



# **Tourists' Taxonomy as a Management Tool for Destination Competitiveness**

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## DECLARATION

I, Charity Mapingure, identity number 63-860725F80 (Passport no. AD004861) and Student No. 24851159, hereby declare that this thesis titled 'Tourist Taxonomies as a Management Tool for Destination Competitiveness' is my own original work. The thesis is hereby humbly submitted to the North-West University (NWU), in fulfilment of the requirements for the PhD in Tourism Management degree. This thesis has not been submitted anywhere before.



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**24 November 2017**  
.....

## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved late son, Elpis Namatai (Tata) Mapingure. I remember with fondness and great appreciation the special meal you prepared for me on the day I graduated with my Masters in Tourism and Hospitality Management.

Always in my thoughts and forever missed.

Also, to my late parents, Ephrage and Spetie Mhakainganwa. It is also dedicated to all my 'Teachers', especially my Grade 1 Teacher (Mrs Sithole) who first taught me how to read and write, at Masiyarwa Primary School Zvimba, Zimbabwe.

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## **ABSTRACT/SUMMARY**

The increasing competition for tourist markets among nations calls for destination managers to adopt customer-centric approaches to gain sustainable competitive advantages. In the case of Zimbabwe, (the setting of this study), the destination has been experiencing a plethora of challenges which require multi-faceted strategies from both the supply and the demand perspectives. This study proposed that focusing on the consumer, in the context of taxonomies, can enable destination authorities to effectually and adeptly deploy destination resources to specific market segments, thereby enhancing destination competitiveness for the targeted markets. Further, the study was motivated by the realisation that tourist typologies have had a bias towards destinations in Europe and America and that no studies have been made specifically in Zimbabwe to establish the taxonomies of its diverse multicultural market.

The study was guided by seven objectives. The major goal was to establish the tourist taxonomies of Zimbabwe and illustrate how taxonomies can be used as a management tool for enhancing destination competitiveness. The first two objectives were based on literature review, while objectives three to seven were empirical. Statistical Package of the Social Scientists (SPSS) was used for conducting statistical analysis, which included Exploratory Factor Analysis, t-test, cluster analysis, ANOVAs and chi-square tests. The strength of the tests of association i.e. t-tests and Chi-square tests was determined by the calculation of effect sizes based on Cohen *d* values. The Cronbach's alpha values and mean inter-item correlations were used to test the reliability and internal consistency of the variables used in the study.

The first objective sought to gain a better understanding of tourist typologies/taxonomies and destination competitiveness with the ultimate aim of illustrating the importance of taxonomies in destination competitiveness. It was clear from the literature review that, there is scarcity of studies that explored the link between tourist types and destination

competitiveness as well as how taxonomies can be used as sources of competitive advantage.

The second objective critically reviewed literature on the Zimbabwe's situation, regarding tourism markets and destination products. The literature illustrates the various challenges the country is facing, which warrants the need to come up with strategies for enhancing the competitive strength of the destination. It was evident from the analysis of literature on Zimbabwe, that the tourism industry in the country is experiencing a series of challenges and that demand-based strategies are not getting due recognition as sources of competitive advantage. This objective was achieved in Chapter 3.

The third objective was targeted at establishing the demand drivers for the country's tourism industry from the angle of the tourist, which information is essential for product development and the designing of marketing messages. This was achieved through examining the major reasons for visiting the country (tourist motivations). It was established that the desire for novelty was the primary driver for tourist flows into the country, while the availability of wildlife, scenery and culture were the major destination attributes generating demand for the country's tourism product. This objective was achieved in Chapter 5.

The Fourth objective set to evaluate the competitive strength of the destination from a tourist perspective by ascertaining tourist perceptions on destination attributes and services. Such information allows destination managers to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the destination and then come up with relevant market-based intervention strategies. Core resources, hospitality, safety and relaxation opportunities emerged as the key strengths of the destination, while pricing and accommodation, activities and facilities/accessibility received low ratings from tourists.

Fifth objective sought to establish the tourist preferences, to allow destination managers to develop tailor made tourism products and services. Environmentalism, social involvement and activity/adventure emerged as the key preferences for Zimbabwe's market, while preference for travel services is diminishing. The desire for familiarity was the least favoured preference dimension. Findings on this objective are, to a greater extent, consistent with the changing tastes of the contemporary tourist.

Objective six aimed to establish the tourist taxonomies for Zimbabwe. Four types of tourists with different demands on the destination were identified, namely the Cautious New Tourist (CNT), the Patriotic Tourist (PT), The Independent Tourist (IT) and the Indifferent Tourist (IDT). The resultant tourist taxonomies were also profiled in relation to motivations, competitiveness perceptions as well as demographic characteristics.

The seventh objective focused on developing a Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF) and draw conclusions on how tourist taxonomies can be used as a management tool for enhancing destination competitiveness'. A Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF) highlighting competitiveness strategies for each tourist type was developed. This framework is set to assist destination managers in their efforts to enhance the competitive strength of destinations as it provides them with a guiding framework on how to devise demand-based strategies to achieve the same.

The construction of tourist taxonomies from a multicultural perspective, especially in the context of an African (non-western) country and the illustration of how tourist taxonomies can be used as a management tool for enhancing destination competitiveness using the TTCF, are the unique contributions of the study. This includes an attempt to relate tourist taxonomies to destination competitiveness.

**Key words** *Tourist taxonomies, typologies, destination competitiveness, management tool, destination products, Tourist preferences, Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF), Zimbabwe.*

## **ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
DNA	Deoxyribose Nucleic Acid
CAAZ	Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe
CAMPFIRE	Communal Resources Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
CCJP	Catholic Commission of Peace and Justice
CNT	Cautious New Tourist
CUT	Chinhoyi University of Technology
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
ESAP	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GLTFCA	Great Limpopo Trans-Frontier Conservation Area
GNU	Government of National Unit
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
IDT	Indifferent Tourist
IT	Independent Tourist
ITRS	International Recommendation for Tourism Statistics
IUTO	International Union of Official Travel Organisation
MENRM	Ministry of Natural Resources Management

MICE	Meeting Incentives Conferences and Exhibitions
MTHI	Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry
NMMZ	National Monuments and Museums
PT	Patriotic Tourist
SD	Standard Deviation
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
NSTP	National Strategic Tourism Plan
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
ZNTP	Zimbabwe National Tourism Policy
STERP	Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats
RETOSA	Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa
UDI	Unilateral Declaration of Independence
UK	United Kingdom
UNESCO	United Nations Education and Scientific Organisation
USA	United States of America
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
VES	Visitor Exit Survey
WEF	World Economic Forum
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Competitiveness

ZIMASSET	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZIMPREST	Zimbabwe programme for economic and social transformation
ZITF	Zimbabwe International Trade Fair
ZNPWA	Zimbabwe National Parks and Wildlife Authority
ZNSA	Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency
ZTA	Zimbabwe Tourism Authority

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# CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT, OBJECTIVES AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a world-wide socio-economic phenomenon and is one of the most rapidly growing sectors of the world economy (Coccosis & Constantoglou, 2006:3). However, the market place is becoming saturated (Maráková & Medved'ová, 2016:33; Weiermar 2004:3) and there is intensification of competition among nations (Barbosa *et al.*, 2010:1067), this calls for the need to adopt customer-centric approaches in order to create competitive advantages and Zimbabwe is no exception.

Tourism is considered as one of the key pillars of the economy in Zimbabwe (ZIMASSET 2013:5). However, the country which was once a popular destination in Africa (WEF 2013:10) is struggling to maintain a stable growth in the face of an unstable political and economic environment (Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA), 2013:7). The country's competitiveness ranking stood at 115 out of 146 countries in 2015 (World Economic Forum (WEF), 2015:10). Given these circumstances, it is imperative for the country to resuscitate the tourism industry and restore its competitive position. Crouch (2011:40) posited that, achieving destination competitiveness is very complicated because many of the attributes of competitiveness are difficult to manage, since the tourism product is largely intangible and many other sectors are involved in its delivery.

