheodoro, 2001) and time available at the primary and secondary destinations (Botti, Peypoch & Solonandrasana, 2010). Alegre *et al.* (2010:48) comment that family size, time and physical constraints limit tourism participation. Dickinson and Peeters (2014:11) state that the number of hours worked per week has decreased while annual holiday privileges have increased in most industrialised nations, adding a rising disposable income into the mix, which led to rapid growth in the tourism sector.

4.2.1.5 Intrapersonal Inhibitors

Intrapersonal inhibitors include factors such as *family size and composition, personal health and the impact of travel intermediaries* on potential tourists. The above-mentioned factors either have been discussed as part of the previous sections, or will be covered in the section following regarding the *Independent Variables*.

4.2.2 Independent Variable: Socio-Demographic Factors

The influence of socio-demographic characteristics on tourism behaviour is often underestimated and judged as academically uninteresting (Tangeland, Aas & Odden, 2013:192; Bernini & Cracolici, 2015:191). Bernini and Cracolici (2015:192) state that even if there are demographic changes on a worldwide level, it does not necessarily mean that all factors would be relevant and/or significant for tourism research. Tangeland *et al.* (2013:192) further state that socio-demographic characteristics have less predictive power because of the indirect influence they have on behaviour. However, it can be argued that socio-demographic methods have been used with ample success due to the cost-effective nature, simplicity and applicability to any business setting. Knowledge of the type of demographic profile one deals with provides a platform for extensive and more complex analysis and

gives an insight into how changes in the population's demographic conformations affect future market trends. Bowen (1998:289) states that demographic variables are in most cases more easily measurable than most other variables since consumer needs and wants are usually influenced by demographic variables. Alegre *et al.* (2009:531) state that socio-demographic variables show an explanatory influence on the participation decision of tourists. Saayman and Saayman (2009:2) mention that in the theory of consumer behaviour, personal factors refer to the socio-demographic characteristics of individuals as well as the psychological characteristics. Socio-demographic characteristics can include: gender, age, level of education, family life cycle, social class and place of residence. On the other hand psychological characteristics usually refer to motivation, values, personality and lifestyle. According to Saayman and Saayman (2009:2) a combination of socio-demographic and motivational factors influences visitor spending decisions.

In the following section the socio-demographic characteristics considered for the purpose of this study (*Gender, Age, Marital status, Level of education, Nationality, Family size and Occupation*) will be discussed briefly.

4.2.2.1 Gender

With regard to business and psychology studies, research indicates that in general men are more likely to take greater risk, also pay more, and thus display lower risk antipathy. However, where the questions of the empirical research were phrased differently as a willingness to accept a certain task, women will not accept less than men (Lam & Ozorio, 2013:791; Wieland, Sundali, Kemmelmeier & Sarin, 2014:558). Research concerning customer satisfaction (delight) shows that males' satisfaction was dependent on their needs being met, for example punctual service, whereas females' satisfaction was influenced by staff friendliness and professionalism (Torres, Fu & Lehto, 2014). Similar findings by Diep and Sweeney (2008:402) indicate that gender differences influence consumer evaluations: for example, material possessions tend to be more important to men for functional motives, but more important to women for symbolic motives. Men are more practical in their perceptions of value than women are, while women respond more to hedonic and emotional attachment to value. Research done on the travel behaviour of British students indicates the different product decisions and push-and-pull factors between

genders. Where male students prefer nightlife and entertainment in their choice of holiday destination, females placed higher importance on shopping opportunities at the preferred destination (Bicikova, 2014:859). If there is a clear differentiation between men and women regarding perceived value, risk and hedonic pleasures, the question should be asked whether perceptions of the constraints of a destination would also be different. *Gender* will be considered an independent variable in the research.

4.2.2.2 Age

According to Li, Li and Hudson (2013:147), a population can be classified according to the ages of the individuals or generations that are different not only in terms of their age but by the events that shaped the generation. As a generation age, certain belief systems or core values remain intact similar to an individual who ages. Similar behaviour and consumption patterns can be seen based on age. According to Baloglu and McCleary (1999:875) an individual's age plays a significant role in the perceived image of a destination. Previous research by Li *et al.* (2013:148) as well as Oh, Cheng, Lehto and O'Leary (2004:311) found that people between the ages of 51 and 69 tend to be the most lucrative tourism market due to their affluence. This market therefore comprises the biggest spenders and most frequent travellers. While people over 69 years of age tend to take longer trips, people between the ages of 35 and 50 mostly undertake family holidays. Lastly, people between the ages of 25 and 34 are more active travellers, but are not big spenders due to the fact that their careers are only starting to take off. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no previous studies specifically assessed the influence of age on travel constraints. The variable *Age* will be considered an independent variable in the research.

4.2.2.3 Marital status/Family size

People first tend to consider with whom they are travelling and what kind of experience they prefer, before they decide on the destination (Obrador, 2012:408). Tourism scholars have defined tourism as something that happens outside a person's normal everyday environment and it therefore disregards the very notion of the family whose place is the home. According to Kluin and Lehto (2012:823), travel motivations become more complex when investigation includes more than an individual traveller such as families. The size and composition of the family (the

number of children and/or elderly persons) affect preferences with regard to a number of decisions, such as participation, destination choice, and available spending money. For example, smaller families with no children are more likely to travel than large families, which have more economic and physical constraints (Bernini & Cracolici, 2015; Collins & Tisdell, 2002). According to Collins and Tisdell (2002:803), family lifecycles assist in explaining tourism patterns through life - from young and single individuals to the older individuals who might have lost a partner to death. According to Collins and Tisdell (2002:812) when it comes to holiday tourism, newly married and single people have the most disposable income because fewer people are dependent on them and they are likely to spend money on luxuries such as holidays. Families and single parents experience a decrease in holiday expenditure due to commitments like house bonds and dependants. The empty nest period, where the previously dependent family members are out of the house and independent, is the second peak in the holiday tourism market. As a person grows older a decrease in holiday activity can be expected, not due to a lack of time, but most likely due to health concerns and the running down of assets. It is important to note that the patterns mentioned above are influenced by family size, employment status and discretionary income. The variables *Marital status* and *Family size* will be considered an independent variables in the research.

4.2.2.4 Level of education and Occupation

Among the other socio-demographic characteristics of individuals that may act on the tourism participation process, the role of the level of education and occupation is important. Education and employment are usually used as substitutes for future income potentials and to represent social class differences (Alegre *et al.*, 2010; Bernini & Cracolici, 2015). Existing studies confirm that level of education amongst other factors has a great effect on tourists' destination choice (Van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Wu, Zhang & Fujiwara, 2011; Bernini & Cracoli, 2015). In a study done by Alegre *et al.* (2010:44) on Spanish households' tourism expenditure, results showed that the higher the level of education of the family's head breadwinner, the higher the spending levels during the holiday. Therefore the level of education increases the probability of tourism participation significantly. With regard to destination choice, occupation, level of education and past travelling experience of tourists have a significant influence on the use of information sources (Sarma & Baruah, 2013:67).

As regards *Occupation*, Bernini and Cracolici (2015:199) state that the occupation status of the head of the household affects tourism participation significantly. The occupational status of the householder who is unemployed or a housewife negatively affects the probability of participating in tourism activity at an international and national level. Furthermore, similar results could be observed when it comes to students, mainly due to economic constraints. In contrast, the occupation status of retired people positively affects participation in travelling nationally as well as internationally. Families whose breadwinner has a job at managerial level or who is self-employed are more likely to travel to both destinations. Office workers are more likely to travel than manual workers. Occupation status is indirectly linked with the economic condition of a family and therefore Bernini and Cracolici (2015:199) state that increased income strongly and positively affects the decision to travel. In summary, as found in previous literature, the *level of education* and *occupation status* seem to be relevant determinants of tourism participation at international and national level and will therefore be considered as an independent variable in the research.

4.2.2.5 Nationality/Country of residence

According to Pizam and Sussman (1995:901), the role of nationality characteristics in affecting tourist behaviour has been investigated extensively. Tourists of different nationalities behave in different ways. Ample studies seeking to account for differences in tourist behaviour are justified when it comes to nationality with the likes of Woodside and Lysonski (1989); Richardson and Crompton (1988); Sheldon and Fox (1988) and lastly Yiannakis, Leivadi and Apostolopoulos (1991). A particular study with relevance to this research was the research done by George and Swart (2013:215) on tourists' risk perceptions while visiting South Africa during the FIFA World Cup in 2010. Results indicate that, in particular, tourists' country of origin/nationality/culture have a significant effect on perceptions of South Africa as a safe place. The research specifically focused on perceived personal risks and safety implicating indirectly the influence of crime on their perceptions. The findings also suggest that perceptions of safety contrast among tourists from different cultures. The results provide evidence of cultural characteristics influencing travel-risk perception generally rather than being specific to visits to South Africa. However, Dann (1993) openly disagrees with the practice of using nationality and/or country of

residence as marketing segmentation variables by tourism organisations. Based on his argument, nationality as a sole variable may complicate research when the following factors are taken into account: multiple nationalities; not all nationalities of the same country of residence have the same culture; countries build on immigration, for example Australia and America cannot be viewed as a single national entity; lastly many tourist-receiving countries are pluralistic in their cultures. For the purpose of this study, *Nationality* and *Country of residence* will be considered as an independent variable in the research. In the following section, the indirect variable of *Travel behaviour factors* will be considered in the literature review.

4.2.3 Independent Variable: Travel Behaviour Factors

Travel behaviour can be defined as what people do over a specific time and is subject to various factors such as personality, lifestyles, values, motives, norms and culture (Pizam & Sussman, 1995; Carr, 2002). Travel behaviour has been researched extensively and the basis of travel behaviour is travel motivation (Slabbert, Saayman & Van der Merwe, 2012:137; Van Vuuren & Slabbert, 2011:695; Lee & Joh, 2010:499). Literature is also saturated with studies that examine motivations to travel and tourist behaviour (Ryan, 1998:3; Funk, Alexandris & Ping, 2009:43; Ritchie, Tkaczynski & Faulks, 2010:412; Lee & Joh, 2010:488). Although travel motivations and behaviour have enjoyed much attention and most of the principles can be applied universally, Van Vuuren and Slabbert (2011:694) found that factors influencing travel decisions in South Africa are scarce. The travel behaviour factors identified for the purpose of this study include: *Number of holidays per annum; Number of shorter trips per annum; Number of domestic trips per annum* and *Number of international trips per annum*. Literature relevant to the above-mentioned factors is unknown to the researcher; however, ample statistics exist regarding the travel patterns of the target market considering the above-mentioned factors.

According to the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2015:1) the number of international tourists increased by 4.7% in 2014 - 15 million more tourists than the previous year - which is a good indication that people are travelling. The major international outbound continents for travel are Europe and Asia, with growing markets of 17% each. However, the biggest travelling nations are Germany,

America, China, UK, Canada and France. With regard to South Africa as a tourism destination, tourism in 2013 increased by 4.7%, with the biggest arrivals being from African countries, arriving either by land or air. As regards the international arrivals, all continents showed an increase in arrivals, with the biggest growth in markets outside of Africa being Germany, France, Italy, Japan and China. In terms of biggest market by numbers the UK, USA, Germany, China and France remain the biggest source markets for South Africa (SAT, 2014b). In terms of travel behaviour, the purpose of visit amongst all the markets was dominated by leisure and secondly business, with length of stay increasing from 8 nights per capita to 9 nights per capita, while the average stay for leisure purposes was 11 nights on average (SAT, 2014b).

It is evident that a range of factors might influence travel decision-making with regard to socio-demographic factors, travel behaviour and inhibitors. However, limited research exists on the relationship between inhibitors on people to visit a destination, as in this case specifically South Africa and the influence of socio-demographic and travel behaviour factors on these constraints.

4.3 RESEARCH METHOD

In the following section, the research methodology will be discussed, followed by the results from the empirical research.

4.3.1 Sampling and description of sampling

Two different approaches of non-probability sampling were followed to conduct the quantitative study. A complete list of residents of France and visitors to France that have not visited South Africa was not obtainable and therefore a complete sampling framework was not available.

France has a population of 62,814,233 while Paris has a population of 10.410 million (Central Intelligence Agency, 2015), the city Angers has a population of 147 571 (Angers.FR, 2015) and Nice has a population of 1.005 million (About-France.Com, 2015). While a complete sample framework was unavailable, it firstly was argued that people who visit tourism attractions in France must have a propensity to travel and might consider international travel or are already travelling internationally.

Secondly, a screening question was asked of respondents in order to determine whether the respondents had previously travelled to South Africa, in which case only non-travellers to South Africa were considered.

4.3.2 Data collection method

The questionnaire (See Appendix A & Appendix B) was developed according to the demographic variables, travel-decision variables and constraint variables identified in the literature review and previous studies (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007; Sheela, 2007; Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999; Dellaert *et al.*, 1998). Section one of the questionnaire focused on obtaining demographic information (for example age, education level and gender) and section two on travel behaviour of respondents (for example number of holidays annually, preferred destinations, time of travel, type of travel). Section one and two mainly consisted of closed questions. The last section focused on the constraints preventing respondents from potentially visiting South Africa (for example crime, economic factors, word-of-mouth influences) whereby Likert-scale questions were used. The questionnaire was subjected to reliability and validity testing and is exploratory in nature.

4.3.3 Distribution process

During the first phase, 182 questionnaires were distributed between 21 June and 30 June 2014 by means of convenience sampling in key strategic tourism attractions in France, which include Paris (Eiffel Tower, Sacré-Cœur, Montmartre etc.); Angers (Le Château d'Angers, the Maine River) and Nice. Potential respondents were approached directly, asked the screening question and requested to complete the questionnaire. In this way not only were French nationalities focused on as a target population, but also the international and long-haul travelling market of France.. The resources that the Université d'Angers provided were used in negotiating accessibility with the authorities of the above-mentioned attractions as well as in communication and assisting in translation with the local tourists.

During the second phase 91 questionnaires were distributed by means of snowball sampling through Facebook between August and December 2014. The sampling procedure was based on guidelines set by Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) for general research activities, which indicated that the recommended sample size (S)

for a population (N) of 1,000, 000 is 384. The likelihood that different nationalities other than Europeans would form part of the target market was considered in the questionnaire.

A total of 273 questionnaires were completed to be used in the analyses. Although this cannot be considered representative of all international and long-haul travelling markets to South Africa, the results provided clear information on constraints and non-travelling to South Africa.

4.3.4 Statistical analysis

The data was collected and captured by the researcher, processed by a statistician of Statistical Services at North West University and interpreted by the researcher. Descriptive statistics focusing on the graphical display of frequency tables were used. The empirical results are presented in the following sequence namely, (1) the demographic profile and (2) travel behaviour of the respondent population based on samples taken. Thirdly, an exploratory factor analysis pertaining to constraints inhibiting respondents' decisions not to visit South Africa was done on section three of the questionnaire. According to Field (2005:619) a factor analysis is a technique for identifying groups of variables to comprehend the structure of set variables and to reduce a data set to a more meaningful size without compromising any of the original information. These constraints were grouped according to their factor loadings in order to determine the most important constraints inhibiting potential tourists from travelling to South Africa.

Lastly, correlation analysis between the inhibiting constraints on non-users not to travel to South Africa based on their demographic characteristics and travel behaviour preferences was done by means of *t*-tests and ANOVAs. A *t*-test is a technique to compare two independent groups or variables in order to measure one outcome (Field, 2005:285), while ANOVAs test situations where several independent variables interact with one another (Field, 2005:309). The main objective of this chapter is to determine to what extent the identified constraints are associated with or unrelated to demographic characteristics and travel behaviour preferences.

4.4 RESULTS

In the following section, results from the empirical research will be discussed. Firstly the demographic profile of respondents will be analysed, followed by the travel behaviour profile. The factor analysis on inhibitors will also be covered in this section. Lastly a correlation analysis will be done to determine the relationship between constraints, travel behaviour and demographic characteristics.

4.4.1 Demographic profile of respondents

The demographic information was contained in Section A of the questionnaire and included questions one to seven. The following results are evident:

Results obtained from collected data with regard to gender, age, marital status, family size, nationality, occupation and level of education are displayed in Table 4.1. The majority of respondents were female by a slight margin of 50.5%. Most respondents were between the ages of 25-34 years (37%), followed by younger respondents between the ages of 20-24 years (26.4%). Respondents were mostly single (52%), without children (68%), with a diploma or degree (49.5%) or either currently a student (29%) or in a professional career (23.8%). The majority of respondents were French (37%), followed by British (12.1%), Americans (8.8%), Australians (5.1%) and Canadians. As indicated in Table 4.1, quite a substantial number of respondents were of other nationalities, but it is too small to be meaningful independently. Amongst these nationalities are respondents from China, Brazil, India, Morocco, Ireland, Portugal and Scotland.

Therefore, respondents were primarily single (52%), female (50.5%), and students (29%) from France (37%), between the ages of 25-34 years (37%). Significant observations from the distribution process and in line with what the results indicate where that most respondents were young and busy studying. This in itself did present its challenges for the purpose of this study. These however, have different benefits as well considering that students are the future travel market. It remains important to get their opinions for medium to long term planning of destination marketing. Most of the respondents who actually visited the main tourist sites in Paris where distribution took place were in fact from the above mentioned

demographic profile. This also reveals a lot about the type of market who visit attractions and potentially spends money on direct and indirect tourism businesses.

Table 4.1: Demographic information frequencies

CATEGORY	VARIABLE	COUNT	VALID %	VARIABLE	COUNT	VALID %
DEMOGRAPHIC	<u>Gender</u>			<u>Occupation</u>		
	Male	135	49.5	Professional	64	23.8
	Female	138	50.5	Management	18	6.7
				Administrative	14	5.2
	<u>Age</u>			Technical	14	5.2
	< 19 years	21	10.1	Sales	9	3.3
	20-24 years	55	26.4	Civil service worker	9	3.3
	25-34 years	78	37.4	Education	33	12.3
	35-49 years	32	15.3	Student	78	29
	50-64 years	20	9.8	Unemployed	14	5.2
	65+ years	2	1	Housewife	2	0.7
				Pensioner	1	0.4
	<u>Marital status</u>			Other	13	4.8
	Single	142	52	<u>Nationality</u>		
	In a Relationship	54	19.8	French	101	37
	Engaged	10	3.7	British	33	12.1
	Married	57	20.9	American	24	8.8
	Divorced	8	2.9	Australian	14	5.1
	Other	2	0.7	Canadian	12	4.4
				Singaporean	11	4
	<u>Level of Education</u>			Dutch	10	3.7
	Higher Education	69	25.3	New Zealander	8	2.9
	Diploma/ Degree	135	49.5	German	6	2.2
	Post Graduate	53	19.4	Swedish	6	2.2
	Other	16	5.9	Italian	5	1.8
				Swiss	4	1.5
	<u>Family Size</u>			Belgian	4	1.5
	No Children	183	68.8	Other	35	12.8
1 Child	24	9				
2 Children	35	13.2				
3-4 Children	23	8.6				
More than 4 children	1	0.4				

Source: Researcher's own compilation

4.4.2 Travel behaviour profile of respondents

The travel behaviour information constituted Section B of the questionnaire and included questions 8-14 (Table 4.2). The following results are evident:

Respondents in general prefer to take between 2-3 holidays (42.1%) and /or shorter trips (34%) per year. While 37.7% prefer to travel within the borders of their country, 34.8% prefer international trips (See Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Travel behaviour

CATEGORY	VARIABLE	COUNT	VALID %	VARIABLE	COUNT	VALID %
TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR	<u>Number of holidays per year</u>			<u>Number of domestic trips per year</u>		
	One	57	21	One	40	14.9
	2-3 holidays	114	42.1	2-3 domestic trips	100	37.3
	4-5 holidays	44	16.2	4-5 domestic trips	34	12.7
	More than 5 holidays	43	15.9	More than 5 trips	36	13.5
	None	13	4.8	None	58	21.6
	<u>Number of shorter trips per year</u>			<u>Number of international trips per year</u>		
	One	40	14.9	One	74	27.7
	2-3 short trips	91	34	2-3 international trips	93	34.8
	4-5 short trips	46	17.2	4-5 international trips	20	7.5
	More than 5 trips	60	22.4	6-10 international trips	22	8.3
	None	31	11.6	More than 10 trips	5	1.9
	<u>More favourable destinations than SA</u>			<u>Last two international destinations</u>		
	USA	48	10.5	Spain	54	11.0
	Australia	45	9.9	England	36	7.4
	Kenya	42	9.2	France	35	7.2
	Brazil	26	5.7	Italy	33	6.7
	France	23	5.1	USA	23	4.7
	Spain	20	4.4	Netherlands	22	4.5
	England	18	4.0	Germany	17	3.5
	Morocco	14	3.1	Belgium	14	2.9
	Egypt	12	2.6	Indonesia	13	2.7
	Tanzania	11	2.4	Australia	12	2.5
	Italy	10	2.2	Greece	11	2.2
	New Zealand	9	2.0	Senegal	9	1.8
	Japan	8	1.8	Mexico	9	1.8
	Europe	8	1.8	Thailand	9	1.8
	Madagascar	8	1.8	Malaysia	8	1.6
	Canada	7	1.5	Morocco	8	1.6
	Thailand	7	1.5	Portugal	6	1.2
	Tunisia	7	1.5	New Zealand	6	1.2
	South America	7	1.5	Turkey	6	1.2
	India	7	1.5	Vietnam	6	1.2
	Greece	6	1.3	Canada	6	1.2
	Netherlands	5	1.1	Europe	5	1.0
	Turkey	5	1.1	Austria	5	1.0
Senegal	5	1.1	Denmark	5	1.0	
Indonesia	4	0.9	Ireland	5	1.0	
Argentina	4	0.9	Other	126	25.8	
Germany	4	0.9				
Other	85	18.7				

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Quite a big percentage of the results (25.8%) is too small to have an impact on the results individually; conversely, respondents indicated they had most recently travelled to the following destinations: Spain (11%); England (7.4%); France (7.2%); Italy (6.7%); USA (4.7%); Netherlands (4.5%) and Germany (3.5%). Destinations that were perceived as more lucrative options than South Africa by the respondents were USA (10.5%); Australia (9.9%); Kenya (9.2%); Brazil (5.7%); France (5.1%); Spain (4.4%); England (4%); Morocco (3.1%) and Egypt (2.6%). In the top 10 more

lucrative destinations, four destinations are African destinations, three European; two destinations are from the American continent and one from Australasia.

In summary, the typical respondent's travel behaviour indicates that he/she takes 2-3 holidays (42.1%) and short trips (34%) per year either domestically (37.3%) or internationally (34.8%). The average respondent's last two destinations visited are Spain (11%) and England (7.4%), while the majority perceive USA (10.5%) and Australia (9.9%) as being more favourable destinations than South Africa.

4.4.3 Travel inhibitors to South Africa

Exploratory factor analysis was performed on the 36 items to reveal any underlying patterns of responses. A 9-factor solution was obtained by using a Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization to indicate logical groupings of travel constraints (refer to Table 4.3). In order to determine the suitability of the data for a factor analysis, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy, Bartlett's test of sphericity and only factors with eigenvalues of greater than 1.0 were deemed appropriate.

Table 4.3: Factors, eigenvalues and percentage of variance explained

Factors	Eigenvalues	Percentage of variance explained	Cumulative percent
External Inhibitors	10.50	29.15	29.15
Destination Attributes	2.49	6.93	36.08
Security Inhibitors	1.89	5.24	41.32
Structural Constraints	1.51	4.21	45.52
Intrapersonal Inhibitors	1.39	3.86	49.38
Intention Inhibitors	1.32	3.66	53.05
Information Access	1.22	3.39	56.43
Circumstantial Constraints	1.11	3.08	59.52
Preference Constraints	1.01	2.80	62.32

Source: Researcher's own compilation

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.885 which is highly acceptable (Field, 2005:633) with Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .005$) being significant. Nine factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were generated from 36 constraint attributes. The factor loadings are displayed in Table 4.3, and the percentage of variance explained by each factor plus eigenvalues (all over 1.0) are indicated in Table 4.4. The total variance explained by this factor solution is 62.32% with factor 1 explaining 29%, and therefore the most significant factor.