However, despite this complexity, destination managers are obligated to come up with strategies aimed at improving the competitive positions of destinations. Ritchie and Crouch (2000:10) argued that, among the several forces that influence the competitiveness of a destination, customers and their needs are the ultimate driving force. Lohmann (2004:114) argued that the power in the contemporary tourism market lies with the tourist. However, tourists are heterogenous (Buhalis & O'Connor, 2005) and destinations are not competitive to all types of tourists (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:399)

implying that tourist taxonomies are somehow linked to destination competitiveness issues. Notably, there is scarcity of studies which clearly link tourist types (taxonomies) to destination competitiveness. In fact, Dwyer and Kim (2003:408) alluded to this scarcity when they recommended the need for researchers to consider competitiveness issues from the angle of different types of tourists. With reference to market segmentation, a generic marketing practise with similar outcomes to those of typologies/taxonomies (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:92), Dolnicar (2008:18) opined that the selection of suitable subgroup of tourists to specialise on, can allow destination managers to achieve competitive advantages in the market place. In view of the foregoing one can argue that destinations should not aim to be competitive to all tourists but should identify the dominant groups visiting their destinations and then develop products which best suit the needs of these sub-groups. As a result, this makes the identification of the different types of tourists making up the market for a given destination a key management activity which can complement and or inform supply side strategies for enhancing destination competitiveness.

Therefore, the study sought to identify the taxonomies of tourists visiting Zimbabwe including the development of a Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF) which illustrates how taxonomies can be used as a management tool for enhancing destination competitiveness. This chapter begins by giving a background to the study before highlighting the problem statement, study goals and objectives. The chapter also introduces the methodology and data analysis procedures, defines important concepts in this study and gives the chapter classifications.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

This section provides an overview of destination competitiveness, tourist typologies/taxonomies and Zimbabwe's tourism industry, with the intention to establish gaps and concerns which warrant this study.

### **1.2.1 Analysis of destination competitiveness**

Over the recent years, there has been a plethora of literature on destination competitiveness. Of notable importance has been the development of models and theories on this concept. d’Hautesserre (2000:23) defined destination competitiveness as ‘the ability of a destination to maintain its market position and share and/or to improve it through time’. However, a more comprehensive definition was provided by Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2) who stated that destination competitiveness is the ‘ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors, while providing them with satisfying memorable experiences and to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the wellbeing of the residents as well as preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations’.

Crouch and Ritchie (1999) pioneered destination competitiveness model building in tourism, borrowing from the model by Porter (1990) that focussed on firm competitiveness. Dwyer and Kim (2003) also developed another model of destination competitiveness, which largely concurs with the one developed by Crouch and Ritchie (1999). However, a point of departure in the latter model was the inclusion of the demand dimension as one of the important determinants of destination competitiveness. Meanwhile, Vengesai (2003) designed another model of destination competitiveness in which he argued that in order to get a holistic picture of destination competitiveness, it is necessary to consider inputs from both the supply and the demand sides. In constructing the model, Vengesai (2003) considered the views of both tourists and tourism stakeholders. He asserted that this approach allows for the comparison between ‘what the destination invests in and what customers are looking for’. This model is different from others in that, competitiveness is considered both from the perspective of tourists and destination stakeholders. Therefore, one can argue that what the ‘destination invests in’ should be based on adequate knowledge of tourist behaviour in destinations and their product preferences in order to deploy the destination’s resources efficiently and effectively. Caber, Albayrak and Matzler (2012:44) noted that trying to

provide for tourists without knowing their preferences makes managers rely on guesswork which can result in 'expensive mistakes'.

Dwyer and Kim (2003:398) highlighted preferences, image and awareness as important demand factors which influence destination competitiveness. They indicated that the image of a destination affects tourist perceptions and consequently visitation. However, they noted that actual visitation is determined by whether there is a perfect fit between tourist preferences and perceived destination products. In terms of awareness, the authors argue that tourists must be aware of the destination and its specific product offerings. Regarding preferences, the authors noted that tourist preferences and motives for travel influence the type of products and services developed within the country. This implies that lack of knowledge of tourists' needs and preferences can result in destinations focussing on products and services which are not appropriate for the market.

The section below gives a brief overview of the tourist typology/taxonomy frameworks. Tourist typology theories are an important framework which can aid in unveiling the behaviour, preferences and or needs of tourists.

### **1.2.2 *Tourist taxonomies/typologies***

In tourism literature the classification of tourists, either based on conceptual or empirical attributes is commonly referred to as 'tourist typologies'. However, Becker (1994:i) noted that "a taxonomy begins empirically, rather than conceptually, with the goal of classifying cases according to their measured similarity on observed variables". As such, the term taxonomy in this study is a label used to denote empirical derived tourist types.

Typologies in tourism explain the behaviour of tourists in destinations, in terms of their preferences and behaviour in destinations (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:84-89). According to Mehemotoglu (2004:70), Cohen (1972) was the first researcher to classify

tourists according to similar observable behaviours. He categorised tourist behaviour according to the extent to which they seek familiarity and novelty in a destination (Wickens, 2002:834). Based on Bailey's (1994)' arguments, Cohen (1972)'s tourist classification is correctly identified as typologies since they were not based on empirical findings. However, all the other empirical based tourist classification frameworks e.g. (Plog, 1974) can best be referred to as taxonomies.

Cohen's (1972:165) theory inspired the development of other tourist typologies/taxonomies theories. Resultantly, several theories were put forward using different perspectives, American express news release (1989); Dalen (1989); Cohen (1979); Perreault *et al.*, (1979); Plog (1974); Seery and Paris (2015); Smith (1989); Studiebureau (1986); Urry (2002) and Wickens (1994). Most of these studies were carried out in Europe and America in the 1970s through to the early 1990s. Relatively recent typologies were put forward by Seery and Paris (2015) and Urry (2002). The applicability of these theories to destinations and tourists in Africa has largely been overlooked in research. In fact, Wearing, Stevenson and Young (2009:25) opined that existing tourist typologies are not sensitive to cultural diversity.

Table 1.1 summarises the major studies that have been carried out on tourist typologies, though most of them should be referred to as tourist taxonomies, since they were developed out of empirical studies.

**Table 1.1: Summary of studies on tourist typologies/taxonomies**

Author	Theory	Type of Study
<b>Gray 1970</b>	<p><b>Wanderlusts</b> have a multi-destination focus, desiring to see, learn and experience the uniqueness of specific places. They are mostly motivated by cultural rather recreational needs.</p> <p><b>Sunlusts</b> reflect individualistic motivations and tastes such as the sun, snow, peace, cool weather, beautiful scenery, heavy metal music. They prefer to enjoy their experiences though it may be in the company of many people.</p>	Theoretical  (typology)

Cohen 1972	<p><b>Mass organised tourists</b> show preference for popular destinations, guided tours and follow a fixed itinerary.</p> <p><b>Individual mass tourists</b> share similar preferences with the mass tourists but not bound to a group and can temporarily venture out his/her environmental bubble.</p> <p><b>Explorers are</b> independent travellers who seek comfortable accommodation and reliable transport systems</p> <p><b>Drifter these are</b> highly adventurous travellers who prefer to live within the local communities.</p>	Theoretical  (typology)
Plog 1974	<p><b>Psychocentrics</b> are insular and are less adventurous. They prefer popular and familiar resorts.</p> <p><b>Allocentrics</b> are extroverts who take risks and seek more adventurous activities.</p>	Empirical  (taxonomy)
Cohen 1979	<p><b>The recreational tourist</b> has preference for physical recreation.</p> <p><b>The diversionary tourist</b> has an escapist's attitude, he/she always seeks ways of forgetting his/her everyday life at home.</p> <p><b>The experiential tourist</b> has a desire for authentic experiences.</p> <p><b>The experimental tourist</b> wants to be in contact with local people.</p> <p><b>The existential tourist</b> desires to completely immerse in the culture and lifestyles of host community.</p>	Theoretical  (typology)
Perrault et al., 1979	<p><b>Budget travellers</b> fall in the medium income group, who seek low-cost vacations.</p> <p><b>Adventurous</b> tourists are well educated and affluent and have preference for adventurous holidays.</p> <p><b>Homebody</b> tourists are cautious tourists who display secretive tendencies about their trips and do not spend much time planning their holidays.</p> <p><b>Vacationers</b> are fewer in numbers and have lower paid jobs. They spend lots of time thinking about their next holiday.</p> <p><b>Moderates</b> have a high tendency to travel but are not interested in weekend breaks or sports.</p>	Empirical  (taxonomy)
Smith 1989	<p><b>Explorers</b> are a minute number who travel as anthropologists.</p> <p><b>Elites</b> are frequent and experienced travellers who show preference of expensive customised products.</p>	Empirical  (taxonomy)