Table 4.4: Factor analysis of travel inhibitors to South Africa

Inhibiting Factors Factor Label	Factor Loadings								
	External Inhibitors	Destination Attributes	Security Inhibitors	Structural Constraints	Intrapersonal Inhibitors	Intention Inhibitors	Information Access	Circums. Constraints	Preference Constraints
External Inhibitors									
The health risks are too high	0.80								
Health services are below standard	0.77								
The service in South Africa is poor	0.71								
South Africa is a malaria-infested area	0.70								
There are too many public service delivery strikes and protests	0.68								
The infrastructure is below standard	0.68								
South Africa is too polluted	0.67								
The accommodation is poor	0.66								
South Africa is too dirty	0.61								
There are too many bad reviews on Social Media about South Africa	0.59								
There is political unrest in South Africa	0.58								
It is not accessible to travel within South Africa	0.57								
I am worried about being exposed to diseases such as HIV Aids	0.54								
South Africa has a bad reputation as a tourism destination	0.48								
My friends and family advised me against travelling to South Africa	0.41								
Destination Attributes									
The climate in South Africa is not favourable		0.72							
There are not enough attributes of attractiveness and beauty		0.63							
The South African exchange rate is too strong		0.61							
There is not enough entertainment, shopping and night life		0.55							
Security Inhibitors									
I do not feel safe to travel to South Africa			0.76						
I heard too many bad things about South Africa			0.74						
I hear a lot of bad stories in the news about South Africa			0.56						
Structural Constraints									
It is too expensive to travel to South Africa				0.81					
I do not have the money to travel to South Africa				0.66					
I do not have the time to travel to South Africa				0.51					
I would rather go to a closer destination				0.48					
South Africa is too far away to travel				0.47					
Intrapersonal Inhibitors									
My children are too small to travel to South Africa					0.74				
My own health deters me from travelling to South Africa					0.57				
The travel agents advise me against travelling to South Africa					0.42				
Intention Inhibitors									
I am not interested in travelling to South Africa in general						0.83			
I am just not interested in South Africa as a tourism destination						0.80			
Information Access									
There is too little information available about South Africa							0.66		
Circumstantial Constraints									
I support green travel practices and therefore travel less								0.81	
The current economic crisis does not allow me to travel								0.60	
Preference Constraints									
I cannot find anyone who wants to join me on a trip to South Africa									0.70
Cronbach Alpha Coefficient	0.92	0.75	0.66	0.67	0.50	-	-	-	-
Inter-item correlation mean	0.45	0.42	0.39	0.29	0.25	-	-	-	-
Mean Value and Standard Deviation	1.77 (0.55)	1.59 (0.48)	2.11 (0.68)	2.3 (0.62)	1.37 (0.68)	-	-	-	-

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Structural Constraints (factor 4) consist of attributes such as “It’s too expensive” (0.81); “I don’t have the money” (0.66); “Limited time to travel” (0.66) and “Travel distance” (0.46). Respondents agreed that structural constraints might influence their decision to travel to South Africa. This is also the highest mean value of all the factors that agree with the items as being a potential constraint.

Factor 3, *Security Inhibitors*, includes three attributes, including “Safety in South Africa” (0.76); “Heard bad things about South Africa” (0.74) and lastly “Bad stories in the newspaper” (0.56). The Cronbach alpha for this factor is 0.66, which is sufficient with an inter-item correlation of 0.39, mean value of 2.11 and standard deviation of ± 0.68 . Significant to this research, results indicate that perception of security seems to be a real inhibitor amongst tourists who have never visited South Africa.

“*External Inhibitors*” consist of: health risks (0.80); health services (0.77); poor service (0.71); malaria risks (0.70); public service delivery strikes (0.68), to name a few. The respondents disagree with external constraints potentially having an impact on their decision to visit South Africa.

In Factor 2, namely *Destination Attributes*, significant factor loadings with attributes such as “the climate of South Africa” (0.72); “attributes of attractiveness and beauty” (0.63); “foreign exchange” (0.61) and “entertainment” (0.55) can be observed. Respondents disagree with destination attributes having an impact on the way they perceive South Africa as a potential destination. This relates to the results from factor 1, *External Inhibitors*. The factor loadings are mostly evenly distributed and not significantly different from each other.

Factor 5, *Intrapersonal Inhibitors*, includes “Personal health” (0.57), “Siblings” (0.74) and “Travel agents’ influence” (0.42). The Cronbach alpha for this factor is 0.50, with an inter-item correlation of 0.25, a mean value of 1.37 and standard deviation of ± 0.68 . Respondents disagreed most that *Intrapersonal Inhibitors* can influence their decision not to travel to South Africa.

Although the last four factors cannot be used in further analyses (low Cronbach alpha values), they were labelled as *Intention Inhibitors*, *Information Access*, *Circumstantial Constraints* and *Preference Constraints*.

4.4.4 Relationships between key travel inhibitors and demographic characteristics and travel behaviour

T-tests, ANOVAs and Spearman correlations were implemented to determine the relationships between key travel constraints, demographic characteristics and travel behaviour. The structure of the question determined the method used to analyse these relationships. Only the factors that constituted an independent factor in the previous analyses were utilised in this section.

4.4.4.1 The influence of gender

A *t*-test was conducted to examine whether gender influenced the evaluation of travel constraints to South Africa. Table 4.5 revealed that gender does not influence travel constraints since no significant differences were evident. Even perceptions regarding security and intrapersonal constraints did not differ significantly between males and females. Although no correlation between gender and influencing constraints can be found in the data, it is interesting to note that in general, males scored less than females on the mean and standard deviation values - in other words, they disagreed more on the impact of constraints. This is in line with literature stating that men in general prove to be more prone to taking risks (Lam & Ozorio, 2013:791; Wieland, Sundali, Kemmelmeier & Sarin, 2014:558). Another interesting finding is that both males and females disagree with all of the constraint factors, except for Security Inhibitors and Structural Constraints.

Table 4.5: Influence of gender on travel inhibitors

Key Constraints	Male N=124	Female N=125	F-value	p-value
	<i>Mean & Std dev</i>	<i>Mean & Std dev</i>		
External Inhibitors	1.71 (±0.50)	1.83 (±0.55)	0.89	0.64
Destination Attributes	1.56 (±0.51)	1.62 (±0.49)	0.47	0.32
Security Inhibitors	2.07 (±0.65)	2.14 (±0.69)	0.19	0.44
Structural Constraints	2.24 (±0.68)	2.35 (±0.54)	6.43	0.19
Intrapersonal inhibitors	1.32 (±0.41)	1.42 (±0.48)	3.34	0.08

* $p \leq 0.050$

Source: Researcher's own compilation

4.4.4.2 The influence of age

Based on the results from the ANOVA indicated in Table 4.6, it is evident that respondents' age did not have an influence on their assessment of inhibitors on travelling to South Africa. In the context of this study, Baloglu and McCleary (1999:875) findings indicated that an individual's age plays a significant role in the perceived image of a destination are not relevant and results indicate that specifically age had no impact on respondents' perceptions of travel constraints. The only significant indication from the results is that in general all age categories were more concerned about Security Inhibitors and Structural Constraints.

Table 4.6: Influence of age on travel inhibitors

Key Constraints	≤ 19 N=17	20-24 N=54	25-34 N=70	35-49 N=30	≥ 50 N=18	F-value	p-value
	Mean & Std dev						
External Inhibitors	1.79 (0.70)	1.73 (0.52)	1.85 (0.48)	1.72 (0.52)	1.82 (0.51)	0.59	0.67
Destination Attributes	1.64 (0.53)	1.59 (0.55)	1.68 (0.51)	1.54 (0.42)	1.67 (0.46)	0.53	0.71
Security Inhibitors	2.08 (0.80)	1.94 (0.62)	2.13 (0.65)	2.17 (0.65)	2.22 (0.83)	1.01	0.41
Structural Constraints	2.07 (0.46)	2.43 (0.59)	2.37 (0.61)	2.21 (0.69)	2.39 (0.52)	1.60	0.18
Intrapersonal inhibitors	1.79 (0.81)	1.50 (0.59)	1.65 (0.73)	1.77 (0.61)	1.47 (0.58)	1.34	0.26

* $p \leq 0.050$

Source: Researcher's own compilation

4.4.4.3 The influence of marital status

The influence of marital status on travel inhibitors is evident in Table 4.7. The ANOVA revealed significant correlations between External Inhibitors ($p=0.021$), Destination Attributes ($p=0.041$), Security Inhibitors ($p=0.019$), Intrapersonal Inhibitors ($p=0.000$) and marital status. In the case of external inhibitors respondents that were engaged ($M=2.15$) rated this constraint more important than those in the other marital groups, especially the category named 'Other' ($M=1.13$). It is, however, important to note that only two respondents were in the category named 'Other'. With regard to the evaluation of destination attributes, it was also found that engaged

respondents rated this constraint more important (M=1.90) than respondents from other marital groups. Once again the category 'Other' (M=1.00) disagreed that destination attributes had limited effect on their travel decisions. In the case of security inhibitors, those respondents that were engaged (M=2.43) rated this matter as a more important influential factor than the other marital groups. Single respondents had the least concerns when it comes to security inhibitors (M=1.97).

Table 4.7: Influence of marital status on travel inhibitors

Key Constraints	Single N=129	In a relationship N=50	Engaged N=10	Married N=52	Divorced N=6	Other N=2	F- value	p- value
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
External Inhibitors	1.69 (0.50)	1.81 (0.53)	2.15 (0.66)	1.86 (0.53)	1.84 (0.44)	1.13 (0.94)	2.699	0.021*
Destination Attributes	1.53 (0.52)	1.63 (0.48)	1.90 (0.34)	1.70 (0.48)	1.54 (0.40)	1.00 (0.00)	2.358	0.041*
Security Inhibitors	1.97 (0.62)	2.21 (0.57)	2.43 (0.93)	2.29 (0.73)	2.00 (0.94)	2.17 (0.24)	2.751	0.019*
Structural Constraints	2.21 (0.61)	2.44 (0.63)	2.38 (0.54)	2.39 (0.62)	2.37 (0.48)	1.40 (0.28)	2.278	0.232
Intrapersonal inhibitors	1.25 (0.36)	1.35 (0.46)	1.83 (0.50)	1.60 (0.48)	1.50 (0.63)	1.00 (0.00)	0.119	0.000*

* $p \leq 0.050$

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Lastly, intrapersonal inhibitors with the most significant p-value ($p=0.000$) reveal that most engaged respondents agree more with the influence of this constraint on their travel decisions (M=1.83) than the 'Other' group (M=1.00) and single respondents (M=1.25). Due to the limited representation of engaged people in the sample, these findings can indicate a trend that should be further explored. It is, however, evident that there is a relationship between travel constraints and marital status. Novel to this study, it is evident that single respondents, who represented the majority of the sample, disagree more with all the constraints, except for structural constraints that, in return, refer to money and budget constraints. It is important to note that all groups in this section agreed more with structural constraints as an inhibitor of travelling to South Africa.

4.4.4.4 The influence of level of education

According to the results of the ANOVA displayed in Table 4.8, destination attributes was the only constraint factor significantly influenced by education level ($p < 0.050$). Respondents with a diploma/degree considered destination attributes ($M = 1.67$) as a more important travel constraint than respondents of other educational levels. It is evident from literature that education level does influence, first of all, participation in leisure holidays; secondly, destination choice; thirdly, spending while on holiday and lastly, the usage of information resources (Van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Wu, Zhang & Fujiwara, 2011; Bernini & Cracolici, 2015; Alegre *et al.*, 2010:44; Sarma & Baruah, 2013:67).

Table 4.8: Influence of level of education on inhibitors

Key Constraints	Higher Education N=62	Diploma/ Degree N=124	Post Graduate N=49	Other N=14	F-value	p-value
	<i>Mean & Std deviation</i>					
External Inhibitors	1.76 (0.56)	1.80 (0.48)	1.68 (0.56)	1.80 (0.79)	0.725	0.538
Destination Attributes	1.57 (0.53)	1.67 (0.50)	1.43 (0.41)	1.52 (0.85)	2.934	0.034*
Security Inhibitors	2.04 (0.70)	2.13 (0.65)	2.20 (0.71)	1.88 (0.38)	1.141	0.333
Structural Constraints	2.36 (0.63)	2.36 (0.62)	2.32 (0.62)	2.21 (0.57)	0.453	0.716
Intrapersonal inhibitors	1.39 (0.54)	1.36 (0.58)	1.36 (0.47)	1.43 (0.53)	0.155	0.926

* $p \leq 0.050$

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Novel to this study is that destination attributes indicated a significant correlation with respondents with a diploma or degree. People who are more educated are more informed and hence the significant variance. The other factors noted in the literature review do not necessarily feature in this study as potential constraints in decision-making. Similar to the other socio-demographic factors, there seems to be a trend that the security inhibitors and structural constraints have the biggest impact on respondents since they agree more that these constraints, especially structural constraints, might possibly impact on their decision to travel to South Africa.

4.4.4.5 The influence of family size

It is evident from Table 4.9 that there is a significant difference for Intrapersonal Inhibitors. Respondents with one child (M=1.72) considered intrapersonal inhibitors more important than respondents with no children (M=1.30) and bigger families (M=1.58). Kluin and Lehto (2012:823) clearly state that travel motivations become more complex when investigation includes more than an individual traveller, as with families. It also affects preferences with regard to decisions such as participation, destination choice and disposable income to be spent.

Table 4.9: Influence of family size on inhibitors

Key Constraints	No Children N=171	1 Child N=20	2 Children N=30	3-4 Children N=20	> 4 Children N=1	F-value	p-value
	Mean & Std deviation						
External Inhibitors	1.74 (0.50)	1.81 (0.61)	1.82 (0.56)	1.92 (0.54)	1.00	1.159	0.330
Destination Attributes	1.58 (0.49)	1.51 (0.47)	1.59 (0.45)	1.70 (0.64)	1.00	0.728	0.574
Security Inhibitors	2.09 (0.63)	2.20 (0.62)	2.10 (0.83)	2.20 (0.81)	2.00	0.235	0.919
Structural Constraints	2.28 (0.61)	2.14 (0.51)	2.44 (0.51)	2.37 (0.75)	1.00	2.014	0.093
Intrapersonal inhibitors	1.30 (0.38)	1.72 (0.54)	1.43 (0.46)	1.58 (0.57)	1.00	6.211	0.000*

* $p \leq 0.050$

Source: Researcher's own compilation

For example, smaller families with no children are more inclined to travel than large families, which might have more economic and physical constraints (Bernini & Cracolici, 2015; Collins & Tisdell, 2002). Contradicting the findings above, families with only one child indicated a correlation with Intrapersonal inhibitors whereas families with more than one child showed no correlation with any constraints. This might also be linked to the age demographic factor, where the majority of respondents were between ages 24-34 and therefore either have young families or have just started with families. It might be that the majority of respondents only have small children.

4.4.4.6 The influence of nationality

The influence of nationality on travel constraints is evident in the results of the ANOVA (Table 4.10). Significant differences exist between External Inhibitors ($p=0.000$), Structural Constraints ($p=0.042$) and Intrapersonal Inhibitors ($p=0.018$) and nationality. In the case of external inhibitors, respondents residing in Eastern Europe ($M=2.12$) rated this constraint more important than those from Western Europe ($M=1.64$). With regard to the evaluation of structural constraints, firstly, respondents from all nationalities agreed more with the effect of structural constraints affecting their decision-making, as opposed to those from Western Europe, who were the least concerned ($M=2.19$).

Table 4.10: Influence of nationality on inhibitors

Key Constraints	Americas N=35	Australasia N=21	Asia & Africa N=30	Eastern Europe N=21	Western Europe N=147	F-value	p-value
	<i>Mean & Std deviation</i>						
External Inhibitors	1.81 (0.53)	2.00 (0.48)	1.97 (0.44)	2.12 (0.58)	1.64 (0.49)	7.232	0.000*
Destination Attributes	1.57 (0.56)	1.77 (0.42)	1.68 (0.58)	1.70 (0.59)	1.54 (0.47)	1.608	0.173
Security Inhibitors	2.00 (0.70)	2.37 (0.84)	2.23 (0.66)	2.29 (0.63)	2.06 (0.63)	1.817	0.126
Structural Constraints	2.49 (0.62)	2.39 (0.48)	2.39 (0.57)	2.45 (0.57)	2.19 (0.63)	2.523	0.042*
Intrapersonal inhibitors	1.73 (0.65)	1.74 (0.75)	1.44 (0.55)	2.02 (0.87)	1.56 (0.64)	3.051	0.018*

* $p \leq 0.050$

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Lastly, intrapersonal inhibitors reveal that Eastern Europeans agree more with the influence of this constraint on their travel decisions ($M=2.02$). Significant to this research, Eastern Europeans seemed to be more concerned with all the constraints in general, which is indicative that people from Eastern Europe might be more cautious and less willing to take travel risks.

4.4.4.7 The influence of occupation

Respondents' occupations did not have an influence on their assessment of

constraints on travelling to South Africa, as is evident in Table 4.11. The only significant finding from this section is that, similar to all the other sections, respondents from all the different occupations seem to agree more that Structural Constraints and Security Inhibitors might influence their decision to travel to South Africa.

Table 4.11: Influence of occupation on inhibitors

Key Constraints	Prof N=55	Mngt N=18	Admin N=12	Tech. N=13	Sales N=9	Civils. N=7	Ed. N=30	Student N=74	Unempl N=13	House- Wife N= 2	Pens. N=1	Other N=11	F-value	p- Value
	<i>Mean & Std deviation</i>													
External Inhibitors	1.77 (0.45)	1.61 (0.40)	2.11 (0.48)	1.68 (0.50)	1.84 (0.48)	1.79 (0.40)	1.90 (0.65)	1.73 (0.55)	1.90 (0.62)	1.73 (1.04)	1.27	1.48 (0.43)	1.349	0.198
Destination Attributes	1.37 (0.47)	1.57 (0.52)	1.79 (0.46)	1.73 (0.53)	1.50 (0.40)	1.61 (0.43)	1.54 (0.50)	1.57 (0.55)	1.44 (0.51)	1.63 (0.18)	1.25	1.45 (0.50)	0.627	0.805
Security Inhibitors	2.11 (0.59)	2.15 (0.74)	2.33 (0.68)	1.97 (0.46)	2.30 (0.66)	2.33 (0.72)	2.30 (0.78)	2.00 (0.63)	2.44 (0.81)	2.00 (1.41)	1.00	1.70 (0.46)	1.689	0.077
Structural Constraints	2.25 (0.54)	2.38 (0.70)	2.47 (0.37)	2.28 (0.95)	2.24 (0.77)	2.09 (0.49)	2.43 (0.55)	2.27 (0.62)	2.35 (0.64)	2.60 (0.28)	2.60	2.15 (0.69)	0.501	0.901
Intra-personal Inhibitors	1.45 (0.44)	1.43 (0.47)	1.47 (0.48)	1.26 (0.36)	1.44 (0.47)	1.19 (0.38)	1.47 (0.45)	1.28 (0.41)	1.33 (0.51)	1.67 (0.94)	1.00	1.30 (0.51)	1.030	0.420

* $p \leq 0.050$

Source: Researcher's own compilation

4.4.4.8 The influence of frequency of travel

The number of holidays that respondents take per annum did not influence their evaluation of travel constraints to South Africa (See Table 4.12).

Table 4.12: Influence of number of holidays per year on inhibitors

Key Constraints	One Holiday N=52	2-3 Holidays N=102	4-5 Holidays N=42	> 5 Holidays N=41	No Holidays N=11	F-value	p-value
	<i>Mean & Std deviation</i>						
External Inhibitors	1.67 (0.51)	1.74 (0.50)	1.82 (0.54)	1.82 (0.54)	2.07 (0.62)	1.676	0.156
Destination Attributes	1.51 (0.42)	1.58 (0.51)	1.66 (0.55)	1.64 (0.54)	1.66 (0.42)	0.718	0.581
Security Inhibitors	2.00 (0.61)	2.20 (0.76)	2.03 (0.57)	2.00 (0.58)	2.45 (0.50)	1.954	0.102
Structural Constraints	2.34 (0.61)	2.27 (0.62)	2.38 (0.66)	2.22 (0.62)	2.27 (0.50)	0.432	0.785
Intrapersonal inhibitors	1.31 (0.43)	1.38 (0.44)	1.37 (0.46)	1.40 (0.49)	1.48 (0.38)	0.428	0.789

* $p \leq 0.050$

Source: Researcher's own compilation

The number of short trips per annum also did not influence their evaluation of travel constraints regarding South Africa (See Table 4.13). It is also evident from Table 4.14 that there are no correlations between the number of domestic and international trips respondents take and the key travel constraints. The number of times respondents travel does not influence the way they view a destination as a more favourable or less favourable travel option.

As mentioned in previous socio-demographic factors, similar findings exist that respondents agree more in general that Structural Constraints and Security Inhibitors might alter their decision to travel to South Africa. Findings also suggest that respondents, who have not been on holiday in the last year, agree more that External Inhibitors might influence their decision to travel to South Africa.

Table 4.13: Influence of number of short trips per year on inhibitors

Key Constraints	One Holiday N=52	2-3 Holidays N=102	4-5 Holidays N=42	> 5 Holidays N=41	No Holidays N=11	F-value	p-value
	Mean & Std deviation	Mean & Std deviation	Mean & Std deviation	Mean & Std deviation	Mean & Std deviation		
External Inhibitors	1.80 (0.43)	1.78 (0.53)	1.66 (0.50)	1.82 (0.56)	1.73 (0.58)	0.663	0.618
Destination Attributes	1.59 (0.50)	1.59 (0.50)	1.58 (0.52)	1.63 (0.56)	1.54 (0.43)	0.153	0.962
Security Inhibitors	2.28 (0.62)	2.16 (0.75)	2.06 (0.52)	2.01 (0.67)	1.96 (0.64)	1.345	0.254
Structural Constraints	2.34 (0.57)	2.30 (0.61)	2.22 (0.63)	2.37 (0.63)	2.20 (0.69)	0.588	0.671
Intrapersonal inhibitors	1.36 (0.50)	1.36 (0.40)	1.37 (0.47)	1.34 (0.44)	1.49 (0.53)	0.539	0.707

* $p \leq 0.005$

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Table 4.14: Influence of number of domestic and international trips on inhibitors

Key Constraints	Domestic trips			International trips		
	Correlation coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N	Correlation coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
External Inhibitors	0.009	0.893	246	0.022	0.730	245
Destination Attributes	0.045	0.478	246	-0.062	0.337	245
Security Inhibitors	-0.005	0.937	246	0.015	0.816	245
Structural Constraints	0.001	0.985	246	-0.117	0.067	245
Intrapersonal inhibitors	-0.022	0.731	246	0.068	0.288	245

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

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Furthermore, respondents who take 2-3 holidays per year on average are more concerned with Security Inhibitors. With regard to the Spearman correlation, which measured the correlation between the number of domestic and international trips and travel constraints, the following observations can be made: Security Inhibitors and Intrapersonal Inhibitors decreased as respondents undertook trips that are more domestic. Based on the results in this section, the findings as well as recommendations will be discussed in the next section.