	<p><b>Off-beat tourists</b> aim to get away from other tourists and they prefer new destinations.</p> <p><b>Unusual tourists</b> make use of organised tours but they arrange their own independent trips to experience the local culture.</p> <p><b>Incipient mass tourists</b> travel to known destinations where tourism is not yet dominant.</p> <p><b>Mass tourists</b> prefer familiar experiences.</p>	
<b>Dalen 1989</b>	<p><b>Modern materialist</b> are pleasure seekers with special interest in food and drink and are motivated by the desire to impress people back at home.</p> <p><b>Modern idealists</b> are also pleasure seekers but they want to be more intellectual than the modern materialists. They show preference for independent travel and flexible itineraries.</p> <p><b>Traditional idealists</b> desire quality, culture, heritage, prominent places, peace, and security.</p> <p><b>Traditional materialists</b> always look for low priced offerings and are much concerned about personal security.</p>	Empirical  (taxonomy)
<b>American express news release 1989</b>	<p><b>Adventurous tourists</b> are independent tourists who show preference for new activities.</p> <p><b>Worriers</b> are more concerned about their strenuous travel safety and security in the destination.</p> <p><b>Dreamers</b> are those who are mesmerised by the idea of travel and they want others to know about their travel experiences to different destinations.</p> <p><b>Economisers</b> see travelling as an opportunity to relax and they prefer low prices.</p>	Empirical  (taxonomy)
<b>Wickens 1994</b>	<p><b>Cultural heritage</b> tourists are interested in cultural heritage.</p> <p><b>Ravers</b> are motivated by night life and alcohol during the night and during the day they prefer sun, sea and sand.</p> <p><b>Shirley Valentines</b> are motivated by romance while the,</p> <p><b>Heliolatrous</b> are the sun worshippers.</p> <p><b>Lord Byron's</b> are after nostalgia and detest mass tourism</p>	Empirical  (taxonomy)
<b>Urry 2002</b>	<p><b>The Post tourist</b> is flexible and feels free to move between different types of holiday. He/she sees tourism as a game.</p>	Empirical  (taxonomy)

<p><b>Seery and Paris 2015</b></p>	<p><b>The Guided Immersionists</b>, are interested in culture but are not confident to go it alone hence prefer to use the services of tour guides.</p> <p><b>The Explorer Immersionist</b> desire to fully integrate with the host population in order to fully experience their culture.</p> <p><b>The Adventure Immersionists</b> are similar to explorer immersionist and the guided immersionist but they show preference for safe environs.</p> <p><b>Groupie Immersionist</b> travel in groups and tend to choose popular tourist spots but also prefer exposure to different cultures.</p> <p><b>Groupies Generalist</b> are group travellers who prefer to interact with other tourists and to visit popular tourist locations which are familiar.</p> <p><b>Guided Generalist</b> are similar to the Groupie Generalist, as they prefer to travel to familiar environments, but are willing to try some new experiences on their own and take calculated risks.</p> <p><b>Explorer Generalist</b> are those tourists that are casual sky divers, scuba divers, and back country skiers. They enjoy challenging themselves but will never participate in over challenging activities.</p> <p><b>Adventure Generalists</b> are sociable and enjoy activities were everyone is involved and are willing to try anything if there is some kind of safety system in place.</p>	
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**Source: Modified from Choibamroong (2006)**

A close analysis of the various theories of tourist typologies shows that most of them share similarities with Cohen’s initial assertions. In as much as these scholars sought to critique Cohen’s ideas, the major difference they made is to use different terminology (Solomon, 2004:114). While there are unique characteristics emerging from the different typologies, the fact that some tourists seek novelty and/or familiarity is a common theme among the different types of typology theories. As a result, Cohen’s (1972) model was largely used to inform this study. However, constructs from other theories were included to get a holistic picture of the tourists. In addition, most of the theories on tourist taxonomies were developed in the context of European and American destinations and very little is documented on destinations in Africa.

Several criticisms have been levelled against the typology models. For instance, Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:90) noted that the typology theories have since been overtaken by events; because they are not flexible and dynamic. In addition, Chan (cited by Wearing *et al.*, 2009:26) noted that tourist typologies do not consider the influence of gender and cultural diversity which also influence tourist characteristics. The cultural bias of existing typologies (Swarbrooke & Horner 2007; Wearing *et al.*, 2009) to some extent justifies the execution of this study, which is being carried out in the context of an African country.

Despite the limitations associated with tourist typology theories, Cooper *et al.* (1993:77) argued that they offer a way of organising and understanding tourist behaviour and activity in destinations. Meanwhile, the researcher maintains that despite the flaws associated with tourist typologies/taxonomies, the practise of identifying tourist subgroups based on their common traits is still relevant both to academics and industry practitioners. Therefore, the study sought to establish the taxonomies of tourists visiting the country and illustrate how these can be used to enhance destination competitiveness, using the Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF).

### **1.2.3 *The nature of Zimbabwean tourism market***

Before 1999 the Zimbabwean tourism industry heavily relied on international tourists from Western countries, particularly Britain, because of colonial ties between the two countries (ZTA, 2000:4). In fact, Seaton and Bennet (1996:33) with reference to the Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR) segment indicated that there is a thriving tourism business between Britain and its former colonies due to ethnic ties. However, in the case of Zimbabwe, relations with Britain and the West soured over the land issue in which the government compulsorily acquired land from white commercial farmers (Chigora & Dewa, 2009:92). The exercise, dubbed the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP), was ostensibly meant to redress the racial imbalance in land ownership (Williams *et al.*, 2016:20). The FTLRP was marked by considerable coercion,

violence and general lawlessness (Nyawo, 2014:6), which tainted the image of the country. Consequently, tourist arrivals from most of the traditional source markets declined rapidly, with the United Kingdom and Ireland accounting for the worst decline of above 40%. Most countries including Japan, the USA and Germany issued travel warnings to their citizens, as they perceived Zimbabwe to be unsafe (ZTA, 2002:8). In relation to Britain, it must be noted that the country lost its prime position to the United States of America (USA) as Zimbabwe's major source market among western countries since 2006 (ZTA, 2006; ZTA, 2016).

Following continued depressed arrivals from the West, the tourism industry in the country made deliberate efforts to diversify the market base. The government adopted the Look East Policy to deal with the economic challenges resulting from the souring of relations between the country and the West (Mbanje & Mahuku, 2011:8). Zimbabwe sought to strengthen its relations with countries in the East, particularly China, Russia, India and Iran (Youde, 2007:10). Within the confines of the tourism industry, the Look East Policy sought to find alternative viable markets for the industry (ZTA, 2007:31). Resultantly, the overseas market has become increasingly differential because of the emerging markets like Asia (ZTA, 2007:8). Therefore, the tourism industry should put strategies in place in order to adequately cater for the broadening market.

Ritchie and Crouch (2003:14) highlighted the importance of domestic demand in destination competitiveness by indicating that it provides 'proving grounds for the industry'. The emphasis that has been put on international tourism in Zimbabwe implies that the domestic market has been neglected for quite a long time. Heath (1986:28) argued that the tourism industry may not be adequately addressing the needs of most Zimbabweans since, it was initially created by 'white Rhodesians for white Rhodesians'. The ZTA (2005:9) noted that during the times when the tourism industry was in the doldrums, domestic demand (though from a low base) sustained the sector and prevented it from a total collapse. This implies that the domestic market is increasingly

growing. Therefore, the needs and expectations of the Zimbabweans should also be reflected in the tourism development process.

According to Hassan and Katsanis (as cited by Keng & Cheng, 1999:382) the traditional approach of using geographic variables to classify tourists has shortcomings in that it is not based on consumer behaviour patterns. Further, it assumes absolute homogeneity of the country segments. In addition, it also overlooks the existence of homogenous segments across national boundaries.

An analysis of annual tourism reports shows that the ZTA has been heavily relying on geographical segmentation. Regional Tourism Organization of Southern Africa (RETOSA) (2010:75-76) made an effort to provide more meaningful market segments for the Southern African market using information derived from tour operators in the region. While this information is useful in that it gives a supply side perspective, it is also prudent to come up with country specific segments from the demand perspective.

#### **1.2.4 *The conceptual framework***

Figure 1.1 shows the conceptual framework for the study. The conceptual framework seeks to portray the concepts in the study, including how these are perceived to be related. This is done with guidance from literature (Buhalis, 2000; Choibamroong 2006; Coccossis & Constantoglou, 2006; Cohen, 1972; Cooper, 1993; Dolincar 2008; Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Kotler, 1991; Pearce, 2005; Plog, 1974; Ritchie & Crouch, 2000; Swarbrooke, 2007; Vengesai, 2003).

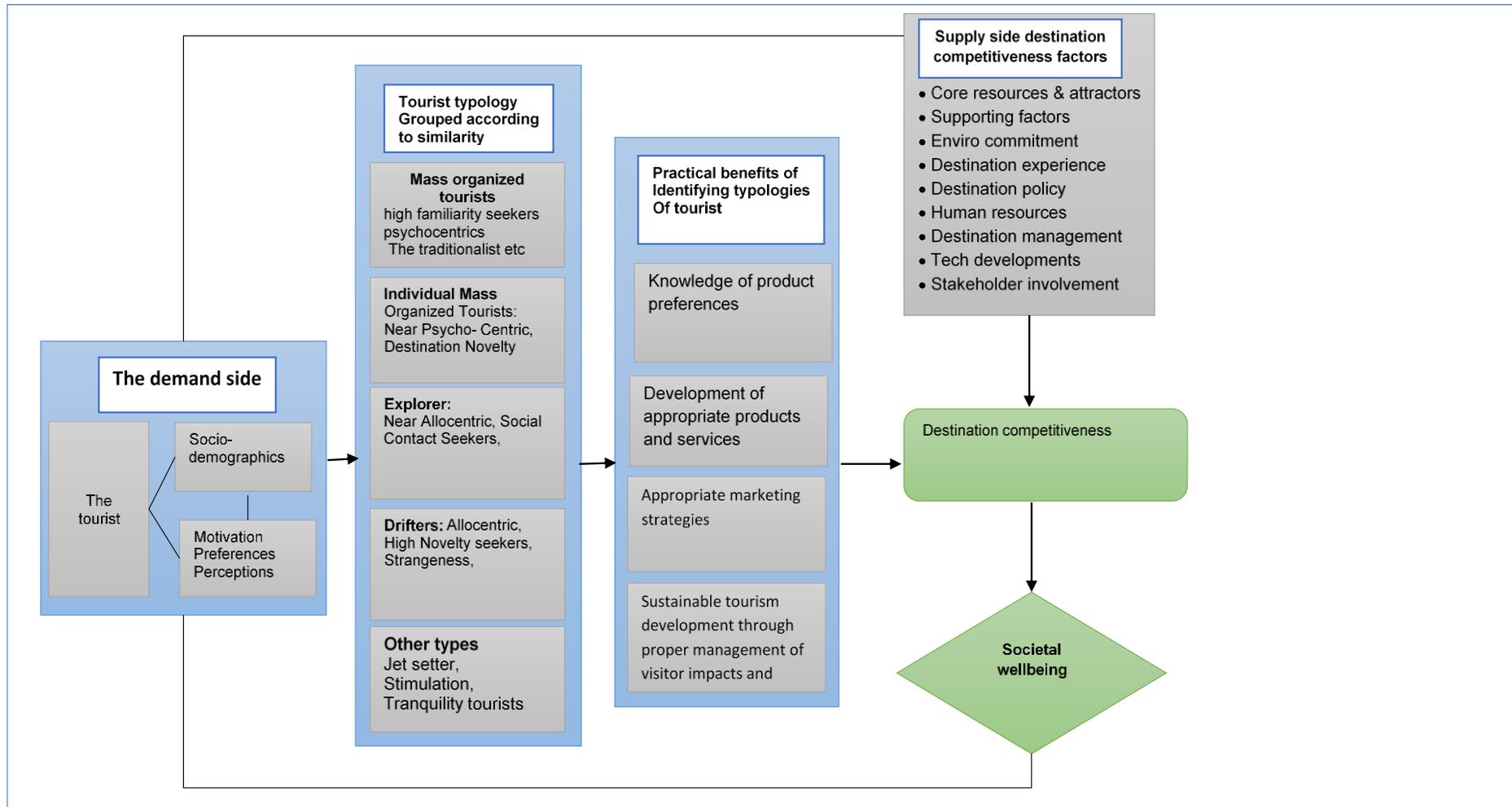


Figure 1.1: The conceptual framework (Author's own compilation)

The tourist is central in the tourism system (Cooper, 1993:23) and represents the demand side of the industry (Formica & Uysal, 2006:419). Resultantly, the framework is illustrating the tourist as the starting point. According to Dwyer and Kim (2003:398), consideration of the determinants of destination competitiveness should include the demand side. This implies that the use of the supply side determinants alone tends to give an inadequate picture of the factors affecting destination competitiveness (Vengesai, 2003:633). In Dwyer and Kim's (2003) model of destination competitiveness, preferences, image and awareness constitute the demand side attributes which determine destination competitiveness. Motivation, though not included by the authors, gives insights into tourist behaviour (Crompton, 1979:408) as well as an appreciation of the factors stimulating demand for tourism products in a given destination. As such, it is considered as an integral attribute of the demand side dynamics. According to Kotler (1991:181), motivation, perceptions and socio-demographic attributes such as age, income and educational levels are some of the factors which influence the characteristics and behaviour of tourists. Consequently, in this study, preferences, perceptions, motivations and socio-demographic characteristics, are used to gain insights into the nature, needs and characteristics of tourists.

Tourists are heterogeneous (Cooper, 1993:20; Dolnicar, 2008:1; Pearce, 2005:18). However, Pearce (2005:19) argue that it is inefficient and difficult to consider numerous individual cases when conceptualising the characteristics of tourists. Rather it is prudent to establish some broad commonalities across some tourist behaviour variables to allow effective site-based management and marketing. Similarly, Dolnicar (2008:2) argued that while tourists are different, some are more similar to each other than others. Meanwhile, Dwyer and Kim (2003:399) argued that a destination is not competitive to all types of tourists, i.e. it may be competitive to one group of tourists and not to another. This necessitates the identification of the different subgroups which make up the market

in order to recognise the most viable groups that match the destination's product offerings.

Tourist typologies (e.g., Cohen, 1972; Plog, 1974; Seery & Paris, 2015; Wickens, 1994), herein referred to as tourist taxonomies, have been used to categorise tourists who share common characteristics, simultaneously allowing for differences to be taken note of. As shown in Figure 1.1, the tourist characteristics are then conceptualised using tourist taxonomies. In the diagram (Figure 1.1) Cohen's (1972) framework was used. However, tourists with similar characteristics to each of Cohen's type were also included. The development of tourist taxonomies gives managers an appreciation of the preferences of tourists within each taxon, which would guide product development and marketing (Swarbrooke, 2007:91). Information derived from tourist taxonomies can also be used to guide policy and planning for the tourism industry. In addition, the identification of major visitor groups will enable destination managers to implement proper environmental management techniques, thereby achieving physical sustainability (Coccosis & Constantoglou, 2006:110), which is an important indicator of destination competitiveness. Subsequently, the line of argument in this study is that information derived from tourist taxonomies provides management with valuable information that can be used to enhance destination competitiveness. If a destination becomes competitive, tourist arrivals are likely to increase, resulting in many tourism related benefits, including societal wellbeing, which is the ultimate goal of destination competitiveness as suggested by Richie and Crouch (2000).

The conceptual framework (Figure 1.1) also illustrates that the supply side makes up most the determinants of destination competitiveness. However, it is a known fact that supply and demand are two sides of the same coin.