4.5 FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on the results, the following findings and implications were revealed:

Firstly, it was evident that respondents across different demographic characteristics rated security inhibitors and structural constraints higher and therefore as being decisive in impacting their decisions to visit South Africa. With regard to structural constraints, these findings confirm that budget, money, discretionary time and travel time do influence travel decisions to a great extent (Rugg, 1973; Morley, 1992; Crompton, 1979; Um & Crompton, 1992; Crompton, 1992; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Dellaert *et al.*, 1998). This supports the notion that a lot can be done by means of effective marketing in changing people's views of these inhibitors. Marketing should be focusing on aspects such as value for money, high levels of service and the promise of having a good experience whilst visiting this country.

Security Inhibitors remains a concern for tourists to South Africa. Literature is vested in information on security especially after the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Research indicated that people who have visited South Africa before had limited security concerns (Donaldson & Ferreira 2007:355; George & Swart 2013:56). According to Starmer-Smith (2008) no statistics were available on the number of foreign tourists who were victims of crime and that Mr Van Schalkwyk, former minister of tourism, admitted that a separate breakdown of crimes against tourists will help change perceptions that South Africa is not safe. It is evident that statistics on crime against inbound travellers are negligible as most violent crimes occur between people who know each other and these crimes are mostly localised, mainly affecting the poorest neighbourhoods where tourists are unlikely to visit (Plantive, 2010).

However, it is still evident that perceptions of crime are a real constraint amongst non-users (Selby *et al.*, 2010:193). It can be argued that the focus on safety and security,

especially for tourists during the time of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, was increased. The same focus and resources should be available at all times whether a global event occurs or not. Added to this tourist police should be in place at main tourist attractions. Literature indicated, after visiting South Africa, perceptions were changed to the point that the majority of tourists would actually recommend South Africa as a destination. Word-of-mouth (WOM) is therefore an important vehicle to change perceptions. WOM, either good or bad, occurs when a person is travelling to South Africa. However, to increase the rate of change, events that are more global should be held to change perceptions. In order to deal with negative publicity from media, more reliable information and statistics will be needed and made available, especially a comparison between statistics on crime with inbound tourist arrival statistics and actual crimes against tourists.

Structural Constraints are external factors that cannot really be influenced by marketing except for gaining a competitive advantage over countries within the same travel distance and exchange rate. A competitive advantage refers to what distinguishes the destination from other destinations that provide similar products and services. For tourism destinations to achieve better competitive market positions a number of things can be done such as more appropriate management efforts, marketing activities and improving quality of services. The result is obtained through retaining tourists, generating revisits and spreading the tourist experience through word-of-mouth marketing. Human resources are a vital part of this process. The enablement of young unskilled job seekers will ensure the price of labour relative to productivity and capital helps stimulate job creation. The encouragement of establishing new businesses by reducing the cost of tax and advanced processes for granting permits and licenses all form part of the multiplying effect that tourism can have in the long term.

Secondly, the few significant influences of *socio-demographic characteristics* on perceptions of the constraints on travelling to South Africa are worth considering. Novel to this field of study it was clear that socio-demographic characteristics do not influence decisions not to travel but rather the constraints themselves inhibit people to travel. The first step in convincing non-travellers to travel to South Africa is addressing the constraints. This can be done by development of infrastructure used by tourists, upgrading of attractions, improving accessibility to South Africa, providing packages considered as

value-for-money and creating awareness of South Africa by means of constant and consistent marketing efforts.

Thirdly, the non-significant influence of *travel behaviour characteristics* is also worth noting. Whether people travel regularly or not does not influence their opinions regarding constraints, respondents feel the same. Marketing efforts should include market penetration of unexplored markets and not just growing existing markets. The same marketing campaigns can thus be developed to attract first-time and repeat visitors to South Africa, focusing on the elements previously mentioned.

Fourthly, amongst the *socio-demographic variables* that did indicate significant correlations, *marital status* is one of the more significant variables. Results indicate that engaged people are more prone to be affected by constraints. Novel to this study, it is evident that single respondents disagree more with all the constraint factors, except for *structural constraints* which in turn refer to money and budget constraints. This is in stark contrast to the findings of Collins and Tisdell (2002:812) stating that newly married and single people have the most disposable income and are likely to spend money on luxuries such as holidays. Reasons for this can include the current economic crisis, travel distance and time since South Africa is a long-haul destination for the majority of the respondents. However, when it comes to financing travelling trips for single and young respondents, parents most likely provide funds. The implication of the current economic crisis means that less disposable income is available from the parents funding trips. The fact that marital status show some influence on the perceptions of constraints will influence the way the South African experience is packaged. Tourism marketing to young and/or single tourists has to include more information on value, safety and package options.

Nationality was also one of the independent variables indicating a significant relation to constraints. Noteworthy results indicate that, in general, respondents from Eastern European countries agree more with the majority of the constraints while Western European nationalities were least concerned with the constraints potentially impacting their decision to travel to South Africa. Similar to *marital status*, structural constraints tend to be more important than the rest of the constraints. To the knowledge of the researcher, no literature exists to support the findings of this section. However, it is evident that Eastern Europe is not part of the major global market focus of South African Tourism, which may indicate that limited resources in terms of marketing have been made available to these countries. Lack of knowledge and information might be the result of the latter. While a big

portion of Western European markets forms part of the global key markets for South African Tourism (SAT, 2014b), Reisinger and Turner (2011:11) state that the disbanding of the USSR and the emergence of capitalism in Eastern Europe has increased travel opportunities for these nations. Residents in these countries lacked basic freedom of movement until recently. The Eastern European is a new and emerging market and therefore it is important to consider their perceptions of travel constraints to South Africa. The lack of information or the lack of adequate information to the Eastern side of the world needs to be addressed by the South African government to create higher levels of awareness. These markets are developing but not to South Africa and thus more can be done to tap into these potential tourists. The travel in groups and this creates opportunities for tour operators to developed packages that can be marketed abroad.

The independent variable of *level of education*, specifically respondents with a diploma or degree, correlated with destination attributes. From literature it is evident that educated people are more informed and this affects participation in leisure holidays, destination choice, spending while on holiday and lastly the usage of information resources (Van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Wu, Zhang & Fujiwara, 2011; Bernini & Cracolici, 2015; Alegre *et al.*, 2010:44; Sarma & Baruah, 2013:67). Higher educated tourists require quality information to make informed travel decisions. It is important to provide updated travel information in an entertaining manner, which can best be achieved by the use of interactive websites and social media.

Lastly, contradicting previous literature, *age and gender* had no correlation with the constraints. However, with regard to gender, the only relationship with literature was that in general men were less concerned with the impact of constraints, which supports the notion that men are more prone to taking risks and therefore more willing to negotiate through constraints (Lam & Ozorio, 2013:791; Wieland, Sundali, Kemmelmeier & Sarin, 2014:558). Traditionally, marketing to men has been one dimensional because in the past, many marketers have resorted to outdated stereotypes when engaging these customers. Society's definition of masculinity is changing, and therefore marketers should change the way they are marketing to men to better connect with the modern man. The suggested approach for marketing to men includes the use of more visual aids, simplicity is of utmost importance. Potential users need to know what they get without browsing. The assumption that men do not consider bargains is also false, as long as it is visible and easy to find. Advertising should appeal to men such as adventure sports, while at the same time supply

enough information regarding things which is important for their partners such as accommodation and security. This is not as important for their own needs, but rather to impact their ability to 'sell' the information provided to their partners.

4.6 CONCLUSIONS

This study analysed the influence of socio-demographic characteristics and travel behaviour on travel inhibitors. Although empirical data exists with regard to socio-demographic variables and travel behaviour, this study is novel in researching the influence of demographic characteristics and travel behaviour on inhibitors potentially affecting non-users' decisions to travel to South Africa. Firstly, and most importantly, few significant influences of socio-demographic characteristics as well as no significant influence of travel behaviour characteristics signify the importance of dealing with constraints upfront as perceived by potential tourists. Destinations such as South Africa thus need not be concerned with the socio-demographic characteristics and travel behaviour as independent factors of marketing segmentation, but should be more concerned with minimising constraints affecting the travel decisions of target markets.

Results indicate marital status, nationality, level of education and intrapersonal variables do influence travel inhibitors. Although not related to the correlations in general, respondents of all demographic characteristics and travel behaviour variables indicated that they agree more with structural constraints and security inhibitors as potential constraints influencing decision-making. These unique research findings directly contribute to the understanding of non-users specifically focusing on South Africa as the destination choice, a field that has often been neglected by tourism research. More research is needed to fully grasp the influence of demographic characteristics on travel constraints. Potential further research aiming specifically at certain markets will assist in segmenting the inbound market to South Africa. More resources and assistance will be needed in getting a bigger population of non-users to South Africa. This will allow specific marketing messages to focus on what will be effective for the specific target market based on the factors that might inhibit them from travelling to South Africa. In other cases, results might also indicate that to spend more resources on marketing for a specific target market will not provide the desired results since the constraints affecting decisions are external and uncontrolled. On a practical note, it is more important to inform travellers about the overall accessibility, safety, attractions and hospitality of this country as a means for motivation

than to focus all efforts on specific target markets.

CHAPTER 5: THE EFFECT OF IMAGE AND TRAVEL INFLUENCING FACTORS ON INHIBITORS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Decision-making is an everyday human activity and it's omnipresent, whatever the domain (Decrop, 2006:ix). Decisions guide one's current and future behaviour. It is also the cornerstone of marketing and consumer behaviour. According to Hudson and Gilbert (2002:137) behavioural concepts, such as decision-making, are at the heart of marketing in tourism, hospitality and leisure and have been researched extensively. It is essential for marketing departments, managers and national marketing initiatives to understand how internal, psychological processes influence individuals to decide on a certain holiday destination or a particular type of tourism product or service (Hudson & Gilbert, 2002:137). In most cases tourists do not make single independent choices, but rather complex multi-faceted decisions in which the choices of different elements are interrelated in a decision process over a period of time (Dellaert *et al.*, 1998:313).

According to Byon and Zhang (2010:509), ample empirical evidence exists to support the notion that destination image is a significant contributor that impacts the decision-making process of tourists. Destination image influences a country's tourism industry enormously and positive destination images are therefore vital in tourism marketing. On the other hand, a negative destination image can have a damaging effect on a destination and could lead to declining tourist arrival statistics of a destination and the revisit intention of tourists (Royo-Vela, 2009:426). It can discourage non-visitors from visiting a specific country. A destination's image is dynamic and continuously changing, which is important in the decision-making process (Byon & Zhang, 2010:510).

Hudson and Gilbert (2002:142) clearly state that research on non-users (non-travellers) is difficult, yet vital for tourism marketers. Discovering why services or products are not being purchased is important for tourism destinations such as South Africa to attract new customers and grow the visiting numbers. The knowledge gained in this type of research will assist marketers in identifying different types of non-users for whom different marketing messages can be developed. A further understanding of the constraints these groups face and how image influences these constraints can assist in altering potential demand into purchase decisions (Hudson & Gilbert, 2002:142).

It is evident that travel and tourism decision-making have been thoroughly researched from various perspectives. The majority of the models indicate the complexity of tourist behaviour. Tourism constraints/inhibitors are mentioned in some of the models, especially in the filtering processes of the choice sets. A point of concern is the fact that the majority of the models focus on individual tourist behaviour and according to Decrop (2006:45), some models only deal with one particular aspect of decisions, such as the destination or accommodation. Other models do consider sub-decisions, but fail to explain how they are related. The role of image in relation to travel constraints is unknown and needs investigation.

Therefore, the aim of this article is to analyse the effect of destination image and travel influencing factors on inhibitors. In the following section background information regarding tourism decision-making models, tourism literature on destination image and constraints inhibiting travel decision-making to South Africa will be analysed thoroughly. Based on the literature review, the effect of image and travel influencing factors on inhibitors will be analysed to achieve the purpose of this article. Presented below is the literature review, method of research, discussion of research results and conclusions.

5.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism includes the movement of people to a specific destination by means of any existing form of transportation (Saayman, 2002:2). A tourist destination is a location with multi-products and the potential ability to either entertain or educate potential tourists (Ryan, 1998:1). According to Papatheodorou (2001:164), since the early years destination choice has been a central issue in tourism literature. A potential consumer is assumed to allocate financial resources for tourist and non-tourist products, to maximise usefulness given the existing constraints when making a decision regarding a destination. This can be influenced by the image of the destination. The following section investigates literature on destination image.

5.2.1 Destination Image

According to Pike (2008:21), consumer products can be assessed by one's senses; however, tourist experiences can only be assessed in detail after actually visiting a destination. Most tourism products are services rather than tangible and physical goods and tourist destinations can therefore only utilise image in being more competitive but the opposite can also be true – depending on the type of image the tourist receives. Travel

constraints can thus be magnified by certain images. Images can be either positive or negative, and may have a significant impact on the travel and tourism industry (Page, 2003:64) and the decisions tourists make. To achieve a competitive advantage over other destinations, it is important to create images of products and services that differentiate them from their competition and minimise the perceptions of constraints.

“Image” has been defined by various researchers and has been applied to various situations. Reynolds (1965:69) defined image as the creation of a mental construct based upon a “flood of information”. Bigné, Sánchez and Sánchez (2001:607) state that a destination image consists of a tourist’s interpretation of reality. Echtner and Ritchie (2003:39) suggest that image is mental picturing of a destination in a universal way. For the purpose of this study, destination image can be defined as a non-visitor’s (non-tourist) mental picture and/or perception of South Africa as a tourist destination, either positive or negative.

The destination image of South Africa also represents the non-visitor’s interpretation of reality about South Africa influenced by sources of information such as mass media and word-of-mouth messages. To actually visit a destination, the potential tourist should be aware that a destination exists. Once awareness of a potential destination has been established, it is vital that a positive image is formed within the potential tourist’s mind (Weaver & Lawton, 2010:94). A negative image might lead to no visit.

Image is, however, a complex phenomenon, consisting of three components (Tasci, Gartner & Cavusgil, 2007:199), namely *cognitive*, *affective* and *conative* components. Vellas and Bécherel (1999:70) define the *cognitive* or knowledge component as belief or disbelief towards something. Consequently, it refers to what is known, the knowledge or beliefs of a destination. Therefore, destination images can be formed even if only a small amount of knowledge exists. The *affective*, also known as the emotional component, refers to the feelings - positive, negative or neutral - towards a destination (Vellas & Bécherel, 1999:70). Negative feelings will definitely discourage people from visiting South Africa as a destination. Lastly, the *conative* component is the intention or action component and refers to behaviour (Pike & Ryan, 2004:334). Vellas and Bécherel (1999:70) added that if an opportunity exists, a certain action may emerge, either to purchase or not to purchase. The influence on travel decision-making is thus evident in literature.

In addition to the components of image, different levels at which images occur also exist, these being *organic*, *induced* and *complex* images. An *organic* image affects the decision to visit or not to visit a destination (Howie, 2003:103). *Organic* images are framed in a potential tourist's or non-visitor's mind and refer to the fact that they have not yet visited a destination. Informative promotion sources such as magazine articles, television programmes and conversations with friends or family members, Internet and education are the most effective types of promotion, since they represent the first contact with the destination, which leads to awareness when making a choice to visit the destination (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:11; Howie, 2003:103; George, 2004:346). If the wrong organic image is created, it will influence decision-making.

Howie (2003:103) states that *induced* images are purposefully created, resulting from advertising, designed to reveal a true version of the destination in order to create a competitive advantage over its opponents (Howie, 2003:103). In the case of destinations, these images are created by advertising agencies such as National Tourism Organisations, Destination Marketing Organisations as well as Tourism Information Centres and marketers that supply advertising and promotion on behalf of destinations and what they offer tourists (George, 2004:346). The advertisements will show what the destination offers and aim at attracting more people to the destination. The exposure to organic and induced images has an influence on non-visitor behaviour. *Complex* images stem from direct experiences after visiting a destination. Images before visitation (*organic* and *induced*) can therefore be altered to a more experienced and informed perception based on an actual experience (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:11). An effort should be made to change negative images, create rewarding and memorable experiences that will enhance the promotion of South Africa and encourage word-of-mouth messages and repeat visits.

Figure 5.1 displays a model developed by Fakeye and Crompton (1991:10-11) concerning the tourist's image formation process. In the model, the relationship between organic, induced and complex images as well as their role in destination selection is presented. As discussed in the previous section, a *complex* image is developed once the selected destination is visited since actual contact with the destination has occurred. In order to get to this point, there must be a specific need or motivation to travel, which stems from an active search for information supported by the driving reasons and desires to travel (*organic* image).

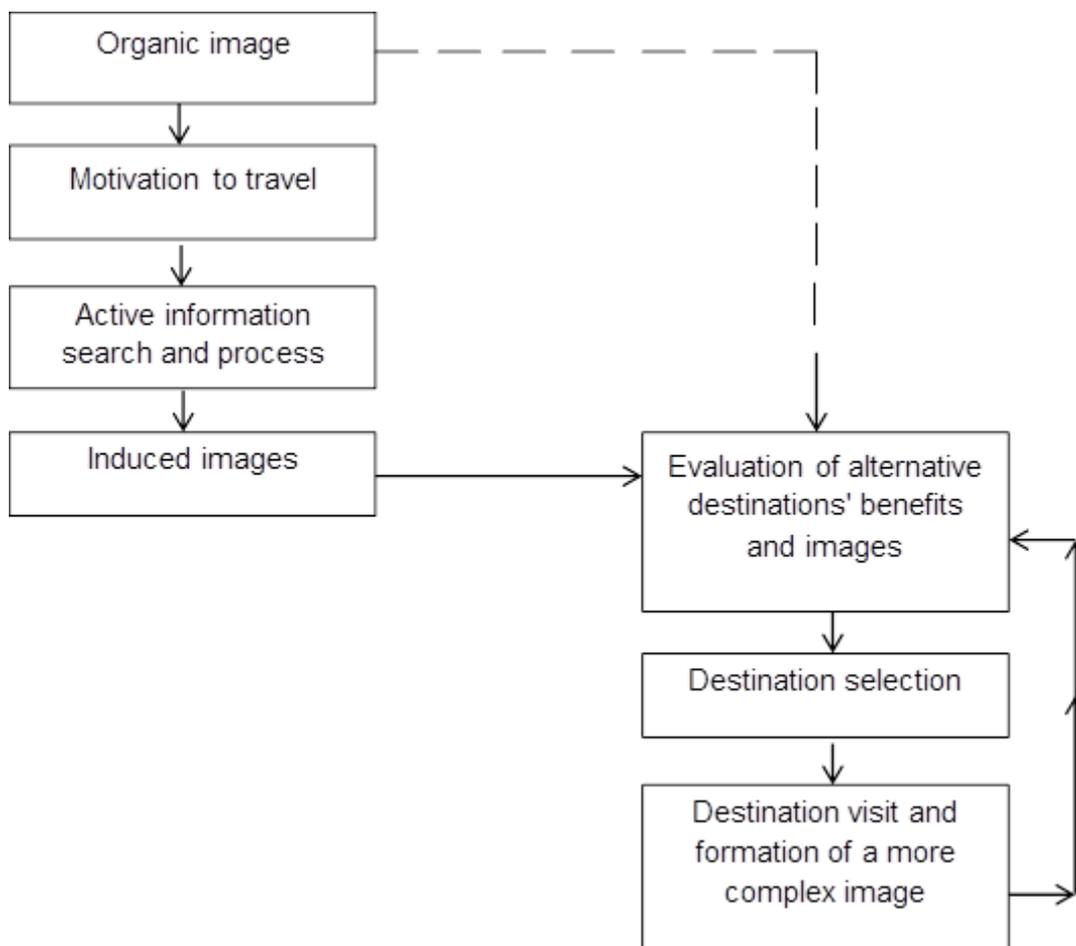


Figure 5.1: A model of a tourist's image formation process
Source: Fakeye and Crompton (1991:11)

Potential tourists evaluate alternatives against these personal *organic* images, information from personal contacts, as well as benefits and images portrayed by marketers. As a result the potential tourist forms a more refined induced image. The tourist then selects a preferred destination where the decision has been influenced by either the *organic* or *induced* image, or both. The potential tourist will become a tourist who has an actual experience at the destination of choice. From there on a more *complex* image will be developed, which will, in turn, influence the selection of a destination when the next occasion arises. Non-travellers are challenged twice: if the induced image is negative, they will not travel or, even if the image is positive, it might not be chosen against other alternatives.

For the purpose of this study, the focus is on non-travellers to South Africa and constraints, image and travel influencing factors that affect a decision to travel. The relevance of this study based on the previous section includes the different components and levels of image as well as a portion of the image formation process. Therefore

complex images refer to destinations similar to South Africa that can influence the image of South Africa and not specifically *complex* images based on previous experiences visiting South Africa.

5.2.2 Constraints influencing decision-making

According to Hudson and Gilbert (1999:69) previous models of consumer and tourism behaviour have neglected the constraints on participation, especially the non-user and their associated constraints. Gibson and Lane (2011) state that, particularly in Africa, perceived risk can increasingly be seen as part of destination image. The role of destination image in tourism has a greater significance in marketing when viewed through the framework of the traveller's buying behaviour (Ferreira & Harmse, 2000:80).

These constraints determine restrictions to the set of possible alternatives from which tourists can choose their travel options. Constraint factors are also likely to be detrimental rather than attributes or benefits (Um & Crompton, 2012). An understanding of the constraints facing consumers can help transform potential demand into purchase decisions and actual demand (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999:28). Chen, Chen and Okumus (2013:199) define constraints as influences that restrict the development of tourism and limit the tourism destination development. When perceived constraints are removed, individuals are more likely to consider the destination and finally travel to that destination. This highlights the importance of researching the constraints. Types of constraints affecting decision-making to travel to South Africa have been discussed in detail in chapter 3. Appendix C provides a summary of all the constraints potentially affecting inbound tourism to South Africa. In the next section, literature on decision-making models will be discussed.

5.2.3 Decision-making models

The majority of travel and tourism choice models have grown from models used in consumer behaviour (Harrison-Hill, 2001:37). Nicosia (1966), Howard and Sheth (1969), and Narayana and Markin (1975) were among the main contributors to consumer behaviour research specifically focusing on decision-making. Nicosia (1966) as well as Howard and Sheth (1969:467) suggest that buying behaviour is repetitive and purchase cycles for various products are established by buyers which determine the frequency of purchases. Narayana and Markin (1975:1) suggested that consumers make purchase decisions based on brand awareness or unawareness. Since then choice sets have been adapted in tourism decision-making and destination choice models (Woodside & Sherrell, 1977; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990; Um & Crompton, 1992; Smallman & Moore, 2010).

Decrop (2006) identified three basic classifications of different types of tourism decision-making models: microeconomic models, cognitive models and conceptual frameworks. Microeconomic models are concerned with consumers' spending money to gain benefits from tourism and travelling. Rugg (1973), Morley (1994), Papatheodorou (2001) and Seddighi and Theocharous (2002) are the main contributors to microeconomic models based on the traditional demand theory first introduced by Lancaster (1971).

Cognitive models focus on socio-psychological variables involved in tourism decision-making (Decrop, 2006:28). Cognitive models confront microeconomic models regarding the role/contribution of the decision maker/tourist in the whole process. The tourist becomes actively involved and perceptions, needs and information processes become more evident. Important contributors to cognitive models include: Crompton (1979); Um and Crompton (1990); Um and Crompton (1992); Crompton and Ankomah (1993), Woodside and Lysonski (1989), Van Raaij and Francken (1984); Van Raaij (1986), Moutinho (1987), Goodall (1988) and more recently Smallman and Moore (2010).

Interpretive frameworks in travel and tourism decision-making are more concerned with post-modern interpretive approaches based on the principle that decision-making is much more than a formalised multi-stage process.