### 1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Destinations are not competitive to all types of tourists (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:399). Meanwhile, there is limited research on the competitiveness of destinations from a tourist perspective (Amaya Molinar, Sosa Ferreira, Ochoa-Llamas, & Moncada Jiménez, 2017:1; Meng, 2006:iii) especially in the context of the different types of tourists (taxonomies). A demand-based approach in destination competitiveness dynamics is likely to contribute towards the creation of holistic competitiveness strategies for underperforming destinations such as Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwe's tourism industry has experienced unstable growth over the years. In the year 2000, the country experienced a sudden decline in tourist arrivals due to a series of political and economic challenges which undermined the competitiveness of the destination (Miriimi *et al.*, 2013:47). While the situation improved during the era of the Inclusive Government (Mutana & Zinyemba, 2013:95; ZTA, 2009:7), recent statistics reveal a fluctuating growth rate (ZTA, 2013:11). According to ZTA (2013:50), the overseas lucrative market is still 60% lower compared to 1999 when the tourist arrivals for this market almost reached 600 000. This calls for the need to come up with strategies to enhance the competitiveness of Zimbabwe from a tourist perspective. In addition, a review of literature on tourism in Zimbabwe, apparently shows that no comprehensive empirical studies have been undertaken to appreciate the nature of the different types of tourists visiting Zimbabwe, including domestic tourists, except for two studies which largely focused on tourists' recreational needs by Heath (1986) and (1990).

Given the key role tourists play in the tourism system (Cooper, 1993:23), the rejuvenation of Zimbabwe's tourism industry should, among other strategies, be based on a thorough understanding of the behaviour of tourists and their product preferences in order to adequately cater for their needs. Tourist typologies/taxonomies are one such framework which gives useful insights on tourist behaviour and their preferences.

However, most tourist typologies that have been developed and/ or tested are biased towards Europe and the United States of America (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:90) making it necessary to explore the tourist market in the context of a developing African country. More so, the deliberate widening of Zimbabwe's target market, triggered by the withdrawal of the West, also calls for appreciation of the preferences and behaviour of the current market in order to effectively cater for it.

Therefore, using a Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework, (TTCF) the study sought to illustrate how tourist taxonomies can be used as a management tool for enhancing destination competitiveness. Ultimately, this study is meant to contribute towards the growth of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination. The identification of tourist taxonomies could enable destination managers to reflect tourist preferences in the tourism planning and development process, thereby enhancing the appeal of the destination, which is a precedent for destination competitiveness. Apparently, the development of the country's tourism product appears to be largely based on guesswork. The major question then is, *what are the taxonomies of tourists visiting Zimbabwe and how can these taxonomies be used as a tool for enhancing the country's competitiveness from a tourist perspective.*

## **1.4 GOAL OF THE STUDY**

The study sought to establish tourist taxonomies of Zimbabwe and illustrate how taxonomies can be used as a management tool for enhancing destination competitiveness. However, in order to gain more insights into the characteristics of tourists visiting Zimbabwe, the study also looked at tourist motivations and competitiveness perceptions regarding tourism products and services.

### **1.4.1 Objectives**

The study focussed on 7 objectives outlined below:

### **Objective 1**

*'To analyse literature on destination competitiveness and tourist typologies'*. The researcher critically evaluated literature on tourist typologies/taxonomies and destination competitiveness (Chapter 2) in the context of marketing in order to illustrate the literature gaps and practical issues that can be addressed by undertaking this study from a demand perspective.

### **Objective 2**

*'To critically review literature on the Zimbabwean situation, regarding tourism markets and destination products'*. The intention was to illustrate the nature of Zimbabwe's tourism market including the various challenges the country is facing which warrants the need to come up with strategies for enhancing the competitive strength of the destination from a demand perspective.

### **Objective 3**

The third objective sought *'to establish the demand drivers for the country's tourism industry from the perspective of the tourist'*, through examining tourist travel motivations. This information is essential for product development and the designing of appropriate and relevant marketing messages.

### **Objective 4**

*'To determine the perceptions of tourist towards the Competitiveness of Zimbabwe's destination products'*. This objective was included in order to ascertain the strengths and weaknesses of the destination from the tourist point view, information which would guide management on how best to improve and maximise destination competitiveness.

### **Objective 5**

*'To establish the preferences of tourists visiting the country's tourist attractions'*. This objective was meant to allow destination managers to appreciate tourist priorities and desires when visiting destinations. This information is critical as it enables the development of tailor made tourism products and services.

### **Objective 6**

*'To establish the tourist taxonomies for Zimbabwe'*. The researcher sought to identify the taxonomies of tourists visiting the country using preference variables. The realisation that the identification of specific segments whose needs and preferences match destination resources can contribute towards destination competitiveness gave rise to this objective.

### **Objective 7**

*'To develop a Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF) and draw conclusions on how tourist taxonomies can be used as a management tool for enhancing destination competitiveness'*. A Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF) was developed and used to illustrate how knowledge of tourist taxonomies can be used to come up with strategies for enhancing destination competitiveness for the different types of tourists visiting the destination.

## **1.5 METHOD OF RESEARCH**

The following research methodology was adopted in this study:

### **1.5.1 Literature study**

The literature study examined journal articles and books on destination competitiveness and tourist typologies, in order to establish the relationship between the two and identify gaps. The academic databases used included Science Direct, Emerald, EBSCO-host, Google Scholar and other internet websites with academic reputation. The nature of the Zimbabwean tourism industry and the current issues affecting its competitiveness were analysed. The aim was to establish how the concept of tourist taxonomies can be applied to increase the competitiveness of the tourism industry. In this regard, the researcher used the ZTA annual reports, policy documents, tourism policy and tourism strategic marketing plans in order to get a comprehensive picture of the destination. The key terms in this study are: tourist typologies/taxonomies, destination competitiveness, destination products, the destination concept, tourist preferences management tool and demand factors.

### **1.5.2 Empirical survey**

The section outlines the research design and data collection methods which the researcher used in order to fulfil the set objectives.

#### **1.5.2.1 Research design and method of collecting data**

The study used the quantitative approach and was largely descriptive in nature. Gravetter and Farzano (2011:196), opined that descriptive research provides information about naturally occurring behavior, attitudes or other characteristics of a particular group and help researchers to capture interesting naturally occurring phenomena. However, the study also investigated relationships between variables. According to Clow and James (2014:28), descriptive studies use numbers which allow for statistical and mathematical relationships to be examined. Similarly, Burns and Bush (2010:57) and Zikmund and Babin (2010:51) opined that descriptive research also

considers the relationship between variables. However, Sousa *et al.* (2007:504) referred to them as ‘descriptive co-relational studies’.

The study sought to construct the taxonomies of tourists including establishing the relative importance of *motivations, preferences* and *competitiveness perceptions* among the study population. According to Sukalmolson (2007:9), the quantitative approach is flexible and can be used in studies which seek to quantify people’s opinions, behaviour and for dividing a given population into sub-groups. In view of the foregoing argument, the quantitative methodology, because of its ability to accommodate large samples and to assess, quantify perceptions as well as behaviour and its capability to be used for grouping a given population into different taxa was found suitable for this study.

### 1.5.2.2 Sampling

The respondents comprised of both domestic and international tourists visiting selected tourist attraction sites in Zimbabwe. Tourists visiting the country’s tourist hot spots were targeted for this study. A tourist hot spot refers to a tourist area/attraction, which tends to attract tourists in large numbers. The researcher used purposive sampling to select these tourist sites. Zimbabwe’s tourist attraction sites were basically divided into natural and manmade attractions as shown in Table 1.2.

**Table 1.2: Major tourism destinations in Zimbabwe**

Manmade/ heritage	Nature based
Kariba	Hwange National Park
Great Zimbabwe Ruins	Victoria Falls
Khami Ruins	Gonarezhou National Park
Lake Mtirikwi	Matopo Hills
Harare	Nyanga

Bulawayo- Lobengula's Village	Chimanimani
Botanical Gardens	
Art Gallery Centre	

**Source: Vengesayi (2003:110)**

The tourist destinations in Zimbabwe were further divided into five regions, namely Victoria Falls, Kariba, Bulawayo, Great Zimbabwe and Eastern Highlands (Vengesayi, 2003:110). In this study, Harare was considered as a region on its own because it is the capital city and the major entry and departure point for travellers as it houses the country's major airport. As a result, the study areas included six tourist regions. The researcher purposively selected one tourist hot spot in each of the six regions. As a result, data was collected from six study sites across the country. Apart from leisure tourists, the study also included business tourists attending relevant events, namely, the Zimbabwe International Trade Fair (ZITF) and the Sanganayi/Hlanganani Tourism Expo.

Convenience sampling was used to recruit the respondents. In all the study areas, self-administered questionnaires were distributed to tourists who indicated willingness to participate in the study. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2008:241), convenience sampling is prone to bias since it relies on cases that are easy to get; as a result, it is rather difficult to obtain a reliable sample. However, the fact that the study included all the tourist regions, to some extent, ensured representativeness of the sample. The researcher administered 1200 questionnaires to cater for both domestic and international tourists. The intention was to obtain at least 400 usable questionnaires for each category. While the total number of domestic tourists is not readily available, the country received a total of 2167686 international tourist in 2016 (ZTA 2016:7). According to Glen, (2009:3), for populations exceeding 100000, a sample size of at least 400 is of sufficient size to make some generalisations.

### **1.5.2.3 Development of questionnaire**

The questionnaire comprised of five sections whereby section A, had questions on motivation variables, which sought to ascertain the demand drivers for tourism as well as to derive insights on tourist behaviour. In designing the section on motivations, the researcher used the recurring themes on motivations as illustrated by authors such as Dann's (1977) push-pull model, Crompton (1979) and Pearce (2005). The researcher also included specific pull factors based on the unique attributes (such as wild life scenery, climate and local cuisine) of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination.

Section B sought to establish the preferences of tourists in relation to different destination attributes, by asking questions about what tourists preferred when visiting the destination. The construction of the questions seeking to establish taxonomies was guided by an attitudinal scale for testing Cohen's typology which was developed by Mo *et al.* (1993). The activity and environment related variables were included in order to capture the changing tourist needs and these were designed by the researcher.

Section C established tourist perceptions about the products and services on offer in the country. The researcher developed variables for this section guided by literature from destination competitiveness models, namely Ritchie and Crouch (2000) and Dwyer and Kim (2003). These models indicate the key determinants of destination competitiveness. Caution was made to include only those variables (core resources, activities, pricing, hospitality and safety) which tourists are able to evaluate.

Meanwhile, section D had questions relating to sociodemographic and trip characteristics. The questionnaire was given to tourism academics at North West University for verification. Their intervention resulted in adjustments on the questionnaire especially on variables that seemed to carry some repetition. It was pre-tested to tourists who visited Nyanga resort during the 2015 Christmas holiday.

#### **1.5.2.4 Survey**

Data was collected at tourist hot spots in Zimbabwe. This was done during the period between 27 December 2015 and 17 June 2016. The researcher and research assistants distributed the questionnaires to departing tourists at the Harare and Victoria Fall International Airports. In Kariba, Nyanga and Great Zimbabwe, questionnaires were distributed to tourists booked at hotels as well as those at activity sites. During the Sanganayi/Hlanganani Expo and the Harare International Trade Fair, questionnaires were distributed to tourists attending as well as to exhibitors at these events.

#### **1.5.2.5 Data analysis**

The Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) was used to carry out the various statistical tests. Descriptive statistics were used to summarise data on socio-demographics, motivations, preferences and competitiveness perceptions. Furthermore, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), was then conducted in order to reduce the motivation, perception and preference variables into fewer factors as well as to identify the underlying latent factors. Cluster analysis using the Ward's method (Euclidean distance) was computed on the preference factor scores to come up with the tourist taxa. Chi-square tests of independence were used to test whether the differences in sociodemographic/trip characteristics occurring among tourists in relation to regions of origin and clusters (taxa) were statistically significant. While Analysis of Variance, ANOVA was used to compare the means of cluster variables to determine whether the clusters were statistically different from each other. T-tests were then used to investigate whether there were statistically significant differences between domestic and international tourists in relation to motivation, perception and preference factors. T-tests are based on an analysis of the total variation displayed by the data, splitting this into variation between the samples and variation within the samples and then comparing these components (Porkess, 2005:6).

Effect sizes using Cohen  $d$  values and Cramer's  $V$  statistic were computed to establish whether the observed differences among clusters, as well as between domestic and international tourists, were of practical significance. According to Ellis and Steyn (2003:53), huge samples tend to yield statistically significant results, which do not have practical significance. The Cramer's  $V$  was employed to ascertain the strength of association observed in relation to socio-demographic data and region of origins as well as clusters.

## **1.6 DEFINING CONCEPTS**

The following concepts are important in this study:

### **1.6.1 *Tourist typologies***

Tourist typologies is a system which classifies tourist behaviour in a destination into homogenous groups according to their preferences for familiarity and novelty (Coccosis & Constantoglu, 2006:7). However, this definition is more applicable to Cohen's (1972) tourist typologies. According to Hvenegaard (2002:8), explanations of tourist typologies have been associated with such terms as segmentation, classification and clustering. Every typology is the result of a grouping process (Van Marwijk & Taczanowska, 2006:499). In this study tourist taxonomies are defined as a system which identifies and classifies tourist behaviour and experiences into homogenous groups.

### **1.6.2 *Tourist taxonomies***

The word taxonomy is derived from Greek *taxís*, meaning 'arrangement or division', and *nomos*, meaning 'law', therefore it means 'laws of arrangement and division' (Tarantino, 2008:442). The terms taxonomy and typology, from a social science perspective, are used interchangeably. However, Bailey (1994:6) argued that the term taxonomy denotes a classification system of empirical entities. Similarly, Becker (1994:ii) stated

that the goal of taxonomies is to classify cases according to their measured similarity on observed variables. Therefore, this study adopts the label tourist taxonomies since it is empirically based.

### **1.6.3 The destination concept**

Tourism as an industry takes place at destinations (Framke, 2002:4). According to Cooper *et al.* (1993:77) this is where the most “significant and dramatic elements” of tourism take place. It is rather difficult to come up with an all-encompassing definition of the concept of a destination because tourism actors and researchers use it differently (Framke, 2002:92). It is seen differently by authors depending on the discipline they are from. Mill and Morrison (1992: 263) described a destination as a mix of interdependent elements, while Murphy (2000:44) viewed a destination as “an amalgam of individual products and experience opportunities that combine to form a total experience of the area visited”. Buhalis (2000:1), in his attempt to explain the concept of a destinations, noted that the traditional approach conceptualises a destination as having well defined boundaries, but contemporary perspectives now regard a destination as a perceptual concept whose interpretation varies among consumers depending on their travel itineraries, cultural backgrounds purpose of visit, among other aspects. Similarly, Framke (2002:92) noted that destinations are “units at several geographical levels, but without distinct geographical boundaries, and as images resulting from social practice”. Buhalis’ (2000) and Framke’s (2002) explanations of a destination seem to be more appealing as they tend to capture contemporary views on the destination as a concept. Despite the varied definitions of a destination, it appears there is a general consensus on that it is an agglomeration of attractions, facilities and services meant to serve the tourist (Buhalis, 2000; Cooper *et al.*, 1993; Framke, 2002; Mill and Morrison, 1992; Murphy, 2013).

#### **1.6.4 Destination competitiveness**

There is no universally agreed definition of the concept of destination competitiveness. d'Hauterres (2000:23) defined destination competitiveness as the ability of a destination to maintain its market position and share and/or to improve them through time. However, a more comprehensive definition was provided by Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2) who defined destination competitiveness as 'the ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors, while providing them with satisfying memorable experiences and to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the wellbeing of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations'. Kim (2012:14) noted that from the diverse definitions issues to do with productivity, efficiency and the enhancement of standards of living for the residents are the ultimate outputs of destination competitiveness. Apart from the themes noted by Kim (2012) from the different definitions of destination competitiveness, the issue of sustainability is also an integral component of destination competitiveness and is clearly reflected by Ritchie and Crouch's (2003) definition which is the operational definition for this study.