Alternative variables and hypotheses are identified that were not taken into account in traditional models (Decrop, 2006:39). The efforts of Woodside and MacDonald (1994), Teare (1994) and Dellaert et al. (1998) towards a more interpretive approach in decision-making are summarised in Addendum C, together with the main contributors of cognitive and microeconomic models. Addendum D provides a conceptual timeline and main contributors to the various studies mentioned above. In the following sections, a brief critical analysis will be given on the decision-making models discussed above.

5.2.3.1 Tourism Microeconomic Models

According to Decrop (2006:24), the normative approach of microeconomic models fails to include and rarely questions how and why tourists make decisions. Decisions according to the microeconomic 'way' are governed by price: the lower the price, the higher the volume of demand and vice versa. These decisions are context free and mostly focus on how tourists should behave, rather than how they are behaving. Rugg (1973), mainly focusing his efforts on foreign travel, was the first to include three dimensions, ignored in the past, namely, the inclusion of a time constraint; the modification of the budget constraint to include transportation costs and the modification of the time constraint to include the time costs incurred whilst travelling. Morley (1992) extended the work of Rugg and incorporated three elements that will add benefit to this particular study, namely the decision to travel or not; the allocation of time and budget and the choice of destinations. Papatheodorou (2001) investigated destination choice by focusing on two additional dimensions, namely attractions and facilities (Papatheodorou, 2001).

Although the microeconomic models have influenced the theory of predicting tourist and destination choices, some limitations are still evident. Ample variables and constraints that have the possibility of influencing an entire decision either to travel or not, or to travel to a different destination are not included in the microeconomic models. Since tourism is an emotional and experiential product, most characteristics do not necessarily match the economic views of tangible return on investment (Decrop, 2006:28).

5.2.3.2 Tourism Cognitive Models

Decrop (2006:28) states that cognitive models related to tourism decision-making focus on socio-psychological variables involved in decision-making. In models focusing on socio-psychological variables, the tourist is no longer passive but actively develops rules and

strategies to solve the problems to satisfy his needs. Perceptions and information processing become an integral part of decision-making (Decrop, 2006:28).

The work of Crompton (1979) focused on developing a conceptual framework where the respondent's motives can be conceptualised as being positioned along a cultural and socio-psychological disequilibrium continuum. Crompton states that in contrast to previous studies, the findings in this particular study suggest that the destination in itself was relatively unimportant and that respondents did not desire to visit a destination to seek cultural insights, but rather for socio-psychological reasons not necessarily related to any specific destination. Goodall's first contribution to decision-making is the distinction made between the holiday selection process (through motivations and image formation) and destination choice (through a search process and the evaluation of alternatives). Secondly, Goodall highlighted the association between the potential tourist and the implicit and explicit constraints of an uncertain environment. The final decision to travel is made when a certain destination exceeds the aspiration level by the greatest amount. Goodall (1988:16) also stated that images influence tourists' destination choices. Although Goodall focussed on constraints and highlighted the importance of image, the study lacks empirical evidence to prove his theory. Thus the direct influence of image on constraints was not evident.

The work done by Um and Crompton (1990) included perceived situational constraints and preferences for a potential and alternative destination. These authors strongly suggested that situational constraints should be an integral part of decision-making frameworks/models in the tourism literature. Although the majority of decision-making models include destination attributes in their research, they are frequently failing to reflect decision-makers' anticipations of inhibitors in terms of achieving their needs and goals to accommodate situational constraints. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) emphasised the fact that attitude measurement should be based on attitude to the action of travelling to a destination, rather than the attitude to the destination itself. In this particular case the situational constraints refer to time, budget and distance to the destination.

Um and Crompton (1992) continued their work from their research in 1990 by conceptualising vacation destination choice as a three-stage sequential decision consisting of the early evoked set, late evoked set and final decision, an evolved version from the two-stage model described by Um and Crompton (1990). This study also aims to describe destination choice as a function of interaction between perceived constraints

such as time, money, travel distance and destination image. Crompton's main contribution that's in line with the objectives of this study is the particular focus on destinations not previously visited by potential tourists due to limited knowledge. According to Decrop (2006:31) these studies are somewhat limited in key variables which, in turn, make them simple and user-friendly especially with empirical studies. However, these studies are partial because only a small portion of variables and relationships are being considered in the decision-making processes. However, the specific reference to constraints will be valuable for this study, although it cannot be reduced to only situational constraints.

The work of Woodside and Lysonski (1989) added affective associations (specific feelings related to a specific destination), traveller destination preferences (influenced by both destination categorisations and affective associations, and resulting in a ranking of destinations) and intentions to visit (perceived likelihood of visiting a particular destination within a specific time frame) to this field of research. Also similar to the analysis by Decrop (2006:31) to the work done by Crompton and colleagues, the study of Woodside and Lysonski is limited in key variables considered. Again the influence of constraints was overseen in this research.

Moutinho's model of vacation tourist behaviour is by far the most comprehensive model researched consisting of pre-decision and decision processes, purchase evaluation and repeat-buying probabilities. Reference was also made to the impacts of risks and decision-making. Moutinho stated that destinations may be rejected by the decision-maker, because there is no incentive to satisfy travel objectives. Destinations that are considered to be neutral alternatives may require further information and discussion inputs from other family members or friends. Destinations considered after preliminary judgement to be feasible alternatives may require even more detailed evaluation. However, Decrop (2006:39) states that as is the case with most cognitive models, the work of Moutinho (1987) also lacks empirical evidence and simplicity.

5.2.3.3 Tourism Interpretive and Conceptual Frameworks

The views of travel decision-making have changed in the 1990s. Decrop (2006:39) states that new, lean and post-modern frameworks of decision-making have challenged this view.

Based on the work of Moutinho (1987), Teare (1994) made an effort proposed a more interpretive and conceptual framework of pre-purchase and purchase research in decision-making. Specific emphasis is placed on prior product experience and product importance.

The framework proposed by Teare (1994) results in alternative sets of propositions with variables not previously considered in tourism decision-making research. However, the only reference to constraints, inhibitors or risks was linked to the two interrelated variables mentioned above.

According to Dellaert *et al.* (1998:313), tourism decision-making comprises multi-faceted decisions made sequentially, over a period of time and confronted by constraints to overcome. Dellaert *et al.* (1998:313), introduce a conceptual framework that allows one to analyse tourist behaviour, which includes these multi-faceted decisions as well as the relevant decision-making constraints.

Based on the limitations described in the conceptual models, the work of Dellaert *et al.* (1998) is a step in the right direction. Variables noted as being important in the previous studies such as socio-psychological variables, destination choice structures, initiation of the first idea information search, and the final decision taken, were not excluded in this study. However, key variables such as accommodation choice, choice of companions, mode choice, choice of travel and duration of the trip were included in this model, which was not particularly reviewed in the previous studies. It is also the first model reviewed thus far that includes and defines the different constraints as part of the model. Dellaert *et al.* (1998:315) state that in previous studies, constraints have been recognised, but most studies to date are limited in how they deal with the general concept of constraints.

It is thus clear that image might influence perceptions of constraints on travel to South Africa. Travel decision-making models do not deal with these aspects effectively, and empirical evidence is needed to explain their influence and develop a travel-decision-making model that will address this gap in research. This analysis will provide critical context and capacity to firstly be able to ask the right questions of the target population by means of a questionnaire and secondly to be able to develop a model that can contribute to the field of tourism and tourism marketers in terms of the influence of certain constraints on the decision-making process of tourists. In the next section the different types of constraints, as well as constraints theory, will be critically analysed.

5.3 RESEARCH METHOD

To explore possible answers to the research questions the following approach was followed:

5.3.1 Sampling and description of sampling

During the empirical phase of the research, a quantitative method was applied by means of a questionnaire. Due to the challenge of obtaining international tourists who had not previously travelled to South Africa, the survey and sampling was divided into two phases. In the first phase, questionnaires were distributed in France by trained fieldworkers. This destination was chosen due to the number of tourist recipients (85 million per year) as well as the number of outbound tourists (20-30 million per year). Visitors from France are not one of South Africa's main markets and therefore the chances of selecting non-visitors to South Africa in France were good. Stratified sampling was applied across France to reduce selection bias. Stratification factors included: popular tourism destinations in France followed by popular tourism attractions in those areas. Thus Paris, Angers and Nice were chosen based on the first stratification factor. Secondly, in Paris, the Eiffel Tower, Sacré-Cœur and Montmartre were chosen as popular tourism attractions; in Angers, Le Château d'Angers and the Maine River were chosen. Research not only focussed on French nationalities as a target population, but also on the outbound travelling market of France as well as Central Europe in general. Statistics show that North and South American tourists made a significant contribution to the GDP of France in 2011 (ETC, 2011:15). In the second phase, questionnaires were distributed through Facebook and social media sites by means of snowball sampling.

5.3.2 Distribution process

In both phases a screening question was asked of respondents to determine whether the respondents had previous travel experience to South Africa in which case only non-travellers to South Africa were considered. In phase one the survey was conducted at various times of the day to obtain a comprehensive sample of visitors. The fieldworkers approached possible respondents at the identified sites directly and requested their participation based on the screening question. The resources that the Université d'Angers provided were used in negotiating accessibility with the authorities of the above-mentioned attractions as well as in communication and assisting in translation with the local tourists. This was done between 21 June and 30 June 2014 and resulted in 182 questionnaires.

In phase two of the survey the questionnaire was distributed between August and December 2014 on Facebook, which resulted in 91 questionnaires. In total 300 questionnaires were distributed, of which 273 questionnaires were used in the statistical analyses. The sampling procedure was based on guidelines set by Krejcie and Morgan

(1970:608) for general research activities, which indicated that the recommended sample size (S) for a population (N) of 1,000,000 is 384. Although this sample cannot be considered representative of European travellers to South Africa, the results provided clear information on constraints and non-travelling to South Africa.

5.3.3 Data collection method

The questionnaire (see Appendix A and Appendix B) was developed according to the demographic variables, image variables, travel-decision variables and constraint variables identified in the literature review and previous studies (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007; Sheela, 2007; Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999; Dellaert *et al.*, 1998). The first two sections consisted mainly of closed questions. The first section in the questionnaire focused on demographic information (for example age, education level and gender) and the second section on travel behaviour of respondents (for example, number of holidays annually, preferred destinations, time of travel, and type of travel). The second section included questions regarding respondents' image perceptions of South Africa by means of a Likert scale. The last section focused on the constraints preventing respondents from potentially visiting South Africa (for example crime, economic factors, word-of-mouth influences) and important factors influencing travel decisions whereby Likert-scale questions were used. The questionnaire was subjected to reliability and validity testing and is exploratory in nature.

5.3.4 Statistical analysis

The data was collected and captured by the researcher, processed by a statistician of Statistical Services at North West University and interpreted by the researcher. The empirical results were analysed by means of exploratory factor analyses for constraints inhibiting respondents' decisions not to visit South Africa, factors influencing respondents' image of South Africa and factors influencing the travel decisions of respondents. A factor analysis is a research method for identifying variables in groups to reduce the data set to a more meaningful size without compromising any of the original information (Field, 2005:619). Secondly, correlation analysis was done to establish the relationship between constraints, image and travel decisions of respondents by means of Pearson correlations. Pearson's coefficient is used in linear regression, ranging from -1 to +1. A value of +1 is the result of a perfect positive relationship between two or more variables. A value of -1 represents a perfect negative relationship. Lastly listwise regressions were done to establish the most significant travel decision-making predictors on travel constraints.

Regression analysis is a statistical technique that can be used for the description of a large variety of data sets and the predictions of certain outcomes in different situations (Berk, 2004:XV). Regression analysis is concerned with a dependent variable and how it depends on a set of independent variables. Statistical relationships do not necessarily imply casual relationships, but the presence of any statistical relationship serves as a starting point for further research. Once a statistical relationship exists, the relationship can be modelled mathematically and can then be used for prediction (Seber & Lee, 2003:3).

5.4 RESULTS

In the following section, results from the empirical research will be discussed.

5.4.1 Travel inhibitors to South Africa

The constraints on travel to South Africa were measured on a four-point Likert scale where 1 was completely disagree and 4 completely agree. Exploratory factor analysis was performed on the 36 items to reveal any underlying patterns of responses. A 9-factor solution was obtained by using a Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization to indicate logical groupings of travel constraints (refer to Table 5.1)

Table 5.1: Factors, eigenvalues and percentage of variance explained

Factors	Eigenvalues	Percent of variance explained	Cumulative percent
External Inhibitors	10.50	29.15	29.15
Destination Attributes	2.49	6.93	36.08
Security Inhibitors	1.89	5.24	41.32
Structural Constraints	1.51	4.21	45.52
Intrapersonal Inhibitors	1.39	3.86	49.38
Intention Inhibitors	1.32	3.66	53.05
Information Access	1.22	3.39	56.43
Circumstantial Constraints	1.11	3.08	59.52
Preference Constraints	1.01	2.80	62.32

Source: Researcher's own compilation

In order to determine the suitability of the data for a factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy, Bartlett's test of sphericity and only factors with eigenvalues of greater than 1.0 were deemed appropriate. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.885, which is highly acceptable (Field, 2005:633), with Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .005$) being significant. Nine factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were generated from 36 travel constraints. The factor loadings are displayed in Table 5.2

and the percentage of variance explained by each factor plus eigenvalues (all over 1.0) are indicated in Table 5.3. The total variance explained by this factor solution is 62.32%, with factor 1 explaining 29%, which can therefore be considered the most significant factor.

Results from the factor analysis as indicated in Table 5.2 shows that respondents disagree that three out of the five factors influence their decision to travel to South Africa. This includes *External Constraints*, *Destination Attributes* and *Intrapersonal Inhibitors*. In factor 1, *External constraints* consist of 15 variables, namely health risks (0.80); health services (0.77); poor service (0.71); malaria risks (0.70); public service delivery strikes (0.68), to name a few. *Destination Attributes* included variables such as “the climate of South Africa” (0.72); “attributes of attractiveness and beauty” (0.63); “foreign exchange” (0.61) and “entertainment” (0.55). *Intrapersonal inhibitors*, includes “Personal Health” (0.57), “Siblings” (0.74) and “Travel agents’ influence” (0.42).

Security *inhibitors* (factor 3) yielded a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.66 which is sufficient, with an inter-item correlation of 0.39 and a mean value of 2.11 (± 0.68). With attributes such as: “Safety in South Africa” (0.76); “Heard bad things about South Africa” (0.74) and lastly “Bad stories in the newspaper” (0.56), respondents tend to agree more that security inhibitors will influence their decisions to either visit South Africa or not.

Structural constraints (factor 4) have the highest mean value of all the factors showcasing the importance of structural constraints. Respondents agree that structural constraints might influence their decision to travel to South Africa and consist of attributes such as “It’s too expensive” (0.81); “I don’t have the money” (0.66); “Limited time to travel” (0.66) and “Travel distance” (0.46).

Table 5.2: Factor analysis of travel inhibitors to South Africa

Inhibiting Factors Factor Label	Factor Loadings								
	External Inhibitors	Destination Attributes	Security Inhibitors	Structural Constraints	Intrapersonal Inhibitors	Intention Inhibitors	Information Access	Circums. Constraints	Preference Constraints
External Inhibitors									
The health risks are too high	0.80								
Health services are below standard	0.77								
The service in South Africa is poor	0.71								
South Africa is a malaria-infested area	0.70								
There are too many public service delivery strikes and protests	0.68								
The infrastructure is below standard	0.68								
South Africa is too polluted	0.67								
The accommodation is poor	0.66								
South Africa is too dirty	0.61								
There are too many bad reviews on Social Media about South Africa	0.59								
There is political unrest in South Africa	0.58								
It is not accessible to travel within South Africa	0.57								
I am worried about being exposed to diseases such as HIV Aids	0.54								
South Africa has a bad reputation as a tourism destination	0.48								
My friends and family advised me against travelling to South Africa	0.41								
Destination Attributes									
The climate in South Africa is not favourable		0.72							
There are not enough attributes of attractiveness and beauty		0.63							
The South African exchange rate is too strong		0.61							
There is not enough entertainment, shopping and night life		0.55							
Security Inhibitors									
I do not feel safe to travel to South Africa			0.76						
I heard too many bad things about South Africa			0.74						
I hear a lot of bad stories in the news about South Africa			0.56						
Structural Constraints									
It is too expensive to travel to South Africa				0.81					
I do not have the money to travel to South Africa				0.66					
I do not have the time to travel to South Africa				0.51					
I would rather go to a closer destination				0.48					
South Africa is too far away to travel				0.47					
Intrapersonal Inhibitors									
My children are too small to travel to South Africa					0.74				
My own health deters me from travelling to South Africa					0.57				
The travel agents advise me against travelling to South Africa					0.42				
Intention Inhibitors									
I am not interested in travelling to South Africa in general						0.83			
I am just not interested in South Africa as a tourism destination						0.80			
Information Access									
There is too little information available about South Africa							0.66		
Circumstantial Constraints									
I support green travel practices and therefore travel less								0.81	
The current economic crisis does not allow me to travel								0.60	
Preference Constraints									
I cannot find anyone who wants to join me on a trip to South Africa									0.70
Cronbach Alpha Coefficient	0.92	0.75	0.66	0.67	0.50	-	-	-	-
Inter-item correlation mean	0.45	0.42	0.39	0.29	0.25	-	-	-	-
Mean Value and Standard Deviation	1.77 (0.55)	1.59 (0.48)	2.11 (0.68)	2.3 (0.62)	1.37 (0.68)	-	-	-	-

Source: Researcher's own compilation

The final four factors were labelled *Intention Inhibitors*, *Information Access*, *Circumstantial Constraints* and *Preference Constraints*. Due to the low Cronbach alpha coefficient these could not be reported as factors but will be reported on in their individual capacity.

5.4.2 Influence of factors on travel decisions

Factors influencing decisions to travel to international destinations were measured on a four-point Likert-scale where 1 was not important and 4 was very important. Twenty-two factors influencing travel decisions were used for the exploratory factor analysis to reveal any underlying patterns of responses. By using a Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization, a 6-factor solution was obtained, which indicates logical groupings of influencing factors. In order to determine the suitability of the data for a factor analysis, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy, Bartlett's test of sphericity and only factors with eigenvalues of greater than 1.0 were deemed appropriate.

Table 5.3: Factors, eigenvalues and percentage of variance explained

Factors	Eigenvalues	Percent of variance explained	Cumulative percent
External Factors	6.43	29.22	29.22
Destination Attribute Factors	2.12	9.61	38.83
Tourism Attraction Factors	1.64	7.47	46.31
Structural Factors	1.32	5.99	52.29
Access Factors	1.09	4.94	57.24
Travel Distance Factors	1.01	4.58	61.81

Source: Researcher's own compilation

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.863, which is highly acceptable, Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .005$) was significant (Field, 2005:633) and six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were generated from 22 influencing factor attributes. The percentage of variance explained by each factor, together with their eigenvalues, which are all over 1.0, is displayed in Table 5.3 and the factor loading is displayed in Table 5.4. The total variance explained by this factor solution is 61.81%, with factor 1 explaining 29, and therefore the most significant factor.

External factors (factor 1) consist of seven attributes, including Political stability (0.76); Accommodation availability (0.70); Accessibility of the destination (0.65); Infrastructure (0.63); Health services (0.59); Safety and security (0.53) and Food and beverages (0.47). The Cronbach alpha coefficient for this factor is 0.82 and the inter-item correlation is 0.40.

The mean value for *External factors* is 2.50 (SD=±0.61). Respondents perceive *external factors* as important and influential in their decisions to travel to international destinations.

Table 5.4: Factor analysis of influencing factors on international travel to South Africa

Influencing Factors on Travel Decisions Factor Label	Factor Loadings					
	External Factors	Destination Attribute Factors	Tourism Attractions Factors	Structural Factors	Access Factors	Travel Distance Factors
External Factors						
Political stability	0.76					
Accommodation available	0.70					
Accessibility of the destination	0.65					
Level of infrastructure	0.63					
Availability of health services	0.59					
Safety and security at the destination	0.53					
Food and beverages of the destination	0.47					
Destination Attribute Factors						
Availability of attractions		0.77				
Influence of seasonality		0.76				
Climate of the destination		0.70				
Entertainment, shopping and night-life		0.66				
Levels of service delivery		0.63				
Word-of-mouth and social marketing		0.47				
Tourism Attraction Factors						
Arts and culture			0.79			
History of the destination			0.77			
Culture of the destination			0.68			
Structural Factors						
Your own discretionary income and budget				0.87		
Your own discretionary time				0.84		
Access Factors						
Economy and exchange rate					0.71	
Hospitality and friendliness of the residents/locals					0.64	
Information available about the destination					0.60	
Travel Distance Factors						
Travel distance to the destination						0.87
Cronbach Alpha Coefficient	0.82	0.75	0.66	0.67	0.50	-
Inter-item correlation mean	0.40	0.42	0.39	0.29	0.25	-
Mean Value and Standard Deviation	2.50 (0.61)	2.65 (0.57)	2.90 (0.64)	3.17 (0.79)	2.65 (0.79)	-

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Factor 2, named *Destination attribute factors*, consists of important variables such as: Availability of attractions (0.77); Influence of seasonality (0.76); Climate (0.70); Entertainment, shopping and nightlife (0.66); Service delivery (0.63) and Social marketing (0.47). Similar to factor 1, all factor loadings were higher than 0.4, the Cronbach alpha coefficient is 0.75 and the inter-item correlation is 0.42. This factor is therefore reliable. The mean value is 2.65 (SD=±0.57), which indicates that respondents also found

Destination attribute factors important in their decisions when travelling to international destinations.

With regard to factor 3, identified as *Tourism attraction factors*, respondents considered this factor even more important than the previous two factors with a mean and standard deviation of 2.90 and ± 0.64 respectively. The Cronbach alpha coefficient is 0.66, with an inter-item correlation of 0.39, which is acceptable. Variables such as Arts and culture (0.79), History (0.77) and the Culture of a destination (0.68) form part of this factor. Again respondents felt that *Tourism attraction factors* are important when making international travel decisions.

With regard to factor 4 (*Structural factors*), respondents indicated that this factor was the most important of all when making decisions to travel internationally, with a mean value of 3.17 ($SD=\pm 0.79$). Factor 4 includes only two variables: Discretionary income and budget (0.87) and discretionary time (0.84). The Cronbach alpha coefficient (0.67) and inter-item correlation (0.29) can be considered adequate for this exploratory study.

Access factors (factor 5) include variables such as Economy and exchange rate (0.71), Hospitality and friendliness of the host residents (0.64) and Information available about the destination (0.60). Similar to the previous factors, respondents perceive *Access factors* as important, with a mean value of 2.65 ($SD=\pm 0.79$). Due to the low Cronbach alpha coefficient (0.50) of factor 6, this attribute will be discussed in its individual capacity. The only variable in this factor, "Travel distance to the destination" indicated a factor loading of 0.87. With regard to travel distance the mean value indicated was 2.35.

5.4.3 Factors influencing the image of South Africa

For the purpose of this section, 11 factors contributed to the exploratory factor analysis to reveal any underlying patterns of responses. The aspects influencing the image of South Africa were measured on a 4-point Likert Scale where 1 was not at all and 4 was to a great extent. By using a Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization, a 3-factor solution was obtained to indicate logical groupings of influencing factors (refer to Table 5.5). Only factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were considered relevant to the study, while the KMO measure of sampling adequacy (0.771) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.005$) was used in order to determine the suitability of the data for a factor analysis. The percentage of variance explained by each factor together with their eigenvalues, which are all over 1.0, is displayed in Table 5.5, and the factor loading is displayed in Table 5.6. The

total variance explained by this factor solution is 52%, with the most significant factor being factor 1, with 32% of the variance explained.

Table 5.5: Factors, eigenvalues and percentage of variance explained

Factors	Eigenvalues	Percent of variance explained	Cumulative percent
Intentional Image Aspects	3.486	31.693	31.693
Unintentional Image Aspects	1.248	11.349	43.043
Word-of-mouth Aspects	1.018	9.258	52.301

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Table 5.6: Factor analysis of influencing factors on the Image of South Africa

Influencing Factors on Image Factor Label	Factor Loadings		
	Intentional Image	Unintentional Image	Word-of-mouth
Intentional Image Aspects			
Movies	0.80		
Internet	0.76		
Famous landmarks	0.66		
Documentaries	0.62		
Television programmes about SA	0.36		
Unintentional Image Aspects			
Political climate		0.98	
News/Media of South Africa		0.59	
Events		0.42	
Word-of-mouth Aspects			
Famous icons			0.77
Family and Friends			0.55
Immigrated South Africans			0.49
Cronbach Alpha Coefficient	0.728	0.505	0.301
Inter-item correlation mean	0.350	0.254	0.116
Mean Value and Standard Deviation	2.32 (0.670)	2.63 (0.78)	2.27 (0.71)

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Factor 1, *Intentional image aspects*, includes the following variables: Movies (0.80); Internet (0.76); Famous landmarks (0.66); Documentaries (0.62) and Television programmes (0.36). With a Cronbach alpha coefficient and inter-item correlation of 0.728 and 0.350 respectively, this factor is consistent and the aspects correlate with each other.

The mean value of 2.32 (SD= \pm 0.67) indicates that *Intentional image aspects* influence respondents' image of South Africa to some extent.

Unintentional image aspects (factor 2) consist of the Political climate (0.98), News and media (0.59) and lastly Events (0.42). With a mean value of 2.63 (SD= \pm 0.78), it is evident that *Unintentional image aspects* influence respondents' image of South Africa to some extent. This factor did, however, have a greater influence on respondents than factor 1, with political climate being the most significant. Due to the exploratory nature of this research the Cronbach alpha coefficient (0.505) is acceptable with an inter-item correlation of \pm 0.78.

The last factor, called *Word-of-mouth aspects* (factor 3), contains variables such as Famous icons (0.77), Family and Friends (0.55) and Immigrated South Africans (0.49). Respondents indicated that this factor did have an effect on the image of South Africa with a mean value of 2.27 (SD= \pm 0.71). The Cronbach alpha coefficient is, however, low (0.301), which questions the reliability of this factor.

The results show significantly that respondents perceive all the image factors as having an effect on their image of South Africa. Amongst the individual aspects within each factor, the *political climate* (0.98) and *movies* (0.80) had the highest factor loadings, with the *Internet* (0.76) and *famous icons* (0.77) following.

Based on the information provided in the literature review, together with the results provided in this section, it is clear that the target market has knowledge about South Africa to some extent and can be grouped into the cognitive component of destination image as identified by Tasci, Gartner and Cavusgil (2007:199). Results also indicate that respondents did not feel strongly negative or positive, but mostly neutral towards South Africa, which can serve as an indication that the target market is not affective or emotional about South Africa as a destination and therefore there is no expected action (conative aspects) from this target market. Furthermore, the level of the image as explained in the literature review based on the results indicates that in general the target market has an *organic image* of South Africa. This represents the first contact with the destination, which leads to awareness and motivation to travel, stemming from informative promotion sources (Howie, 2003:103). In the following section, the correlations between constraints, influencing factors and destination image will be investigated.

5.4.4 Correlations between inhibitors, influencing factors and image

Table 5.7: Pearson correlation between image and inhibitors

		External Inhibitors	Destination Attributes	Security Inhibitors	Structural Constraints	Intrapersonal Inhibitors
Intentional Image Aspects	Pearson Correlation	0.009	-0.032	-0.005	0.063	-.136*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.887	0.611	0.94	0.321	0.032
	N	249	249	249	249	249
Unintentional Image Aspects	Pearson Correlation	0.073	0.047	.175**	0.063	-0.056
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.251	0.462	0.006	0.321	0.376
	N	249	249	249	249	249
Personal Messages about SA	Pearson Correlation	-0.036	-0.087	-0.047	0.03	-0.115
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.57	0.171	0.465	0.638	0.071
	N	249	249	249	249	249

*

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

Source: Researcher's own compilation

From Table 5.7 it is evident that significant correlations exist between *intrapersonal inhibitors* and *intentional image aspects* ($p < 0.032$). With regard to *intrapersonal inhibitors* and *intentional image aspects*, there is a small correlation (-0.136). Results indicate that *intrapersonal inhibitors* affect *intentional image aspects* negatively (-0.136) or vice versa. *Intrapersonal inhibitors* include variables such as family composition, travelling with small children and health while *intentional image aspects* include variables such as the Internet, movies, documentaries, famous landmarks and television programmes about South Africa. It is evident that the more information about South Africa is distributed, fewer respondents will perceive intrapersonal constraints such as health and travelling with small children as a limiting factor in their decision to travel to South Africa. There is therefore value in marketing and distribution of information for a travel destination such as South Africa.

The second significant correlation indicated in Table 5.7 exists between *security inhibitors* and *unintentional image aspects* ($p < 0.006$). Results indicate that a small correlation of 0.175 with a positive influence of the two factors on each other exists. *Security inhibitors* include variables such as perceived and real safety and security risks as passed on to the respondents through news and word-of-mouth sources. *Unintentional image aspects* are concerned with the image of South Africa as perceived by respondents, influenced by aspects such as major events, the political climate in South Africa and news/media about

South Africa. Results indicate a direct relation between the messages received by respondents through the media and how respondents perceive South Africa as an unsafe destination to travel to. In other words, the more messages respondents receive via news, word-of-mouth, through family or friends, the bigger effect security and safety constraints of South Africa will have on their decision-making.

Table 5.7 depicts the results of the Pearson correlation between constraints and influencing factors. From the result, it is evident that quite a number of relations can be drawn between factors influencing decision-making and constraints in travelling to South Africa. Firstly, significant correlations exist between *external inhibitors* and the following *influencing factors*, namely; *external factors* ($p < 0.000$) with a medium correlation of 0.335, *destination attribute factors* ($p < 0.379$) also with a medium size correlation of 0.379 and *access factors* ($p < 0.025$), which is small (0.142). It is significant that the more respondents agreed with external inhibitors as a constraint on travel to South Africa, the more important they considered the influence of external factors, destination attribute factors and access factors in their international destination selections.

Secondly and thirdly, the same trend can be observed when it comes to constraints relating to *destination attributes* and *security inhibitors*. Correlations of these two constraint factors are significant with regard to *external factors of decision-making* (0.000) and *destination attributes of decision-making* (0.000). *Access factors* (0.005) of *decision-making* only had a significant relation with *destination attribute constraints*. Furthermore, as indicated in Table 5.7, the trend continues whereby *external factors of decision-making* and *destination attributes of decision-making* had medium strength correlations to both *destination attributes* and *security constraints*. *Access factors* had a small impact on *destination attribute constraints*. Therefore, the more respondents agreed with destination attributes as a constraint on travel to South Africa, the more important they considered the influence of external factors, destination attribute factors and access factors in their international destination selections. The more respondents agreed with security inhibitors as a travel constraint to South Africa, the more important they considered the influence of external factors and destination attribute factors.

Table 5.8: Pearson correlation between inhibitors and influencing factors

		External Factors	Destination Attributes	Tourism Attractions	Structural Factors	Access Factors
External Inhibitors	Pearson Correlation	0.335**	0.379**	-0.052	-0.003	0.142*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.413	0.958	0.025
	N	249	249	249	249	249
Destination Attributes	Pearson Correlation	0.349**	0.333**	-0.046	-0.001	0.178**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.470	0.986	0.005
	N	249	249	249	249	249
Security Inhibitors	Pearson Correlation	0.261**	0.285**	0.022	-0.016	0.121
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.728	0.808	0.056
	N	249	249	249	249	249
Structural Constraints	Pearson Correlation	0.102	0.224**	0.139*	0.321**	0.049
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.110	0.000	0.028	0.000	0.439
	N	249	249	249	249	249
Intrapersonal Inhibitors	Pearson Correlation	0.081	0.032	-0.084	-0.057	0.052
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.205	0.618	0.185	0.373	0.417
	N	249	249	249	249	249

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

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Structural constraints refer to constraints concerned with budget, available money and time as well as travel distance to South Africa as a tourism destination. Significant relations can be observed between this constraining factor and *destination attribute factors* (0.000), *tourism attraction factors* (0.028) and *structural factors* (0.000). Similar to the previous correlations, the importance of the constraints also influences the weight of the constraints with regard to decision-making relating to *destination attributes*, *tourism attractions* and *structural factors*. *Structural factors* that influence decisions to travel to South Africa are the only factors that indicate a medium correlation, the rest are small. The more respondents agreed with structural constraints as a constraint on travel to South Africa, the more important they considered the influence of destination attribute factors, tourism attraction factors and structural factors in their international travel decisions. The last constraint factor, *intrapersonal inhibitors*, had no relation to factors influencing decision-making.

In the following section, the regression analyses between constraints and influencing factors will be examined.

5.4.5 Regressions between constraints, influencing factors and image

This section of the research indicates results based on the empirical research to identify the most significant predictors of constraints as indicated by respondents.

Table 5.9: Predictors for external inhibitors

DECISION-MAKING FACTORS PREDICTING EXTERNAL INHIBITORS			
Independent Variable	Standardised Coefficients <i>Beta</i>	t-values	Significance
(Constant)		5.755	0.000
External factors	0.248	3.801	0.000
Destination factors	0.231	3.441	0.001
Tourism attraction factors	0.203	3.174	0.002
Structural factors	0.039	0.638	0.524
Access factors	0.086	1.287	0.199

R² = 0.19 F = 9.487 Significance of F: p = 0.000 Model: Sig: .0000

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Dependent Variable: External inhibitors

Independent Variables = Travel decision-making factors

Each factor explains 19% of the variance in External inhibitors.

In this case, as displayed in Table 5.9, the largest beta coefficient is 0.248, which is for *external factors*. This variable makes the strongest unique contribution (25%) to explaining the external inhibitors, when the variance explained by all other variables in the model is controlled for. This variable makes a statistically unique contribution to the equation ($p < 0.000$). *Destination factors* contribute 23% and tourism attraction factors 20%. Tourists' evaluation of external inhibitors to South Africa is predicted by external factors, destination factors and tourism attraction factors. It is therefore possible to overcome perceptions of external inhibitors if careful attention is given to information and marketing of the destination as a whole.

Table 5.10: Factors predicting destination attributes

DECISION-MAKING FACTORS PREDICTING DESTINATION ATTRIBUTES			
Independent Variable	Standardised Coefficients <i>Beta</i>	t-values	Significance
(Constant)		5.569	0.000
External factors	0.117	1.745	0.082
Destination factors	0.249	3.598	0.000
Tourism attraction factors	0.186	2.820	0.005
Structural factors	0.048	0.763	0.446
Access factors	0.128	1.866	0.063

R² = 0.144 F = 6.738 Significance of F: p = 0.000 Model: Sig: .000

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Dependent Variable: Destination attributes

Independent Variables = Travel decision-making factors

Each factor explains 14% of the variance in Destination attributes.

The largest beta coefficient is 0.249, which is for *Destination factors* (Table 5.10). This variable makes the strongest unique contribution (25%) to explaining the dependent variable, when the variance explained by all other variables in the model is controlled for. This variable makes a statistically unique contribution to the equation ($p < 0.000$). *Tourism attraction factors* contribute 19% to explaining the dependent variable. Tourists' evaluation of destination attributes of South Africa is predicted by destination factors and tourism attraction factors. When tourists are inhibited in travelling to South Africa based on their evaluation of destination attributes, they consider destination factors and tourism attraction factors in their travel decisions. Again the importance of marketing South Africa and providing sufficient information about the destination is important.

Table 5.11: Factors predicting security inhibitors

DECISION-MAKING FACTORS PREDICTING SECURITY INHIBITORS			
Independent Variable	Standardised Coefficients <i>Beta</i>	t-values	Significance
(Constant)		5.635	0.000
External factors	0.158	2.262	0.025
Destination factors	0.120	1.677	0.095
Tourism attraction factors	0.106	1.547	0.123
Structural factors	0.038	0.582	0.561
Access factors	0.101	1.411	0.160

R² = 0.078 F = 3.395 Significance of F: p = 0.000

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Table 5.12: Factors predicting structural constraints

DECISION-MAKING FACTORS PREDICTING STRUCTURAL INHIBITORS			
Independent Variable	Standardised Coefficients <i>Beta</i>	t-values	Significance
(Constant)		4.682	0.000
External factors	0.131	2.034	0.043
Destination factors	0.037	0.560	0.576
Tourism attraction factors	0.012	0.186	0.853
Structural factors	0.253	4.175	0.000
Access factors	0.021	0.319	0.750

R² = 0.212 F = 10.730 Significance of F: p = 0.000

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Each factor in Table 5.12 explains 21% of the variance in Structural constraints. In this case, the largest beta coefficient is 0.25, which is for *Structural factors*. This variable makes the strongest unique contribution (25%) to explaining the dependent variable, when the variance explained by all other variables in the model is controlled for. This variable makes a statistically unique contribution to the equation ($p < 0.000$). External factors contribute 13%. Tourists' perceptions of structural constraints in South Africa are influenced by their evaluation of a destination's structural factors and external factors. There is therefore a direct link between aspects influencing international travel decisions and their evaluation in South Africa.

Model: Sig: .000

Table 5.13: Factors predicting intrapersonal inhibitors

DECISION-MAKING FACTORS PREDICTING INTRAPERSONAL INHIBITORS			
Independent Variable	Standardised Coefficients Beta	t-values	Significance
(Constant)		6.060	0.000
External factors	0.071	1.000	0.318
Destination factors	0.084	1.141	0.255
Tourism attraction factors	0.114	1.621	0.106
Structural factors	0.059	0.874	0.383
Access factors	0.091	0.261	0.795

R² = 0.032 F = 1.311 Significance of F: p = .253 Model: Sig: .253

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Table 5.13 indicates the factors predicting intrapersonal inhibitors. In this case the model is not significant and therefore none of the travel decision-making factors contribute to intrapersonal inhibitors.

The findings and implications of the results will be discussed in the following section.

5.5 FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on the results the following findings and implications were evident:

Firstly, it was clear that respondents are inhibited in travelling due to external inhibitors, destination attributes, security inhibitors, structural constraints and intrapersonal inhibitors. Structural constraints were considered as the most important factors inhibiting travel to South Africa, followed by security inhibitors. This notion supports findings from the majority of tourism microeconomic travel decision-making models (Rugg, 1973; Morley, 1994; Papatheodorou, 2001; Seddighi & Theocharous, 2002; Bailey & Richardson, 2010). *Structural factors* consist of discretionary income, budget and time. It is therefore not necessarily the destination that is unattractive; it is mostly the cost involved that inhibits potential tourists in travelling to this country. Rugg (1973) and Morley (1994) also identified budget and monetary constraints as inhibitors of travel, especially if it is a long-haul destination such as South Africa. The exchange rate is, however, in the favour of the visitor and it is necessary to market South Africa as a value-for-money destination by

developing attractive travel packages. More importantly, it is vital that this information gets distributed to the necessary markets through different media platforms. The experiences sold to potential tourists should make them forget about the travelling time and focus on the amazing product that South Africa offers. Optimal packages of 7-10 days should offer a variety of authentic experiences, the most important 'must-see' attractions, a few unknown 'gems' and interactions with residents.

Secondly, when respondents make international travel decisions, they are clearly influenced by external factors, destination attribute factors, tourism attraction factors, structural factors and access factors. Of these, structural factors yielded the highest mean value, indicating that respondents considered this as the more important aspect to consider. This directly relates to income and time. Destinations do not have control over structural factors but need to create value for potential tourists in their product offerings and marketing efforts. What's on offer is second to how much money tourists have available. Packaged tours might become more important in future – this creates a sense of value and tourists travelling to South Africa might feel safer by travelling in a group.

Thirdly, intentional image aspects, unintentional image aspects and word-of-mouth aspects influence respondents' image of South Africa. Unintentional image factors yielded the highest mean value, which links to aspects that are difficult to control, such as political climate, news and media about South Africa, and events (Selby *et al.*, 2010:193; Donaldson and Ferreira, 2007; Mansfield and Pizam, 2006). What is published about this country - whether it has directly, indirectly, or nothing at all to do with tourism - influences travel patterns to this country. All South Africans should be made aware of the effect that negative events and news have on future visitor numbers and indirectly on job opportunities in this industry. The most important implication of this is to keep people updated and informed and to put negative events in perspective. The social networks should be utilised for this – South African Tourism should run a social network site that keeps tourists informed and updated on happenings in the tourism industry – both positive and negative. Tourists can then also respond to this site, get feedback within a reasonable time and thus create a platform for tourists to communicate.

The statement by Dellaert *et al.* (1998:313) summarises the implications of the 3-factor analysis, which includes constraints, image and decision-making factors best. Tourists do not make single independent choices, but rather complex multi-faceted decisions in which the choices of different elements are interrelated in a decision process over a period of

time. Investigating the factor analysis independently from each other does not provide sufficient implications for decision-making of non-tourists to South Africa. Firstly, respondents rated all decision-making factors as important at the very least. With regard to image factors, respondents indicated that most aspects influenced respondents' image of South Africa to some extent. In conclusion, to this section, the implication is that neither image nor decision-making factors may matter, unless the non-tourist has the means of negotiating through existing constraints whether it can be influenced or not influenced by the non-tourist. Decision-making and image factors can strengthen or weaken the importance or non-importance of constraint factors depending on where they are in the image or decision-making process but not alter decisions to travel if constraints are significant enough. Analysis that is more detailed, correlations and regressions are needed to fully comprehend the complexity and multi-faceted nature of decision-making.

Fourthly, the correlation between image and inhibitors revealed that Intrapersonal inhibitors and intentional image aspects correlate negatively with one another, meaning that direct messages about South Africa, through Internet and movies for example, lessen the constraints associated with intrapersonal inhibitors. If the correct information is communicated, challenges associated with family travelling, travelling with small children and health concerns will be less. This emphasises the importance of information. These days it is not about location, it is about information. There is also a positive correlation between security inhibitors and unintentional image aspects. *Security inhibitors* include variables such as perceived and real safety and security risks as passed on to the respondents through news and word-of-mouth sources. *Unintentional image aspects* are concerned with the image of South Africa as perceived by respondents influenced by aspects such as major events, the political climate in South Africa and news/media about South Africa. Security inhibitors are becoming more important as unintentional images are formed. A direct relationship can be drawn between the image of South Africa as perceived by respondents influenced by messages through media and their perception of South Africa as an unsafe destination to travel to. In other words, the more messages respondents received via news, word-of-mouth, through family or friends, the bigger effect security and safety constraints of South Africa will have on their decision-making. Statistics of crime against inbound travellers are little as most violent crimes occur between people who know each other and these crimes are mostly localised, mainly affecting the poorest neighbourhoods where tourists are unlikely to visit (Plantive, 2010). However, it is still evident that perceptions of crime are a constraint amongst non-users (Selby *et al.*,

2010:193). It is the researcher's opinion that in order to deal with negative publicity from media, more reliable information and statistics will be needed and made available, especially a comparison of crime statistics with inbound tourist arrival statistics and actual crimes against tourists. It is very important to communicate reliable news and information on South Africa as tourism destination continuously. Informed travellers make better decisions and South Africa should be on top of tourists mind when planning their next holiday.

Fifthly, correlations exist between inhibitors and decision-making factors. A number of relations can be drawn between these two factors. In general, all correlations are positive, so the more important certain factors were in international travel decision-making, the more important respondents considered selected inhibitors in assessing South Africa. It is of significance to the research that the higher evaluation of external inhibitors is correlated with an increase in the importance of external factors, destination attributes and access factors. Therefore, health risks and services, poor service quality, malaria and HIV risks and public service delivery strikes influence decision-making significantly. The same trend can be observed when it comes to constraints relating to destination attributes and security inhibitors; external factors of decision-making and destination attributes of decision-making. In conclusion to this section, a number of medium to strong correlations exist that assume constraints affect decision-making to a great extent. The higher the risk of travelling to South Africa for whatever specific reason the bigger the effect it has on decision-making. This emphasises the multi-faceted nature of the tourism industry which is clearly dependent on various internal and external influences. The coordination between the public and private sector in providing a quality tourism experience is the solution to this challenge. Tourism is about networking, coordination, combined efforts and sharing. The national government should drive these values in all provinces by means of workshops, network opportunities, integrated marketing efforts etcetera.

Lastly, in an effort to address the current constraints, the regression analyses focused on the most important predictors of the constraints. External inhibitors are predicted by external factors, destination factors and tourism attraction factors. Destination attributes are predicted by destination factors and tourism attraction factors. Structural constraints are predicted by structural factors and external factors. This result confirms that the factors that are important for respondents when travelling internationally are directly projected to the perceived constraints that they think they might encounter in South Africa. Thus,

destination image remains of high importance as discussed earlier for any destination, but even more so for South Africa as a tourism destination.

5.6 CONCLUSIONS

This study examined the effect of image and travel influencing factors on inhibitors. Empirical results were obtained and analysed by means of exploratory factor analysis on image aspects, influencing factors on decision-making and constraints independently. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to analyse the relationship between these variables and lastly listwise regressions were used to identify the most significant predictors of constraints as indicated by respondents.

It was of significance to this study that the majority of image aspects and factors influencing decision-making were perceived as important or had an impact on decision-making showcasing the complexity of the tourism product. This implies that unless the respondents can find a way to negotiate through current constraints and inhibitors first, actual visits to South Africa might be highly unlikely. With regard to results from the correlation analysis, it is clear and significant that the value being placed on information, word-of-mouth, news and media greatly affects perceived constraints. Constraints clearly affect decision-making to a great extent.

The results implicated in this study are the first step towards in-depth research on the non-users of the South African tourism product and the constraints affecting their decision-making. Constraints continuously change on a global scale, for example, the Ebola virus and the most recent terrorist attacks on Paris can affect tourism globally. South Africans are removed from where all the global events occurred, offering an alternative for attracting tourists. However, a concrete understanding is needed on what is keeping tourists away from South Africa, based on the constraints they perceive. Further research is needed on key target markets as well as potential and rising markets. Results might predict completely different outcomes for different target markets and these can be used, firstly, to inform the markets of any misperceptions about South Africa and, secondly, to market specifically to the non-users. The findings of this research contributes to practise by identifying the relationship and showing the influence of image on inhibitors. In the context of a developing country, this has been underestimated but clearly image plays a very important role.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to provide conclusions and make recommendations concerning the research. The primary objective of the research was to develop a travel decision-making framework inhibiting inbound tourism to assist marketers and the tourism organisations in developing strategies to improve the market share of South Africa as a tourism destination for the European market. To achieve this aim, the following secondary objectives were set in Chapter 1 and met throughout the study:

- The first objective, to analyse previous travel decision-making models and frameworks by means of an in-depth literature review, was achieved in Chapter 2.
- Secondly, also achieved in Chapter 2 were the analysis of theory of constraints within tourism and an analysis of the literature concerning the type of constraints that could potentially impact on decision-making with reference to South Africa.
- The third objective was to analyse travel decision-making framework inhibiting inbound tourism in travelling to South Africa as perceived by mostly European tourists, with reference to types and relationships between inhibitors. This was achieved through empirical research, more specifically an exploratory factor analysis, as seen in Chapter 3.
- The fourth objective was to determine the influence of demographics and travel behaviour on the evaluation of inhibitors. Chapter 4 is evidence of the achievement of this objective and included empirical research such as *t*-tests, ANOVAs and Spearman correlations to do a correlation analysis between the constraints and demographic and travel behaviour characteristics.