#### **1.6.5 Destination products**

A tourism product is defined as a set of activities, services and benefits that constitute the entire tourism experience (Medlik & Middleton, 1973:138). Jefferson and Lickorish (1988:59) defined a tourism product as a collection of physical and service features together with symbolic associations, which are expected to fulfil the wants and needs of the buyer. These definitions illustrate that the tourism product is an amalgam of different physical and service features. The definition by Jefferson and Lickorish (1988:59) is the working definition in this study because it reflects the dimension of needs and wants of customers.

### **1.6.6 Management tool**

Management is a process or an act which entails drawing of broad plans of operations of a business, assembling personnel as well as coordinating and harmonising effort and activity (Fayol, 1949:5). Similarly, Olum (2004:2) defined management as development of bureaucracy that derives its importance from the need for strategic planning, coordination, directing and controlling of large and complex decision-making process. The core functions of management are planning, organising, leading and controlling (Schraeder *et al.*, 2014:50). From the above definitions, it is evident that, decision making is one of the key functions of management. In fact, Schraeder *et al.* (2014:50) asserted that the planning dimension embodies various levels of decision making.

The Cambridge dictionary (2015) defined a tool as a piece of equipment that you use with your hands to make or repair something or anything that helps you to do a particular activity. Eppler (2000:1) defined a management tool as a structured model used in problem solving and decision making in an organisation. It achieves this by providing thought structures and action steps. As such, in order for managers to achieve productivity, effectiveness and efficiency (Olum, 2004:2), there is need to use structured models which aid in decision making including problem solving.

### **1.6.7 Tourist preferences**

Generally, the term Preferences refer to certain characteristics any consumer wants to have in a good or service to make it desirable to him (*economictimes.indiatimes.com*). Similarly, Druckman and Lupia (2000:2) defined the term preference as a “comparative evaluation of a set of objects... which serve as a cognitive marker that reminds people how to interact with various aspects of their environment”. Voicu (2013:127) explained that preferences of consumers are “positive motivations, expressed by the affective compatibility towards a product or a service. Tourist preferences, in particular, were defined by (Tran & Ralston, 2006:428) as the act of selecting from among a set of

choices as influenced by one's motivations. In this study, preferences are referring to choices which tourists make in destinations in relation to destination products, services and even experiences. Leinfellner and Köhler (2013:287) opined that preferences provide information about people's priorities and their desires.

## **1.7 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATIONS**

The next section gives a description of the layout of the chapters of this study.

### **Chapter 1**

The first chapter gives the overall framework of the study. The chapter outlines the topic and the introduction which spells out what the research is all about. The background puts the study into context by giving an overview of existing literature on destination competitiveness and tourist typologies/taxonomies, subsequently illustrating the gaps in the existing literature. The research problem highlights the issues and inherent gaps which the study sought to address. This is followed by the research methodology summary and definition of terms.

### **Chapter 2**

The chapter begins by giving an overview of marketing and related concepts because the study falls within the marketing field. The study shows how consumer factors can be used as a source of competitive advantage. The chapter then examines the concept of tourist typologies, motivations, preferences and perceptions. Destination competitiveness theory and its determinants are explored with the objective of illustrating the critical role which demand factors play in destination competitiveness. Therefore, various factors which influence destination competitiveness are analysed in the context of the destination competitiveness models.

### **Chapter 3**

This chapter provides a detailed analysis of destination Zimbabwe, including the structure of the tourism industry, the tourism product, the composition of the market, factors affecting demand for the country's tourism products. The chapter concludes by giving a SWOT analysis of Zimbabwe's tourism industry.

### **Chapter 4**

This chapter discusses the methodology used to achieve the objectives of the study. The chapter outlines, the research objectives, followed by an overview of the major philosophical views that underlie different research strategies, the research design, sampling methods, data collection techniques, questionnaire development, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, reliability and validity as well as the ethical considerations.

### **Chapter 5**

This chapter reports on the empirical results and findings from the various analyses conducted on data of the tourist visiting Zimbabwe.

### **Chapter 6**

The researcher designed a Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF) and illustrated how it could be used by destination managers to make decisions on enhancing destination competitiveness. As such, in this chapter the contribution of the study is indicated, conclusions are drawn and recommendations made.

## **CHAPTER 2: ANALYSIS OF MARKETING, TOURIST TAXONOMIES, DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The majority of models on destination competitiveness give little attention to the (tourist) the main actor of the tourism system as a source of competitive advantage (Amaya Molinar *et al.*, 2017:2). This is despite, the fact that the demand side is a key determinant of destination competitiveness (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:398). Further, Amaya Molinar *et al.* (2017:2), averred that due recognition of the demand side, in particular, tourist types (taxonomies), can provide destination managers with knowledge on how to improve competitiveness from a tourist perspective. Therefore, the chapter, critically evaluates literature on tourist typologies/taxonomies and destination competitiveness. Explanations of the terms: the tourist, tourism and the tourism system are provided. The concept of travel motivations which provide insights into tourist behaviour and demand related issues is discussed. The concept of tourist preferences, upon which tourist taxonomies in this study are based, is also explained. Literature on tourist perceptions is covered, since the measurement of perceptions enables assessment of destination competitiveness from the viewpoint of tourists. Tourist taxonomies, by focussing on the tourist as a source of competitive advantage, have relevancy in marketing (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007: 92). Therefore, the section below provides an overview of marketing and its related concepts.

### **2.2 MARKETING: AN OVERVIEW**

Tourism is a major industry globally and a key sector in many countries (Dwyer & Spurr, 2011:1), with direct and indirect economic impacts (WTTC, 2014:2). The industry is a vital economic sector that provides employment and creates wealth (Armenski *et al.*, 2011:19). However, the market place is becoming saturated (Omerzel, 2005:43) and destinations all around the world are competing to attract more tourists (Çetinkaya,

2009:1). Competition in national markets has become more intense and complex (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2012:10). When customers have many choices, they will choose the one that best meets their needs (Levitt cited by Keelson, 2012:28). Purcărea and Rațiu (2011:1) opined that global economic uncertainty and turbulence require organisations to recognise the key role that customers and their experiences play in overcoming challenging economic circumstances. Customers are largely regarded as the most important asset in an organisation (Weinstein, 2004:62; Gabčanová, 2011:1) and they should be the central focus for all people working in an organisation (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2012:6; Milovic, 2012:341). In this regard, firms should fully embrace marketing in its entirety in order to remain competitive. According to Drucker (1973:64), the aim of marketing is to know and understand the customer so well that the product or service fits him and sells itself. Ideally, marketing should result in a customer who is ready to buy.”

Marketing can be broadly defined as “the relationship between the buyer and seller and the transactions involved in bringing this to a satisfactory conclusion” (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2012:6). According to Kotler (2001:28), marketing means working with markets to bring about exchanges for satisfying human needs and wants. The organisation should determine the needs, wants and interests of target markets and deliver the desired satisfactions more effectively and more efficiently than competitors. At strategic level, marketing aims at matching the company abilities to the needs and interests of its customers both existing and potential (Kotler, Haider & Rein, 1993:26). Kotler and Armstrong (2010:31) suggested that product development, research, communication, distribution, pricing and service should be the core activities of marketing. Marketing enables organisations to utilise resources effectively and efficiently thereby maximising profit and growth in a sustainable manner (Saayman, 2006:4). As a result, this makes marketing a critical activity in an endeavour to create competitive advantages from a tourist perspective.

## **2.2.1 Marketing approaches**

There are six marketing concepts which organisations can use to guide them in conducting marketing activities. These are: the product concept, production concept, selling concept, marketing concept, the societal marketing concept (Kotler, 2001:29) and the holistic marketing concept (Kotler & Armstrong, 2009:46). Hillebrand, Driessen and Koll (2015:411) suggested another concept called stakeholder marketing which, to a greater extent, is similar to the holistic concept. Even though new concepts have been developed, the marketing concept still reigns superior in creating and retaining profitable customers, which is a primary objective of businesses (Keelson, 2012:28).

The marketing principle, and to some extent ideas from the holistic marketing, are discussed as they resonate well with the theme of the study. The section below examines the marketing concept and the holistic marketing approaches.