- The fifth objective was to determine the effect of destination image and travel influencing factors on inhibitors through exploratory factor analysis on destination image, travel-influencing factors and inhibitors individually. This was achieved in Chapter 5, which includes empirical research such as Pearson correlations and listwise regressions to achieve the objective.
- The sixth chapter aimed to achieve the primary objective of constructing a travel decision-making framework inhibiting inbound tourism through empirical research as well as make conclusions and recommendations regarding the study. This is therefore to be achieved in the current chapter, namely Chapter 6.

In the next section, the contributions of the study will be discussed.

6.2 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THIS STUDY

Contributions of the study to the field of tourism marketing research are discussed in this section in terms of literature contributions and practical contributions.

- Literature Contributions:
 - It was the first time that such an extensive and elaborate list of travel constraints was identified and assessed, and a more detailed description of these as well as their role in travel decisions contribute therefore to the body of knowledge of tourism marketing and decision-making.
 - The identification and assessment of these constraints led to the development of a novel model where the important role of inhibitors was identified. This is a major contribution to literature, focusing on the more negative side of travel decisions.
 - The development of a time-line of decision-making models and the critical analyses of these models are a novel contribution made to this field of study.

- Contradictory to previous literature, the importance of structural constraints was highlighted above all other constraints, which adds new knowledge and insight to the current travel-decision-making processes as well as the approaches followed in the development of marketing strategies.
- Contradictory to previous literature and significant to this study it was found that travel behaviour variables do not play a role in the evaluation of inhibitors. It is therefore all about the constraints and inhibitors and how that influences decisions.
- The relations between image and travel inhibitors are a major contribution, which has not been assessed previously. This gives new perspective on how constraints can be managed through the development of an image that minimises the effect of inhibitors.
- Practical Contributions:
 - A major contribution of this study is the assessment of these inhibitors in the South African case study and the realisation that security is not the biggest inhibitor but rather structural constraints are. The perceptions that South Africa is expensive to travel to should therefore be addressed with different marketing strategies and approaches.
 - This model enables marketers and tourism planners to understand the behaviour of the non-visitor to South Africa and enable them to review the constraints, and plan and market accordingly. This model therefore facilitates a more focused marketing approach.
 - Clearly it was found that it is needed to create higher levels of continuous awareness of the South African tourism products and that more integrated efforts is needed to get this right.

6.3 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions with regard to the research can be drawn:

- Conclusions with regard to the analysis of existing decision-making models and frameworks.
- Conclusions with regard to the analysis of tourism constraint theory and types of constraints.
- Conclusions with regard to the empirical analysis on constraints on travelling to South Africa as perceived by European tourists.
- Conclusions with regard to the influence of demographics and travel behaviour on the evaluation of constraints.
- Conclusions with regard to the effect of destination image and travel influencing factors on constraints.
- Conclusions with regard to the decision-making framework of travel constraints based on all empirical data covered in all chapters.

6.3.1 Conclusions with regard to the analysis of existing decision-making models and frameworks

- The term tourism behaviour indicates what people do and how their bodies function in space and time (cf. 2.2).
- *Travel decision-making models* derived from consumer behaviour models that have been developed since the 1960s cannot be directly applied to the field of tourism due to the intangible nature of tourism (cf. 2.2).
- *Tourism microeconomic models* are concerned with and governed by price, spending money and available time in order to fulfil a specific need (cf. 2.2.1).
- *Tourism microeconomic variables* (price, budget and time) are amongst the main constraint contributors in the majority of decision-making research as well

as this specific research; however, in some cases these variables are out of the direct control of an individual (cf. 2.2.5.2).

- *Tourism microeconomic models* fail to recognise questions related to why and how decisions are being made. They rarely focus on how tourists are actually behaving and, because of the price and time-biased variables, the main focus remains on how tourists should behave (cf. 2.2.5.2).
- Furthermore, the outcome is that alternative variables with the potential to greatly influence tourism decision-making are never considered in the approach to research of *tourism microeconomic models* (cf. 2.2.5.2).
- Lastly, *tourism microeconomic models* focus on individual decision-making and it cannot be assumed that individual tourists (cf. 2.2.5.2) will only make decisions. There are numerous other influences in this process that all need to be considered.
- *Tourism cognitive models* focus on socio-psychological variables involved in decision-making, therefore the tourist is no longer passive in his approach to decision-making but rather actively involved in problem solving to fulfil certain needs (cf. 2.2.3).
- In *tourism cognitive models*, information processing, motivations and perceptions become an integral part of the decision-making research (cf. 2.2.5.3).
- The *tourism cognitive models* made strong reference to the influence of constraints/inhibitors, but fail to elaborate on the extent to which constraints might actually influence decision-making (cf. 2.2.5.3).
- *Tourism cognitive models* do consider certain constraints but constraints theory and to what extent it impact a decision not to travel to a destination is a neglected dimension to tourism research (cf. 2.2.5.3).
- *Tourism cognitive models* are limited to key variables considered for the research. On the one hand it assists with keeping the empirical part of research simple and user-friendly; however, on the other hand, the research is

limited since only a small portion of the variables is considered in the decision-making process of the research (cf. 2.2.5.3).

- In most cases, *tourism cognitive models* lack empirical evidence and empirical assessment of hypotheses, which is a major gap in this field of research (cf. 2.2.5.3).
- Research from *tourism interpretive and conceptual frameworks* challenged the cognitive approach to tourism research to a more naturalistic and experiential approach. Tourism decision-making is a multistage and formalised approach that allows for variables not taken into account in previous research to be considered (cf. 2.2.4).
- *Tourism interpretive and conceptual frameworks* did not exclude the progress made in *tourism cognitive models* in terms of the different variables considered in the decision-making process, such as: socio-psychological variables, destination choice structures, initiation of the first idea information search, and the final decision taken (cf. 2.2.5.4).
- Key variables not included in *tourism cognitive models* were considered in *tourism interpretive and conceptual frameworks*. These variables include accommodation choice, choice of companions, mode choice and duration of the trip (cf. 2.2.5.4).
- *Tourism interpretive and conceptual frameworks* included and defined constraints relevant to the study where they were only partially recognised and limited in how general concepts of constraints were dealt with in the other decision-making models (cf. 2.2.5.4).
- It is therefore clear that the following gaps exist in this field of study: research on non-users is limited; decision-making models do not consider in-depth analysis of constraints and the impact on decision-making; limited key variables relating to constraints and a lack of empirical evidence and hypotheses exist.

- For all of the above reasons, the aim of this research is to provide a conceptual and interpretive framework where constraints affecting non-users in their decision-making to visit South Africa as a destination will be empirically tested.

6.3.2 Conclusions with regard to the analysis of tourism constraint theory and types of constraints

- Constraints within the context of tourism restrict tourism development and limit people from travelling to a destination which, in turn, limit tourism destination development (cf. 2.3).
- When constraints as perceived by potential tourists are removed, a decision to travel to the particular destination becomes more likely (cf. 2.3).
- Constraint theory within tourism literature has been recognised, but limitations exist in how literature deals with the general concept of constraints. Previous literature has neglected the impact of constraints on participation (cf. 2.3).
- The tourism industry should not only seek to understand decision-making processes, but also focus on the range of constraints preventing non-tourists from visiting a destination (cf. 2.3).
- Literature mainly focuses on the theory of leisure constraints, although the potential exists for the application of leisure constraint theory in the context of tourism (cf. 2.3.1).
- Through the literature review of this section it is clear that limitations regarding constraints within the context of tourism exist. Where constraints and theory of constraints do feature, a lack of explaining constraints within the broader context of decision-making exists.
- Constraints potentially affecting tourist decision-making are identified as: crime and perceptions of crime; political unrest; health risks and epidemic disasters; tourism crises; travel distance, cognitive distance and long-haul

travel; market access, infrastructure and the role of travel intermediaries; service quality; word-of-mouth; budget, money, price and foreign exchange; time; image formation and the role of media (cf. 2.3.2).

6.3.3 Conclusions with regard to the influence of travel inhibitors on tourism to South Africa as perceived by European tourists

- Results from the empirical analysis indicate that the respondents of this research are frequent international travellers, between 2-3 times per year. However, none has visited South Africa in the past 12 months (cf. 3.5).
- Respondents originated predominantly from Europe (specifically France) and America. The most visited destinations were also either
- European or American destinations (cf. 3.5).
- The above-mentioned target markets also form part of the current core markets as identified by SA Tourism (cf. 3.5).
- Destinations more attractive than South Africa as perceived by the respondents are all long-haul destinations similar to South Africa in relation to the target market (cf. 3.5).
- Results from the factor analysis indicate the following travel inhibitors that can have an impact on decision-making regarding South Africa: external inhibitors, destination attributes, security inhibitors, structural constraints and intrapersonal inhibitors (cf. 3.5).
- Respondents neither strongly agreed nor strongly disagreed with the factors inhibiting them from visiting South Africa. Respondents are therefore either uncertain of the constraints listed or are not strongly affected by the notion of these constraints (cf. 3.5). This in itself is a positive finding for South Africa as a tourism destination since non-visitors do not feel completely negative about visiting this country.
- *Structural constraints* were the most significant potential constraints in the decision-making process. *Structural constraints* include budget, discretionary

income and time, and travel distance (cf. 3.5). It is however challenging to manage these constraints as one does not have control over them. The impact of *Structural constraints* as indicated by the results supports decision-making models, more specifically microeconomic models (cf. 3.5).

- The second most significant inhibitors were those associated with *Security inhibitors*, which can influence decisions to travel to South Africa (cf. 3.5). Results both confirm and at the same time contradict media messages about the impact of *Security inhibitors* on the decision-making of potential tourists to South Africa. *Security inhibitors* therefore do play a role, just not as significant as found in other studies and indicated in decision-making models (cf. 2.3.2.1; cf. 2.3.2.11 & cf. 3.5).
- The empirical research confirms the notion that the actual experience of travelling to South Africa positively altered their perceptions of South Africa before the visit, especially with regard to *Crime* and *Security constraints* (cf. 2.3.2.1 & cf. 3.5). The importance of first-time visitors and how they experience a destination is evident.
- The research indicated that in respondents' assessment of South Africa as a tourism destination, they are not directly inhibited by *External inhibitors*; *Destination attributes* and *Intrapersonal inhibitors* (cf. 3.5).

6.3.4 Conclusions with regard to the influence of demographics and travel behaviour on the evaluation of inhibitors

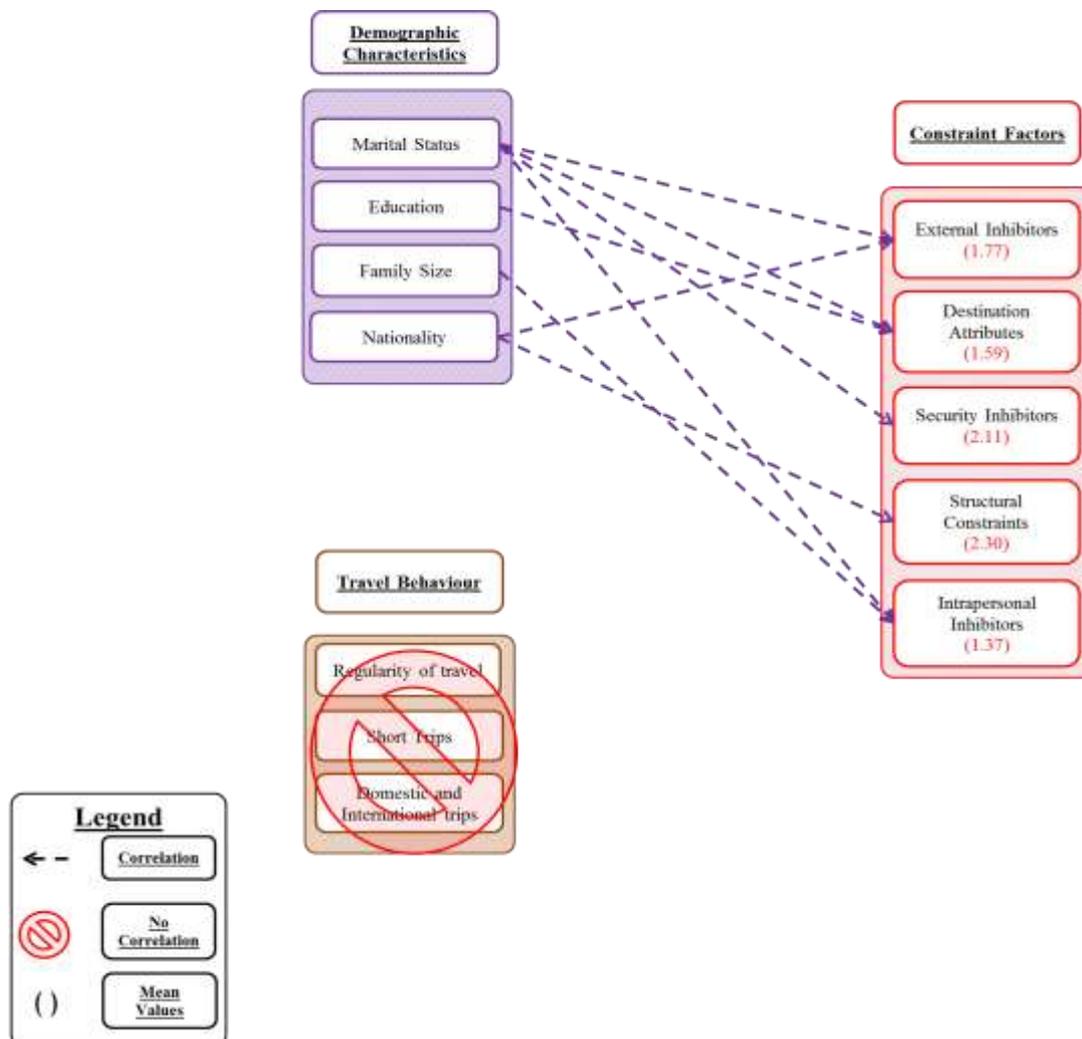


Figure 6.1: The influence of demographic characteristics and travel behaviour on constraints
Source: Researcher's own compilation

- As indicated in Figure 6.1, correlations existed between the dependent variable (constraints) and the independent variables (socio-demographic characteristics). These existed for *marital status*, *level of education*, *family size* and *nationality* (cf. 4.4.4).
- Significantly, no correlations existed between *travel behaviour factors* and constraints (cf. 4.4.4). The length of the trip, the number of trips and whether one travels internationally or nationally do not influence one's consideration of travel constraints.

- *Marital status* is one of the variables that did reflect a significant correlation. Engaged people are more likely to be affected by constraints. It is important to note that this variable was small in relation to the other variables. Novel to this study are the results from the *single* category. *Single* respondents disagree with most of the other variables that constraints might influence their decision to travel to South Africa, except for *Structural constraints* (budget, money, discretionary time and travel time) (cf. 4.4.4).
- Results indicate that *Nationality* has a significant correlation with constraints. Respondents from Eastern European countries agreed more with the majority of the constraints inhibiting them from travelling to South Africa, while respondents originating from Western European countries agreed least with constraints relating to South Africa as a potential tourist destination. Similar to the results in the previous conclusions, *Structural constraints* were perceived as being more important for this independent group (cf. 4.4.4).
- Respondents with either a diploma or a degree (*level of education*) correlated with *destination attributes*, indicating that respondents with a higher education are more concerned with the *climate; attributes of attractiveness; entertainment; shopping and nightlife* (cf. 4.4.4).
- For *age* and *gender* as independent variables, no correlations were found with the dependent variable (constraints). This contradicts previous literature with regard to the above-mentioned variables (cf. 4.4.4).

In conclusion, it is clear that the socio-demographic characteristics do influence constraints to some extent, while travel behaviour had no impact whatsoever on travel constraints. The latter contradicts previous literature stating that certain travel behaviour variables are important in travel decision-making.

6.3.5 Conclusions with regard to the effect of destination image and travel influencing factors on inhibitors

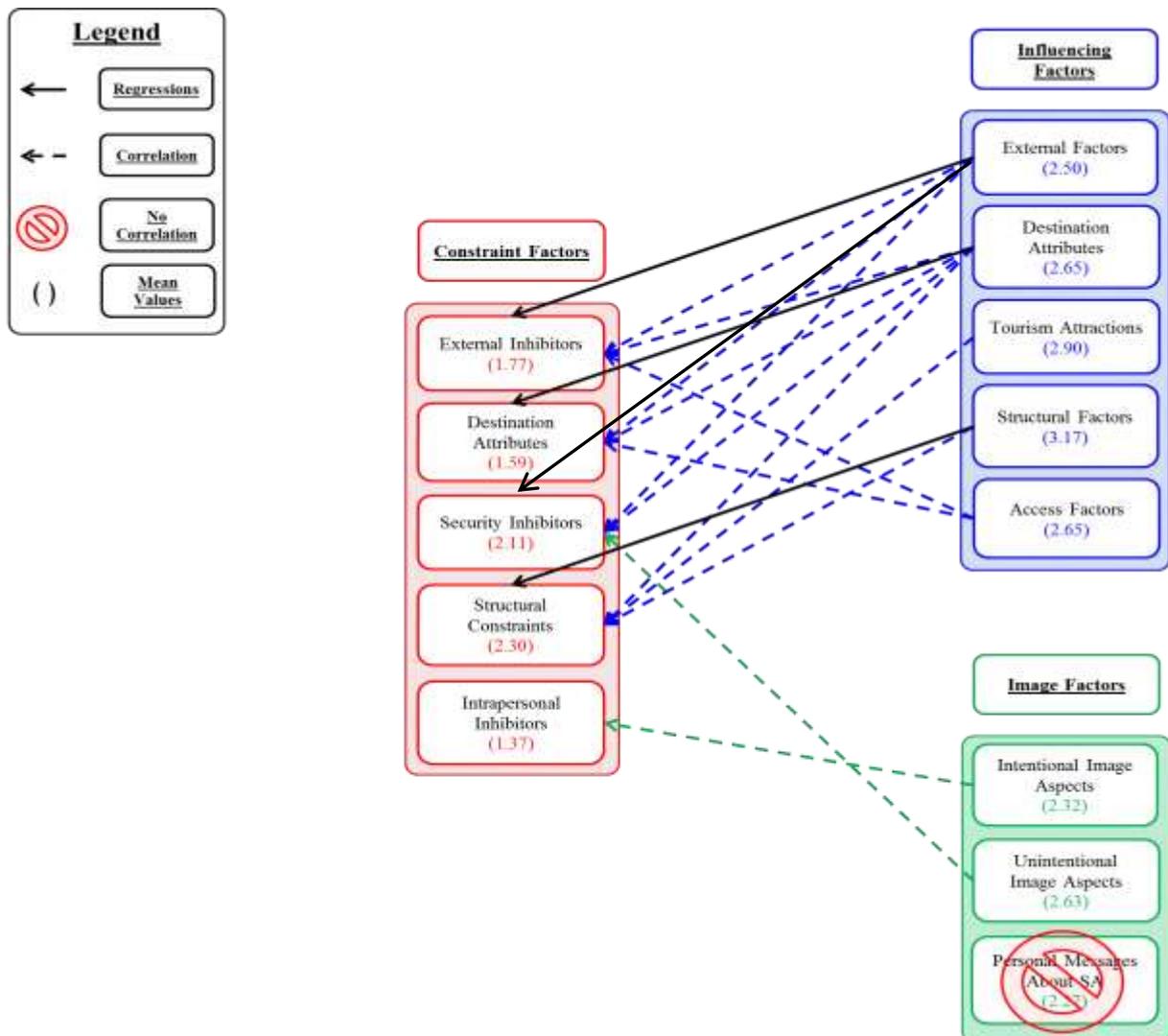


Figure 6.2: The effect of destination image and travel influencing factors on constraints

Source: Researcher's own compilation

- Figure 6.2 indicates the results from this section of the research.
- With regard to factors influencing international travel decision-making, respondents indicated that all factors were important when making decisions, with mean values higher than 2 (cf. 5.4.2).
- *Structural factors*, consisting of discretionary time, budget and income, were the most important factor of decision-making according to the respondents (cf. 5.4.2).

- *Tourism attractions* were the second most important factor of decision-making, which included arts and culture, history of the destination and the culture of the destination (cf. 5.4.2).
- Similar to factors influencing decision-making, respondents also indicated that certain aspects do influence their image of South Africa to some degree. *Unintentional image factors*, which include the political climate, news and media, and events, had the biggest influence on respondents' image of South Africa (cf. 5.4.3).
- Significant correlations can be drawn between image and constraints. Results indicate that *Intrapersonal inhibitors* correlate negatively with *Intentional image aspects*. Therefore, the direct messages about South Africa through Internet and movies, for example, lessen constraints associated with *Intrapersonal constraints* such as health and travelling with small children (cf. 5.4.4).
- A positive, direct correlation exists between *Security inhibitors* and *Unintentional image aspects*. Variables therefore include perceived and real safety and security risks influenced by the messages received through news and media sources; coverage of events and the political climate in South Africa. *Security inhibitors* are therefore becoming more important in respondents' perception of South Africa as a safe destination as *unintentional messages* are formed (cf. 5.4.4).
- No relationship exists between *word-of-mouth aspects* and constraints that can impact decision-making (cf.5.4.4).
- Figure 6.2 also indicates correlations between constraints and decision-making factors (dashed blue line). Significantly, in general, all correlations are positive; therefore the more important certain factors were in international travel decision-making, the more important respondents considered selected inhibitors in assessing South Africa (cf. 5.4.4).
- For the South African case study significant correlations exist between *external inhibitors* to South Africa and influencing factors such as *external factors*, *destination attributes* and *access factors*. Therefore health risks and services, poor service quality, malaria and HIV risks, and public service delivery strikes

impact decision-making significantly (cf. 5.4.4).

- The same trend is visible from the results with regard to constraints concerning *destination attributes* and *security inhibitors* and travel influencing factors. *Destination attributes* correlate with *external factors*, *destination attributes factors* and *access factors*. *Security inhibitors* also correlate with *external factors* and *destination attributes* (cf. 5.4.4).
- Correlations exist between *structural constraints* and travel influencing factors such as *destination attributes*, *tourism attractions* and *structural factors* (cf. 5.4.4). Respondents inhibited by finances, time and so on carefully consider attributes, attractions and structural factors in their travel decisions.
- The regression analyses revealed that the most significant predictor of *external inhibitors* is *external factors of decision-making* (c.f. 5.4.5). *Destination factors* of decision-making made the strongest unique contribution in explaining the predictors of *destination attributes* as a constraint (cf. 5.4.5).
- With regard to factors predicting *security inhibitors*, *external factors* made the strongest contribution. This is the second time that *external factors* featured as the most significant contributor in predicting constraints. *External factors* consist of variables such as *Political stability*; *Accommodation availability*; *Accessibility of the destination*; *Infrastructure*; *Health services* and *Food and beverages* (0.47) of a destination (cf. 5.4.5).
- *Structural factors* predicted the perceptions of *structural constraints* the best (cf. 5.4.5).

In conclusion to this section, a number of medium to strong correlations exist between image aspects, factors influencing decision-making and constraints. Therefore, the higher the risk of travelling to South Africa for whatever specific reasons, the bigger the effect it has on decision-making and respondents' image of South Africa. It is, however, not the expected *Security inhibitors* that have the biggest influence. Structural inhibitors cannot be controlled but the way tourism in South Africa is portrayed directly influences this inhibitor.

6.3.6 Conclusions with regard to the travel decision-making framework inhibiting inbound tourism

- Figure 6.3 illustrates the decision-making framework of travel constraints based on purely empirical data, as well as previous decision-making models covered throughout the research. Conclusions with regard to the individual dependent and independent variables on constraints were made throughout this chapter in sections 6.3.3 – 6.3.5.
- Conclusions with regard to literature on previous decision-making models were made in section 6.3.1.
- In summary, the following conclusions can be drawn:
 - 1) Socio-demographic and travel behaviour characteristics influence the decision-making process as described in the literature review (cf. 2.2).
 - 2) Respondents view the majority of factors influencing international decisions as important. The most important were structural factors, consisting of discretionary time, budget and income, and tourism attractions, consisting of arts and culture; history of the destination and the culture of the destination (cf. 5.4.2; cf. 6.3.5).
 - 3) Correlations between international decision-making factors and constraints are positive, so the more important certain factors were in international travel decision-making, the more important respondents considered selected inhibitors in assessing South Africa (cf. 5.4.4; cf. 6.3.5).
 - 4) The most significant predictors of constraints on international decision-making are evident and indicated by a black line (cf. 5.4.5).
 - 5) In the next phase, all constraints about the potential destinations, as well as the immediate environment, need to be negotiated in order for the decision-making process to continue (cf. 2.3.).
 - 6) Tourists do not make independent choices, but rather complex multi-layered decisions, some sequential, others multi-faceted (cf.2.2).

- 7) Constraint negotiations take place, with a number of demographic characteristics, existing travel behaviour and image factors potentially influencing certain constraints (cf. 6.3.3; cf. 6.3.4; cf. 6.3.5).
- 8) A decision to travel or not travel to South Africa is made based on the ability of the potential tourist to negotiate through constraints together with the impact of marketing efforts in dealing with these constraints.

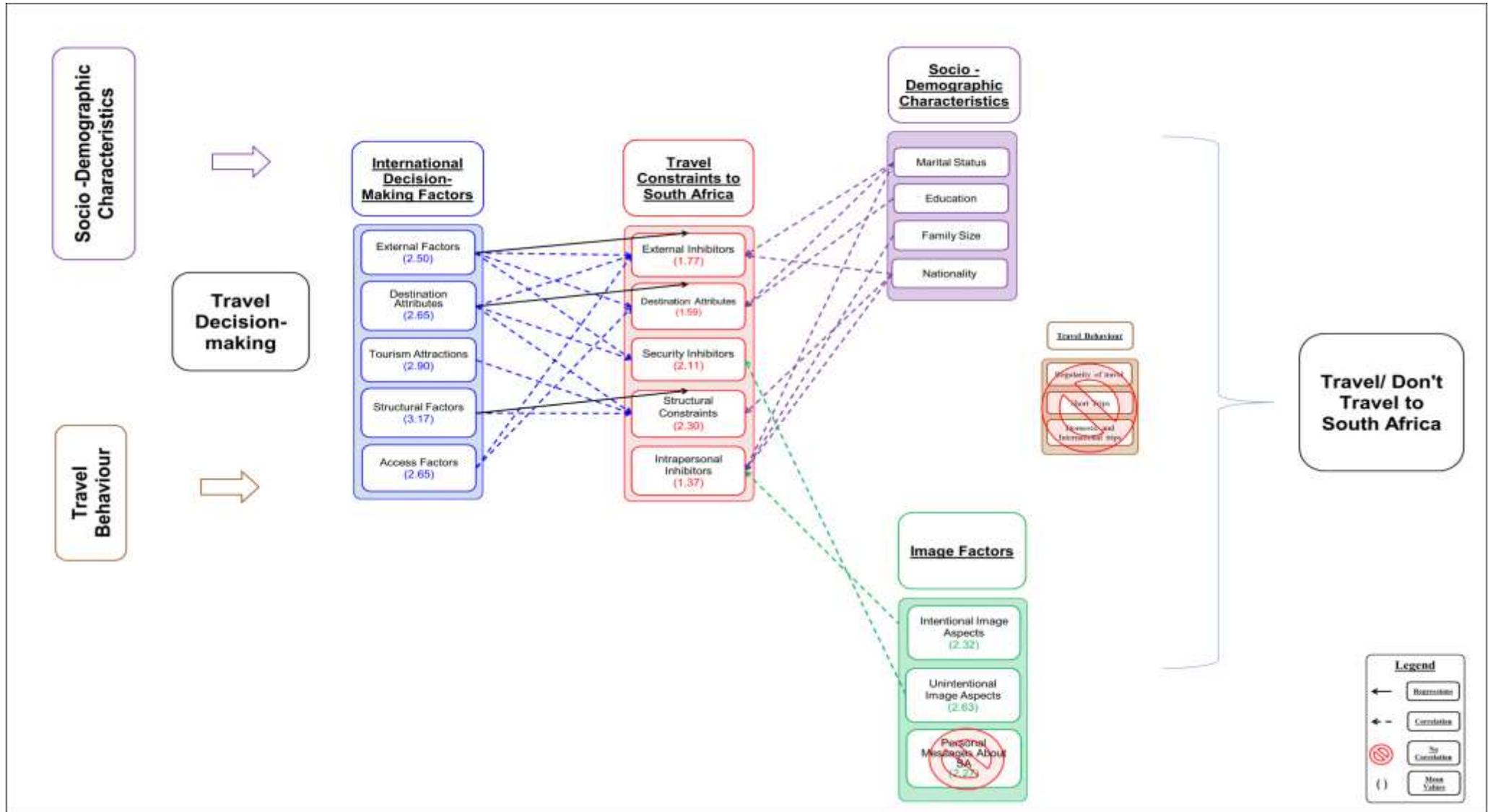


Figure 6.3: A travel decision-making framework inhibiting inbound tourism
 Source: Researcher's own compilation

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations are discussed with regard to minimising the effect of travel inhibitors from a management and marketing perspective, as well as highlighting the aspects influencing these travel constraints.

6.4.1 Recommendations with regard to the management of travel inhibitors and effective marketing of the destination

Competition in the tourism industry is growing but the growth of visitor numbers to South Africa can be improved. It is important to understand the complete travel-decision-making process in order to understand the choices potential tourists make. It is generally believed that tourists do not visit a specific country due to fear of political unrest, safety and security issues. Added to this it has always been believed that, because of South Africa being a long-haul tourism destination, people tend to travel to closer attractions or destinations. With this in mind, it is important to determine the real inhibitors of travel to South Africa in order to address these issues. Based on the conclusions and the research results analysed above, the following recommendations are made regarding the travel constraints:

- Understanding these constraints requires in-depth analyses and consideration in the travel decision-making process and it is important to analyse this from the perspective of a non-traveller to South Africa, but also from someone who does travel. The findings of the study show reliable travel constraints that can cause potential visitors to refrain from travelling and therefore the following is advised:
 - Continuous research amongst non-travellers on aspects inhibiting them from travelling to South Africa is needed to understand possible changes in perceptions of travel constraints. This will also enable tourism marketing organisations to adapt their marketing strategies and create more focused campaigns that address the specific constraints identified by the non-travellers.
 - Structural constraints are the most important constraint. It is recommended that the marketing approach to South Africa is re-considered. South African Tourism should develop a campaign focused on *Value-for-money* to counteract the effect of constraints related to budget, income and monetary concerns. This campaign should run in the top five markets of South Africa to

create better awareness of what travelling in South Africa is all about and that it is not that expensive. Attention should be given to online sites to manage this campaign. These online sites, such as Facebook and Twitter, should be managed full-time by staff who are committed to increasing the number of tourists to this country and who understand how to work with potential tourists.

- Every effort should be made to monitor the messages published about this country, especially in politically challenging times. Again, we should be more proactive in how we approach this and manage the messages before the wrong messages are distributed. A dedicated social media network should be managed for tourists to access updated information on tourism in South Africa.
- Tourism organisations should take note of these travel constraints and plan for ways to lessen the effect of these constraints. Workshops and on-line communication are recommended in all provinces to convey this type of information and keep the industry updated.
- Destination marketing organisations and other marketing entities could use the constraints framework as a planning tool and by discussing it, the effect of the travel constraints will be minimised and a better understanding of the effect of other influencing factors on these constraints will be created (See Figure 6.3).
- It is also important to understand the factors and aspects influencing these travel constraints as perceptions about travel constraints are not formed in isolation. The findings of the study show various aspects that can contribute to perceptions of travel constraints and therefore the following is advised:
 - The correlation between existing image and travel constraints became evident in this research. Since the image of a destination directly influences the assessment of the travel constraints, it is important that tourism organisations and government ensure that intentional and unintentional images carry the correct messages to international markets by means of advertisements, news articles, documentaries etcetera. This is becoming more difficult to manage due to the free flow of information online. More

'watchdogs' are needed to critically analyse all possible messages about the destinations.

6.4.2 Recommendations concerning future research

Based on the results of the research, it is proposed that the following aspects require further research:

- The validity and usefulness of this framework can be assessed for the six key markets to South Africa namely France, UK, Germany, Italy, Netherlands and the US. It is recommended that face-to-face interviews are therefore conducted in these key markets. This will enable comparisons to be made between markets and focus on the approaches to be followed in marketing and planning.
- Research should be done to determine to what extent the travel constraints differ between national and international non-travellers. Again face-to-face interviews are recommended. This will add value to the current marketing strategies for both markets.
- Given the identification of the travel constraints, it is recommended that the current marketing strategies of South African tourism are analysed to determine to what extent they address these constraints.

6.4.3 Limitations

The following limitations were evident:

- The identification and location of non-travellers to South Africa was challenging and probably the most difficult part of this study. Face-to-face interviews would have been ideal, but this has significant financial implications.
- Research in other countries presents serious language barriers that can be addressed by using a local fieldwork team.

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APPENDIX A: ENGLISH QUESTIONNAIRE



ASSESSING THE KEY FACTORS INHIBITING TRAVELLING TO SOUTH AFRICA



Dear Respondent, thank you for your willingness to participate in this research study. Please complete both pages.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1 Gender?

Male	1
Female	2

2 In what year were you born?

19

3 Marital Status?

Single	1
In a relationship	2
Engaged	3
Married	4
Divorced	5
Widow/er	6
Other: Specify	7

4 Highest Level of Education?

Higher Education	1
Diploma/ Degree	2
Postgraduate	3
Other: Specify	4

5 Nationality?

6 Family Size?

No Children	1
1 Child	2
2 Children	3
3-4 Children	4
More than 4 children	5

7 Occupation?

Professional	1
Management	2
Administrative	3
Technical	4
Sales	5
Civil service worker	6
Education	7
Student	8
Unemployed	9
Housewife	10
Pensioner	11
Other (Specify)	12

SECTION B - TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

8 How many *holidays* (longer than 4 days) in total did you take over the last 12 months?

One	1
2-3 holidays	2
4-5 holidays	3
More than 5 holidays	4
None	5

9 How many *shorter trips* (2-3 days) in total did you take over the last 12 months?

One	1
2-3 short trips	2
4-5 short trips	3
More than 5 trips	4
None	5

11 How many *domestic* trips did you take in the past 12 months?

Number:

12 How many *international* trips did you take in the past 12 months?

Number:

13 Name the last two international destinations you visited?

1 _____ 2 _____

14 Which two countries do you consider as more favourable tourism destinations than South Africa?

1 _____ 2 _____

10 To what extent do the following aspects influence your image of South Africa?

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	To a great extent
News/Media of South Africa	1	2	3	4
Family and Friends	1	2	3	4
Famous icons	1	2	3	4
Famous landmarks	1	2	3	4
Television programmes about SA	1	2	3	4
Political climate	1	2	3	4
Immigrated South Africans	1	2	3	4
Movies	1	2	3	4
Internet	1	2	3	4
Documentaries	1	2	3	4
Events	1	2	3	4

SECTION C - DECISION-MAKING FACTORS

15	Indicate your level of agreement with the factors inhibiting you from visiting South Africa	Completely disagree	Disagree	Agree	Completely agree
15.1	I do not feel safe to travel to South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.2	I do not have the money to travel to South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.3	I am worried about being exposed to diseases such as HIV Aids	1	2	3	4
15.4	I heard too many bad things about South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.5	I am just not interested in South Africa as a tourism destination	1	2	3	4
15.6	I do not have the time to travel to South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.7	I cannot find anyone who wants to join me on a trip to South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.8	My own health deters me from travelling to South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.9	I support green travel practices and therefore travel less	1	2	3	4
15.10	I am not interested in travelling to South Africa in general	1	2	3	4
15.11	South Africa is too far away to travel	1	2	3	4
15.12	My friends and family advised me against travelling to South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.13	My children are too small to travel to South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.14	The infrastructure is below standard	1	2	3	4
15.15	The accommodation is poor	1	2	3	4
15.16	The service in South Africa is poor	1	2	3	4
15.17	It is not accessible to travel within South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.18	South Africa has a bad reputation as a tourism destination	1	2	3	4
15.19	There are too many public service delivery strikes and protests	1	2	3	4
15.20	There is political unrest in South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.21	There is too little information available about South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.22	There are too many bad reviews on Social Media about South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.23	I hear a lot of bad stories in the news about South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.24	The travel agents advise me against travelling to South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.25	The current economic crisis does not allow me to travel	1	2	3	4
15.26	I would rather go to a closer destination	1	2	3	4
15.27	Health services are below standard	1	2	3	4
15.28	The health risks are too high	1	2	3	4
15.29	South Africa is a malaria-invested area	1	2	3	4
15.30	It is too expensive to travel to South Africa	1	2	3	4
15.31	There is not enough entertainment, shopping and night life	1	2	3	4
15.32	There is not enough attributes of attractiveness and beauty	1	2	3	4
15.33	The South African exchange rate is too strong	1	2	3	4
15.34	The climate in South Africa is not favourable	1	2	3	4
15.35	South Africa is too dirty	1	2	3	4
15.36	South Africa is too polluted	1	2	3	4
16	Rate the importance of the following factors in your travel decisions to international destinations	Not Important	Less Important	Important	Very Important
16.1	Your own discretionary income and budget	1	2	3	4
16.2	Your own discretionary time	1	2	3	4
16.3	Travel distance to the destination	1	2	3	4
16.4	Safety and security at the destination	1	2	3	4
16.5	Levels of service delivery	1	2	3	4
16.6	Influence of seasonality	1	2	3	4
16.7	Availability of attractions	1	2	3	4
16.8	Culture of the destination	1	2	3	4
16.9	Word-of-mouth and social marketing	1	2	3	4
16.10	Accommodation available	1	2	3	4
16.11	History of the destination	1	2	3	4
16.12	Food and beverages of the destination	1	2	3	4
16.13	Level of infrastructure	1	2	3	4
16.14	Accessibility of the destination	1	2	3	4
16.15	Availability of health services	1	2	3	4
16.16	Climate of the destination	1	2	3	4
16.17	Entertainment, shopping and night-life	1	2	3	4
16.18	Political stability	1	2	3	4
16.19	Arts and culture	1	2	3	4
16.20	Hospitality and friendliness of the residents/locals	1	2	3	4
16.21	Economy and exchange rate	1	2	3	4
16.22	Information available about the destination	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX B: FRENCH QUESTIONNAIRE



ÉVALUATION DES FACTEURS-CLÉS EMPÊCHANT LES VOYAGES EN AFRIQUE DU SUD



Cher participant, merci d'avoir contribué à cette recherche. Veuillez remplir les deux pages.

PARTIE A : RENSEIGNEMENTS DÉMOGRAPHIQUES

1 Sexe

Homme	1
Femme	2

2 Année de naissance

19

3 Situation familiale

Célibataire	1
En couple	2
Fiancé(e)	3
Marié(e)	4
Divorcé(e)	5
Veuf(ve)	6
Autre : préciser	7

4 Années d'études

Baccalauréat	1
Bac + 1, 2 ou 3	2
Bac + 4 et au-delà	3
Autre : préciser	4

5 Nationalité

6 Taille de la famille

Sans enfant	1
1 enfant	2
2 enfants	3
3-4 enfants	4
Plus de 4 enfants	5

7 Profession

Profession libérale	1
Cadre	2
Domaine administratif	3
Domaine technique	4
Vente	5
Services publics	6
Enseignement	7
Étudiant	8
Sans emploi	9
Homme ou femme au foyer	10
Retraité	11
Autre : préciser	12

PARTIE B - HABITUDES EN MATIÈRE DE VOYAGE

8 Combien de fois au total avez-vous été en vacances (plus de 4 jours) au cours des 12 derniers mois ?

Une fois	1
2-3 fois	2
4-5 fois	3
Plus de 5 fois	4
Aucune	5

9 Combien de séjours courts (2-3 jours) avez-vous faits au total au cours des 12 derniers mois ?

Un	1
2-3 séjours courts	2
4-5 séjours courts	3
Plus de 5	4
Aucun	5

10 Dans quelle mesure les aspects suivants influencent-ils votre image de l'Afrique du Sud ?

	Pas du tout	Très peu	Modérément	Beaucoup
Infos/médias sur l'Afrique du Sud	1	2	3	4
Famille et amis	1	2	3	4
Icônes célèbres	1	2	3	4
Lieux célèbres	1	2	3	4
Programmes télévisés sur l'Afrique du Sud	1	2	3	4
Climat politique	1	2	3	4
Sud-africains émigrés	1	2	3	4
Films	1	2	3	4
Internet	1	2	3	4
Documentaires	1	2	3	4
Événements	1	2	3	4

11 Combien de voyages avez-vous faits à l'intérieur du pays au cours des 12 derniers mois ?

Nombre :

12 Combien de voyages avez-vous faits à l'international au cours des 12 derniers mois ?

Nombre :

13 Quelles sont les deux dernières destinations internationales que vous avez visitées ?

1 _____ 2 _____

14 D'après vous, quels pays sont les deux plus grands concurrents de l'Afrique du Sud en terme d'offre

1 _____ 2 _____

PARTIE C - FACTEURS DE PRISE DE DÉCISION					
15	Indiquez à quel degré ces facteurs vous empêchent de visiter l'Afrique du Sud.	Pas du tout d'accord	Pas vraiment d'accord	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
15.1	Je ne me sens pas assez en sécurité pour voyager en Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.2	Je n'ai pas les moyens de voyager en Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.3	J'ai peur d'être exposé à des maladies comme le VIH/sida.	1	2	3	4
15.4	J'ai entendu trop d'histoires sur la criminalité en Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.5	L'Afrique du Sud ne m'intéresse pas en tant que destination touristique.	1	2	3	4
15.6	Je n'ai pas le temps de voyager en Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.7	Je ne trouve personne pour se joindre à moi lors d'un voyage en Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.8	Mon état de santé m'empêche de voyager en Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.9	Je soutiens des pratiques de voyage écologique et je voyage donc moins.	1	2	3	4
15.10	Voyager en Afrique du Sud ne m'intéresse pas en général.	1	2	3	4
15.11	L'Afrique du Sud est trop loin pour y voyager.	1	2	3	4
15.12	Mes amis et ma famille m'ont déconseillé de voyager en Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.13	Mes enfants sont trop jeunes pour voyager en Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.14	Les infrastructures sont inférieures à la norme.	1	2	3	4
15.15	L'hébergement est de mauvaise qualité.	1	2	3	4
15.16	Les services en Afrique du Sud sont de mauvaise qualité.	1	2	3	4
15.17	Il est difficile de se déplacer à l'intérieur de l'Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.18	L'Afrique du Sud a une mauvaise réputation en tant que destination touristique.	1	2	3	4
15.19	Il y a trop de grèves et de manifestations dues à la prestation des services publics.	1	2	3	4
15.20	La politique sud-africaine est instable.	1	2	3	4
15.21	Il y a trop peu d'informations sur l'Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.22	Il y a trop d'avis négatifs sur l'Afrique du Sud dans les médias sociaux.	1	2	3	4
15.23	J'entends beaucoup d'histoires négatives sur l'Afrique du Sud passer aux infos.	1	2	3	4
15.24	Les agences de voyage me déconseillent de voyager en Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.25	Je ne peux pas me permettre de voyager à cause de la crise économique actuelle.	1	2	3	4
15.26	Je préfère visiter une destination plus proche.	1	2	3	4
15.27	Les soins de santé sont inférieurs à la norme.	1	2	3	4
15.28	Les risques de santé sont trop élevés.	1	2	3	4
15.29	L'Afrique du Sud est infestée par le paludisme.	1	2	3	4
15.30	C'est trop cher de voyager en Afrique du Sud.	1	2	3	4
15.31	Il n'y a pas assez de loisirs, de shopping et de vie nocturne.	1	2	3	4
15.32	Il n'y a pas assez de beauté et de charme.	1	2	3	4
15.33	Le taux de change sud-africain est trop fort.	1	2	3	4
15.34	Le climat sud-africain n'est pas favorable.	1	2	3	4
15.35	L'Afrique du Sud est un pays trop sale.	1	2	3	4
15.36	L'Afrique du Sud est trop polluée.	1	2	3	4
16	Évaluez l'importance du rôle que les facteurs suivants jouent dans votre choix pour un voyage vers une destination internationale.	Pas important	Peu important	Important	Très important
16.1	Vos revenus discrétionnaires et votre budget	1	2	3	4
16.2	Votre temps libre	1	2	3	4
16.3	La distance vers la destination	1	2	3	4
16.4	La sûreté et la sécurité de la destination	1	2	3	4
16.5	Le niveau de la prestation de services	1	2	3	4
16.6	L'influence des saisons	1	2	3	4
16.7	La disponibilité des attractions touristiques	1	2	3	4
16.8	La culture de la destination	1	2	3	4
16.9	Le bouche à oreille et le marketing social	1	2	3	4
16.10	L'hébergement disponible	1	2	3	4
16.11	L'histoire de la destination	1	2	3	4
16.12	La gastronomie de la destination	1	2	3	4
16.13	Le niveau de développement des infrastructures	1	2	3	4
16.14	La facilité de l'accès à la destination	1	2	3	4
16.15	La disponibilité des soins de santé	1	2	3	4
16.16	Le climat de la destination	1	2	3	4
16.17	Les loisirs, le shopping et la vie nocturne	1	2	3	4
16.18	La stabilité politique	1	2	3	4
16.19	Les arts et la culture	1	2	3	4
16.20	L'hospitalité et l'accueil chaleureux des habitants	1	2	3	4
16.21	L'économie et le taux de change	1	2	3	4
16.22	Les informations disponibles sur la destination	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX C: LIST OF CONSTRAINTS

.1. Crime and Perceptions of Crime

Author(s)	Year	Title	Source
Tarlow (<i>In Wilks, Pendergast & Leggat ed.</i>)	2006	Crime and Tourism	Tourism in Turbulent Times: Towards Safe Experiences for Visitors.
South Africa	2005	Travel and Tourism Forecast	The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited.
Botterill & Jones I	2010	Crime and Tourism: Key Themes	
Pizam & Mansfield	2006	Tourism, Crime and International Security	
Ryan	1993	Crime, violence, terrorism and Tourism: an accident or intrinsic relation.	Tourism Management
Brunt, Mawby & Hambly	2000	Tourist victimisation and the fear of crime on holiday	Tourism Management
Brunt & Hambly	1999	Tourism an crime: a review	An international journal
Harper	2000	'Planning in tourist robbery'	Annals of Tourism research
Zhao & Brown	2009	Examining hotel crimes from police crime reports	Crime prevention and safety.
Maguire	2007	Crime data and statistics	The Oxford handbook of Criminology.
Mansfield & Pizam	2006	Tourism, Security and Safety: from theory to practice	
Mawby	2000	Tourists perception of security: the risk fear paradox	Tourism economics
Mawby	2008	Understanding and responding to crime and disorder: ensuring a local dimension	Crime prevention and Community safety.
Mawby & Jones	2007	Attempting to reduce hotel burglary: implementation failure in a multi-agency context	Crime prevention and Community safety.
Mawby, Mcintosh & Barclay	2008	Burglary geographies: applying theories from domestic burglary to caravan park crime	British Society of Criminology.
Shao & O	2006	Re foreign visitors more likely victimised in hotels?	Security Journal
Donaldson & Ferreira	2007	Crime, Perceptions and Touristic Decisionmaking: Some Empirical Evidence and Prospects for the 2010 World Cup	Politikon
Ferreira	1999	Crime: a threat to tourism in South Africa.	Tourism Geographies

Pearce	2011	Tourist Behaviour and the Contemporary World.	Apects of Tourism
Bierman	2003	Restoring Tourism Destinations in Crises.	
George & Swart	2013	International tourists' perceptions of crime-risk and their future travel intentions during the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa	South African Journal of Business Management
Donaldson & Ferreira	2009	(Re-)creating Urban Destination Image: Opinions of Foreign Visitors to South Africa on Safety and Security?	Urban Forum
Earle	2008	Tourism Research Consortium: Sector Studies	Department of Labour
Perry, E. C. & Potgieter, C.	Jul, 2013	Crime and Tourism in South Africa.	Journal of Human Ecology. Vol. 43 Issue 1, p101-111.

2. Political Unrest

Author(s)	Year	Title	Source
Sönmez, S.F	1998	Tourism, Terrorism and Political Instability	Annals of Tourism Research
Ioannides, D. & Apostolopoulos, Y.	1999	Political Instability, War, and Tourism in Cyprus: Effects, Management, and Prospects for Recovery.	Journal of Travel Research
Seddighi & Theocharous	2002	A Model of Tourism Destination Choice: a theoretical and empirical analysis.	Tourism Management
Hall (<i>In Butler & Sunitikul ed.</i>)	2010	Politics and Tourism: Interdependency and Implications in Understanding Change.	Tourism and Political Change
Nepal (<i>In Butler & Sunitikul ed.</i>)	2010	Tourism and Political Change in Nepal	Tourism and Political Change
Harrison & Pratt (<i>In Butler & Sunitikul ed.</i>)	2010	Political Change and Tourism: Coups in Fiji	Tourism and Political Change
Baum & O'Gorman (<i>In Butler & Sunitikul ed.</i>)	2010	Iran or Persia: What's in a Name? The decline and fall of a Tourism Industry.	Tourism and Political Change
Tarlow (<i>In Wilks, Pendergast & Leggat ed.</i>)	2006	Terrorism and Tourism.	Tourism in Turbulent Times: Towards Safe Experiences for Visitors.
South Africa	2005	Travel and Tourism Forecast	The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited.
Pizam & Mansfield	2006	Tourism Security & Safety	
Ritchie	2009	Crises and Disaster Management	

		of Tourism.	
Bierman	2003	Restoring Tourism Destinations in Crises.	
Anon.	2012	Country Profile Series: South Africa	Marketline
World Bulletin	2013	Egyptian crisis strikes blow to tourism industry	World Bulletin
Smith	2013	Greece lightning strikes again	Mail & Guardian
Keung	2013	Canada's tourism industry could take hit during strike by visa staff	The Star
Petrus & Isaacs-Maartin	2011	Reflections on Violence and Scapegoating in the Strike and Protest Culture in South Africa	Africa Insight
Guerrero	2012	Investor Fears Rise On Mine Strikes	Global Finance
Bond & Mottiar	2013	Movements, protests and a massacre in South Africa	Journal of Contemporary African Studies
	2012	South Africa : Wave of Mine Unrest	Africa Research Bulletin
Nieman, Visser & Van Wyk	2008	Constraints facing tourism entrepreneurs in South Africa: a study in the Gauteng and Mpumalanga provinces, South Africa	Development Southern Africa
	2014	SOUTH AFRICA Business Forecast Report includes 10-year forecast to 2022	Business Monitor International Ltd.

3. Health Risks and Epidemic Disasters

Author(s)	Year	Title	Source
Leslie & Black (<i>In Laws & Prideaux ed.</i>)	2005	Tourism and The Impact of the Foot and Mouth epidemic in the UK: Reactions, Responses and Realities with Particular Reference to Scotland	Tourism Crises: Management Responses and Theoretical Insight.
Irvine & Anderson (<i>In Laws & Prideaux ed.</i>)	2005	The Impacts of Foot and Mouth Disease on Peripheral Tourism Area: The Role and Effect of Crises Management.	Tourism Crises: Management Responses and Theoretical Insight.
Leggat (<i>In Wilks, Pendergast & Leggat ed.</i>)	2006	Travel Medicine and Tourist Health.	Tourism in Turbulent Times: Towards Safe Experiences for Visitors.
Wilder-Smith (<i>In Wilks, Pendergast & Leggat ed.</i>)	2006	Tourism and SARS.	Tourism in Turbulent Times: Towards Safe Experiences for Visitors.
Schmierer &	2006	Local health Impacts of Tourism	Tourism in Turbulent

Jackson (<i>In Wilks, Pendergast & Leggat ed.</i>)			Times: Towards Safe Experiences for Visitors.
South Africa	2005	Travel and Tourism Forecast	The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited.
Department of Environmental Affairs (DEAT)	2003	Tourism 10 year review	
Nieman <i>et al.</i>	2008	Constraints facing tourism entrepreneurs in South Africa: a study in the Gauteng and Mpumalanga provinces, South Africa.	Development Southern Africa
Squire	2007	HIV in South Africa	
Van Dyk	2012	HIV and Aids: Education, Care and Counselling	
Fourie	2006	The Political Management of HIV and AIDS in South Africa	
Modrek <i>et al.</i>	2012	The Economic Benefits of Malaria Elimination: do they include increases in tourism?	Malaria Journal
	2004	Improved malaria control boosts tourism: news: health & finance	
South African Department of Health		Malaria	
Maartens <i>et al.</i>	2007	The Impact of Malaria Control on Perceptions of Tourists and Tourism Operators Concerning Malaria Prevalence in KwaZulu-Natal, 1999/2000 Versus 2002/2003	International Society of Travel Medicine
Bierman	2003	Restoring Tourism Destinations in Crises.	
Anon.	2012	Country Profile Series: South Africa	Marketline

4. Tourism Crises (Natural & Economic)

Author(s)	Year	Title	Source
Peters & Pikkemaat (<i>In Laws & Prideaux ed.</i>)	2005	Crises Management in Alpine Winter Sports Resorts – The 1999 Avalanche disaster.	Tourism Crises: Management Responses and Theoretical Insight.
Smith & Carmicheal (<i>In Laws & Prideaux ed.</i>)	2005	Canadian Seasonality and Domestic Travel Patterns: Regularities and Dislocations as a Result of the Events of 9/11	Tourism Crises: Management Responses and Theoretical Insight.
Eugenio- Martin,	2005	Quantifying the Effects of Tourism	Tourism Crises:

Sinclair & Yeoman (<i>In Laws & Prideaux ed.</i>)		Crises: An Application to Scotland.	Management Responses and Theoretical Insight.
Specht (<i>In Wilks, Pendergast & Leggat ed.</i>)	2006	Natural Disaster Management.	Tourism in Turbulent Times: Towards Safe Experiences for Visitors.
Rittichainuwat, B.N.	2013	Tourists' and tourism suppliers' perceptions toward crisis management on tsunami.	Tourism Management.
Nieman <i>et al.</i>	2008	Constraints facing tourism entrepreneurs in South Africa: a study in the Gauteng and Mpumalanga provinces, South Africa.	Development Southern Africa
Ferreira	2006	Crime, Perceptions and Touristic Decisionmaking: Some Empirical Evidence and Prospects for the 2010 World Cup	Poitikon
Richie	2009	Crisis and Disaster Management for Tourism	
Bierman	2003	Restoring Tourism Destinations in Crises.	
Govender	2011	SA can expect more natural disasters	South African Government News Agency
Anon.	2012	Country Profile Series: South Africa	Marketline
Anon.	2013	Natural disasters threaten SA tourism industry.	RiskSA

5. Travel distance, cognitive distance and long haul destinations

Author(s)	Year	Title	Source
Ankomah, P.K. <i>et al.</i>	1996	Influence of Cognitive Distance In Vacation Choice	Annals of Tourism Research
Harrison-Hill	2001	Breaking the Rules: Cognitive Distance, Choice Sets and Long-Haul Destinations	Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure
Agrusa, Sizoo and Lema	2012	Exploring the importance of similarity in the perceptions of foreign visitors and local service providers: the case of long-haul pleasure travellers.	Managing Leisure
Harrison-Hill	2002	Breaking the Rules: Cognitive Distance, Choice Sets and Long-Haul	Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure

		Destinations	
South Africa	2005	Travel and Tourism Forecast	The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited.
McKercher, Chan & Lam	2008	The Impact of Distance on International Tourist Movements	Journal of Travel Research
McKercher & Lew	2003	Distance Decay and the Impact of Effective Tourism Exclusion Zones on International Travel Flows	Journal of Travel Research
Mohan & Thomas	2012	The impact of distance on fans' intentions to attend team sporting events: a case study of fans of the Carolina Hurricanes of the United States National Hockey League.	Annals of Leisure Research
Earle	2008	Tourism Research Consortium: Sector Studies	Department of Labour
The Guardian	2012	Travel Awards 2012 winners. The full list of winners announced at the Guardian, Observer and guardian.co.uk Readers' Travel Awards 2012	http://www.theguardian.com/travel/

6. Market Access, Infrastructure (accessibility, accommodation) & role of intermediaries

Author(s)	Year	Title	Source
Prideaux, B.	2000	The role of the transport system in destination development.	Tourism Management
McKercher, B.	1998	The Effect of Market Access on Destination Choice	Journal of Travel Research
South Africa	2005	Travel and Tourism Forecast	The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited.
Albalade and Bel	2010	Tourism and urban public transport: Holding demand pressure under supply constraints.	Tourism Management
Forstner	2004	Community Ventures and Access to Markets: The Role of Intermediaries in Marketing Rural Tourism Products.	Development Policy Review,
Tóth & Dávid	2010	Tourism and accessibility: An integrated approach	Applied Geography
Briedenhann	2011	Economic and Tourism Expectations of the 2010 FIFA	Journal of Sport & Tourism

		World Cup – A Resident Perspective.	
Nieman, Visser & Van Wyk	2008	Constraints facing tourism entrepreneurs in South Africa: a study in the Gauteng and Mpumalanga provinces, South Africa	Development Southern Africa
Earle	2008	Tourism Research Consortium: Sector Studies	Department of Labour
Darcy, Cameron & Pegg	2010	Accessible tourism and sustainability: a discussion and case study	Journal of Sustainable Tourism
Icoz, Gunlu & Icoz	2012	The role of travel intermediaries in the development of sustainable mountain tourism. The case of Turkey	PASOS
Lubbe	2005	A new revenue model for travel intermediaries in South Africa: The negotiated approach	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services
Lin	2012	Enhancing Tourism Intermediaries with the Data Mining Process	IPCSIT
Lin, Lee & Chen	2009	Using fuzzy analytic hierarchy process to evaluate service performance of a travel intermediary	The Service Industries Journal
South Africa	2012	Global online travel movers, shakers and trendsetters gather in Cape Town for the E-Tourism Africa Summit.	http://www.southafrica.net/

7. Service quality

Author(s)	Year	Title	Source
Narayana, Rajendrana, Saia & Gopalanb	2009	Dimensions of service quality in tourism – an Indian perspective	Total Quality Management
P. Molele	11 May 2012	“Building a Service Excellence Culture in the Tourism sector and value chain”	SMME Workshop – Indaba
Denga, Yehb & Sungc.	December 2013	A customer satisfaction index model for international tourist hotels: Integrating consumption emotions into the American Customer Satisfaction Index.	In International Journal of Hospitality Management 35:133-140.
Rogerson	January 2013	Reconfiguring South Africa’s hotel industry 1990–2010: Structure, segmentation, and spatial transformation.	Applied Geography 36:59-68.
Du Plessis &	2011	Grading and price in the	Acta Academica

Saayman		accommodation sector of South Africa.	Vol. 43, Iss 1,
Government of South Africa	May 1996	The Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
	March 2008	White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in KwaZulu-Natal	
	March 2001	White Paper on Sustainable Tourism Development and Promotion in the Western Cape	Department of Economic Affairs, Agriculture and Tourism Provincial Administration of the Western Cape
Nicolaides	2008	Service quality, empowerment and ethics in the South African hospitality and tourism industry and the road ahead using ISO9000/1	University of Zululand Institutional Repository
De Jager Van Zyl & Toriola	2012	Airline service quality in South Africa and Italy	Journal of Air Transport Management 25 19 - 21
Rogerson	2013	Reconfiguring South Africa's hotel industry 1990 - 2010: Structure, segmentation, and spatial transformation	Applied Geography 36: 59 -68
Kgote & Kotze	2013	Visitors perceptions and attitudes towards the tourism product offered by Pilanesberg National Park, South Africa.	African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance .

8. Word-of-mouth

Author(s)	Year	Title	Source
Lundberg	2008	A word-of-mouth approach to informal information sharing among part-time and short-term employed front-line workers in tourism	Journal Of Vacation Marketing: 14(1): 23-39
Dougherty & Green	2011	Local food tourism networks and word-of-mouth.	Journal of Extension: 49(2).
Arenas-Gaitan, Rondan-Cataluña & Ramírez-Correa	2013	Social identity, electronic word-of-mouth and referrals in social network services	Kybernetes: 42(8): 1149 – 1165
Marios & van Zyl,	2013	Electronic word-of-mouth and online reviews in tourism services: the use of twitter by tourists	Electron Commer Res: 13:103–124

Tham, Croy & Mair	2013	Social Media in Destination Choice: Distinctive Electronic Word-of-Mouth Dimensions	Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 30:144–155
Phillips, Wolfe, Hodur & Larry Leistriz	2013	Tourist word-of-mouth and Revisit Intentions to Rural Tourism Destinations: a Case of North Dakota, USA	International Journal of Tourism Research, 15: 93–104
Lin	2012	The determinants of consumers' switching intentions after service failure	Total Quality Management: 23(7): 837–854
Liu, Fang, Chan & Lin	2013	Assessment of Ecotourism Travel Risk on Word- of Mouth: Via Fuzzy Set Perspective	American Journal of Applied Sciences 10 (5): 507-514
Swanson & Hsu	2009	Critical Incidents in Tourism: Failure, Recovery, Customer Switching, and Word - of- Mouth Behaviours.	Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 26:180–194
Das	2013	The Effect of Pleasure and Arousal on Satisfaction and Word-of-Mouth: An Empirical Study of the Indian Banking Sector	Vikalpa, 38 (2). Apr-June
Simpson & Sigauw	2008	Destination Word-of-mouth: The Role of Traveler Type, Residents, and Identity Salience	Journal of Travel Research: 47 (2): 167-182
South Africa.	2012	Tourist arrivals to South Africa grew by 10,5% for the first six months of 2012, more than double the global average of 5% for the same period.	
South African Tourism (SAT)	2012a	Global online travel movers, shakers and trendsetters gather in Cape Town for the E-Tourism Africa Summit.	
South African Tourism (SAT)	2012b	Executive Summary: SA Tourism's Strategic Plan for the 5-Year Period 2012/13 – 2016/17 & High-Level Annual Performance Plan & Budget for 2012/ 2013.	

9. Budget/ money/ price and foreign exchange

Author(s)	Year	Title	Journal/ Text Book
Rugg	1973	The Choice of Journey Destination: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis	The Review of Statistics and Economics
Morley	1994	Experimental Destination Choice Analysis	Annals of Tourism Research,
Papatheodoro	2001	Why people travel to different places.	Annals of Tourism Research

Alegre <i>et al.</i>	2010	An analysis of households' appraisal of their budget constraints for potential participation in tourism.	Tourism Management.
Butowski, L.	2010	Tourism in the EU economic and social cohesion policy in 1994-1999 and 2000-2006 budget programming periods.	Tourism (Zagreb) 58 (2) Zagreb: Institute for Tourism , 145-159
	2013	Tourism to suffer as GBP100k cut from marketing budget	Europe Intelligence Wire. Nov 11, 2013
Shanka & Frost	2002	Impact of national tourism budgets on international tourist arrivals in three selected Sub-Saharan African countries: a comparison.	Tourism Analysis 7 (2) Elmsford: Cognizant Communication Corporation, 139-150`
	2013	Cut in Tourism Budget Upsets Sector Players	Africa News Service. June 21,
	2013	Tourism Sector Unhappy With Budget Cuts	Africa News Service. June 20,
Grotte	2013	Budget Tourism - Transition Economy	International Journal of Business Insights & Transformation: 6(2): 105-108
Block	2014	Traveling? Better Budget for Taxes.	Kiplinger's personal Finances, 06/2014
Williams	2012	Lost Opportunity	Business in Calgary, August 2012
	2013	A blow for tourism budget	The Gazette (Colorado Springs, CO). Dec 5, Local1.
Hunga, Shang & Wang	2013	A multilevel analysis on the determinants of household tourism expenditure .	Current Issues in Tourism, 16, (6):, 612 -617
Eugenio-Martina, & Campos-Soria	2014	Economic crisis and tourism expenditure cutback decision	Annals of Tourism Research 44: 53-73
Wang	2014	Effects of budgetary constraints on international tourism expenditures	Tourism Management 41: 9-18
Rogerson	2013	Market segmentation and the changing budget hotel industry in urban South Africa.	Urbani Izziv: 24 (2): 112-123.
Ezrati	2013	Les Misérables	The National Interest, November/December

10. Time

Author(s)	Year	Title	Journal/ Text Book
Rugg	1973	The Choice of Journey Destination: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis	The Review of Statistics and Economics
Morley	1994	Experimental Destination Choice	Annals of Tourism

		Analysis	Research,
Papatheodoro	2001	Why people travel to different places.	Annals of Tourism Research
Alegre <i>et al.</i>	2010	An analysis of households' appraisal of their budget constraints for potential participation in tourism.	Tourism Management.
Grotte	2013	Budget Tourism - Transition Economy	International Journal of Business Insights & Transformation: 6(2): 105-108
Botti <i>et al.</i>	2008	Time and tourism attraction	Tourism Management 29 (2008) 594–596
Dickinson & Peeters	2014	Time, Tourism Consumption and Sustainable Development	International Journal of Tourism Research: 16: 11–21
Castells	2000	The Rise of the Network Society	Blackwell: Oxford.
Breedveld	1996	Post-Fordist leisure and work.	Society and Leisure 19(1): 67–90.
Brett & Stroh	2003	Working 61 Plus Hours a Week: Why Do Managers Do It?	Journal of Applied Psychology 88(1): 67–78.
Deem	1996	No time for a rest? An exploration of women's work, engendered leisure and holidays.	Time and Society 5(1): 5–25.

11. Image formation & the role of media

Author(s)	Year	Title	Journal/ Text Book
Kim, Kang & Kim	2014	Impact of Mega Sport Events on Destination Image and Country Image	Sport Marketing Quarterly, 23, 161-175.
Kesić. & Pavlić	2011	Tourism Destination Image Formation: The Case of Dubrovnik, Croatia.	Trziste / Market. Vol. 23 (1): 7-25. 19p.
Chagas, Marques Júnior. & Duarte	2013	Analysis of image formation process of sun and sea tourism destinations: a study of Canoa Quebrada/CE.	Revista Brasileira de Pesquisa em Turismo 7 (3) Sao Paulo: Associação Nacional de Pesquisa e Pós-Graduação em Turisme (ANPTUR) , 456-

			475
Rodríguez-Santos, González-Fernández & Cervantes-Blanc	2011	Weak cognitive image of cultural tourism destinations.	Qual Quant 47:881–895
Hung, Lin, Yang & Lu	2012	Construct the Destination Image Formation Model of Macao: The Case of Taiwan Tourists to Macao.	Tourism & Hospitality Management, 18 (1): 19-35. 17p.
Tang & Jang	2014	Information Value and Destination Image: Investigating the Moderating Role of Processing Fluency	Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 23:790–814,
Choi, & Purdue	2013	Conceptualizing tourism image and nation image: An integrated relational-behavioral model.	Humanities and Social Sciences, 73(9-A)
Camprubi´, Guia & Comas	2013	The new role of tourists in destination image formation.	Current Issues in Tourism, 16 (2): 203 –209,
Divinagracia, Divinagracia & Divinagracia	2012	Digital Media-Induced Tourism: The Case of Nature-based Tourism (NBT) at East Java, Indonesia	International Conference on Asia Pacific Business Innovation and Technology Management, Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 57:85-94
Rodríguez Molina, Fri´as-Jamilena & Castañeda-García	2013	The moderating role of past experience in the formation of a tourist destination's image and in tourists' behavioural intentions.	Current Issues in Tourism, 16(2): 107 –127
Fan, & Qiu	2014	Examining the Effects of Tourist Resort Image on Place Attachment: A Case of Zhejiang, China	Public Personnel Management 43(3): 340-354
Frías, Rodríguez, Castañeda, Sabiotem& Buhalis	2012	The Formation of a Tourist Destination's Image via Information Sources: the Moderating Effect of Culture	International Journal of Tourism Research, 14, 437–450.
Lepp. & Gibson	2011	Reimagining a nation: South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup	Journal of Sport & Tourism,16(3): 211–230
Burnett & Wessels	2012	Profiling public viewing and South African viewers during the 2010 FIFA World Cup.	African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance, 18(1): 151-

			165.
Donaldson & Ferreira	2009	(Re-)creating Urban Destination Image: Opinions of Foreign Visitors to South Africa on Safety and Security?	Urban Forum, 20:1–18
Chen, Chen & Okumus	2013	The relationship between travel constraints and destination image: A case study of Brunei	Tourism Management. 35: 198-208
Walker, Kaplanidou, Gibson, Thapa, Geldenhuys & Coetzee	2013	“Win in Africa, With Africa”: Social responsibility, event image, and destination benefits. The case of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa	Tourism Management, 34: 80-90
Koo, Byon & Baker	2014	Integrating Event Image, Satisfaction, and Behavioral Intention: Small-Scale Marathon Event	Sport Marketing Quarterly, 23 (3): 127-137.
Swart, Linley & Bob	2013	The Media Impact of South Africa’s Historical Hosting of Africa’s First Mega-Event: Sport and Leisure Consumption Patterns	The International Journal of the History of Sport, 30(16): 1976–1992
Hammett	2014	Tourism Images and British Media Representations of South Africa	Tourism Geographies, 16(2): 221–236
Allen, Knott & Swart	2013	‘Africa’s Tournament’? The Branding Legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	The International Journal of the History of Sport, 30 (16): 1994–2006.
Maguire	2011	Invictus or evict-us? Media images of South Africa through the lens of the FIFA World Cup	Social Identities, 17(5): 681-694
Berger	210	Image Revisions: South Africa, Africa, and the 2010 World Cup	Ecquid Novi: African Journalism Studies, 31 (2)
Asante	2013	The Western Media and the Falsification of Africa: Complications of Value and Evaluation	China Media Research, 9(2)
Hammett	2014	Tourism Images and British Media Representations of South Africa	Tourism Geographies, 16 (2): 221–236
Knott, Allen & Swart	2012	Stakeholder reflections of the tourism and nation-branding legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup for South Africa	African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance (AJPHERD), (Supplement 1), pp. 112-122

12. Attributes of attractiveness and utility

Author(s)	Year	Title	Journal
	2013	Experience Cape Town's Scenic Beauty and an Unforgettable African Safari with Lion World Travel.	GlobeNewswire. Dec 6, 2013
Foreign Affairs	2013	South Africa's Competitive Edge.	Foreign Affairs, 92(5)
Boekstein & Spencer	2013	Activity-based market segmentation of visitors to thermal spring resorts in the Western Cape Province, South Africa: Assessing the potential for health tourism development.	African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance (AJPHERD), 19(4:2): 1100-1110.
	2014	South Africa: a world in one country.	Value Chain. Jan 31, 2014, Vol. 2
Leslie, Ciraj & Gary	2001	Repackaging the Past for South African Tourism.	Daedalus. 130(1), 277p.

APPENDIX D: TIMELINE OF DECISION-MAKING MODELS

- CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR MODELS
- MICROECONOMIC MODELS
- COGNITIVE MODELS
- CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