### **2.2.1.1 The marketing concept**

The marketing concept is a relatively recent philosophy. This concept assumes that the starting point for any marketing process is the determination of customer needs and wants (Keelson, 2012:37). The idea is to ascertain the unconscious needs of the consumer and make goods to gratify them (Shaw, 2012:708). It is based on the argument that the most effective way of achieving organisational goals requires companies to determine the needs and wants of customers and deliver the desired satisfaction more effectively and efficiently than competitors (Kotler, 2001:32). The customer decides what his needs are and not the company doing so on the consumer's behalf (Keelson, 2012:40). Similarly, Horner and Swarbrooke (2012:13) noted that decisions on what to produce are guided by customer needs and wants, and organisations continue to monitor for changing patterns of buyer behaviour in order to adjust accordingly. The authors further pointed out that the 'the company coordinates all the activities that will affect customer satisfaction and makes profits by creating and

maintaining customer satisfaction'. The approach takes an outward perspective, it starts with needs and wants of the target markets (Kotler, 2001:32); and the marketing activities are shaped by customer influences (Keelson, 2012:37).

Similarly, Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1061), identify marketing as one of the key variables that contribute to destination competitiveness. In fact, the authors underscore the need to embrace a true marketing philosophy because most destinations are confining marketing activities to destination promotion and selling only. This shows that most destinations are neglecting the other key attributes of the marketing philosophy, which relate to the identification of customer needs and wants. As such, the customer centric approach of this study in the context of taxonomies, in a way addresses this gap. In addition, the marketing philosophy, by its orientation towards the customer, share some similarities with tourist taxonomies.

#### **2.2.1.2 The holistic concept**

The concept of holistic marketing is derived from 'holism', which means entire or total (Tushi, 2014:1). Holistic marketing is a multi-dimensional approach (Adler, 2015:1), where everything matters (Munteanu *et al.*, 2014:9). It is a broader perspective which integrates the entire activities of an organisation, advocating for the consideration of all the various stakeholders i.e. customers, employees, suppliers and the community at large (Agrawal, 2012:1). The concept puts emphasis on the interdependence of organisational processes and activities (Grundey, 2012:43; Kotler & Keller, 2009:33). Holistic marketing includes internal marketing, social marketing, integrated marketing and relationship marketing.

Keelson (2012:28), acknowledged that the holistic concept is comprehensive and theoretically appealing, however, he regarded it as an exaggeration of the marketing philosophy. In this study, the holistic marketing is regarded as an extension of the marketing philosophy. One can argue that ideas from holistic marketing are simply

providing the conditions necessary for the 'marketing principle' to be effective. For example, in trying to meet customer needs, the aspect of fostering relationships is critical. The holistic marketing approach is also compatible with the concept of sustainable tourism development. The tourism industry is a high impact industry, efforts to achieve competitive advantage should, in one way or the other, facilitate societal and environmental benefits. The current study is largely aligned towards the marketing concept, while the ideas from holistic marketing are regarded as important pillars for the success of the marketing concept.

Marketing efforts should be directed to specific segments in order to be effective. The section below briefly examines the concept of market segmentation. According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:92) tourist typologies, though largely conceptualised from a non-marketing perspective by academics, are similar to the concept of market segmentation.

### **2.2.2 Market segmentation**

Market segmentation refers to the process of dividing the market into homogenous groups, thereby creating competitive advantage by concentrating marketing energy and force on specific segments (Dolnicar, 2008:129; Goyat, 2011:45). The aim is to identify and delineate market segments or 'sets of buyers' which would then become targets for the company's marketing plans. Consumers vary in respect of their demands for products just like the tourist destinations also differ. Market segmentation could assist the destinations to choose the best or most attractive segments and to design strategies to achieve profitability by serving the chosen segments in a more effective way than its competitors do (Ndhlovu, 2009:36). A target market consists of a set of buyers who share common needs or characteristics that the organisation or the destination decides to serve (Kasper *et al.*, 2005:128). Target marketing involves the evaluation of each segment's attractiveness and selecting one or more of the market segments as the target (Raju, 2009:62). Market segmentation makes it possible for destinations to

develop products and services that effectively appeal to each segment (Srihadi, 2012:33). This is likely to increase customer satisfaction, making the destination more competitive from the point of the consumer.

### **2.2.3 *The marketing mix***

The marketing mix refers to a set of controllable variables that the firm can use to influence the buyer's response (Singh, 2012:40). Marketing Mix is essential for creating a viable marketing strategy (Singh, 2012:42) "There are four basic "Ps" that should be considered, which are Product, Price, Promotion, and Place (Fyall & Garrod, 2005:105; Saayman, 2006:4).

A product is an item which an organisation develops (Misra, 2015:50) and is offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use or consumption that might satisfy a want or a need (Kotler, 2005:539). Therefore, it is the key element of any marketing mix (Singh, 2016:42). A product is not only physical in nature but includes services, persons, places, organisations and ideas' (Kotler, 2005:539). Price is the amount the consumer must exchange to receive the offering (Singh, 2012:42) and it helps the consumer to understand the value of the product (Isoraite, 2016:32). Promotion of the product refers to all the methods through which the public is informed about the product or service that a company has to offer. 'Promotion' includes advertising, public relations, branding, and sales (Misra, 2015:51). 'Place' is generally referred to as the distribution channel and involves mechanism through which goods and services are moved from the service provider and manufacturer to consumer (Singh, 2012:44). Three other marketing-mix variables have been added to this list, namely people, physical evidence and process (Fyall & Garrod, 2005:5; Middleton & Clarke, 2005:87).

The marketing mix is the most vital concept of marketing (Wolfe, 2015:2). It is a tool that enables managers to put the right product in the right place, at the right price, at the right time (Singh, 2012:42). Consequently, this enables managers to create optimal

consumer satisfaction and to fulfil organizational objectives (Pour *et al.*, 2015:3278). The ability to optimise customer satisfaction creates competitive advantage in the market place. With reference to tourism, Ndhlovu (2009:39) averred that, tourism demand at a destination can be determined by how the destination-marketing managers manipulate the marketing-mix variables to make a destination attractive. Kent (2007:206) averred after identifying segments, there is need to develop appropriate marketing mix strategies (Kent, 2007:206). Therefore, identification of different types of customers making up the market is a prerequisite for any marketing mix exercise.

#### ***2.2.4 Tourism marketing concept***

Tourism marketing refers to business activities that create and render unique experiences to the tourists, in order to create a perfect match between their needs and interests (Saayman, 2006:2). Being a service product, tourism should adopt service marketing principles (Kannan, 2009:3). Service products are characterised by four distinctive features which are intangibility, inseparability, variability and heterogeneity (Awara & Anyadighibe, 2014:35; Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996:18). However, Saayman (2006:2) averred that the tourism product is more than a service, comprising of three different components namely the physical component, the service component and the experience component, with the latter differentiating tourism from other service industries. Similarly, Holloway (2004:19) stated that the tourism product is composite while, Buhalis (2000:2) added that the nature of the tourism product makes it difficult to market tourism destinations. According to (Saayman, 2006:7) tourism is more than service, it is different from other services in that it contributes to an everlasting experience. Cirikovic (2014:37) indicated that tourism marketing is a sub-system of service marketing.

If tourism marketing is regarded as a subset of marketing, this makes it possible to factor in, the peculiar attributes of tourists which differentiate them from other customers. Therefore, tourism marketing instead of completely relying on service marketing

concepts can embrace tourism specific tools such as tourist taxonomies as they have the potential to capture the intricate characteristics of tourists. Hudson (2007:40) indicated that most tourism and hospitality organisations have an imperfect picture of their customer, and few monitor patterns of consumer behaviour at a level of detail necessary to retain competitiveness. Therefore, the use of tourist taxonomy theories, can provide a tourism specific framework which can contribute towards a better understanding of the needs and preferences of tourists. Resultantly this can enhance destination competitiveness through the provision of tailor made goods and services.

This section sought to give a brief overview of the concept of marketing because tourist taxonomies, though rooted in tourism theory, share some commonalities with marketing. Broadly speaking, tourist taxonomies focus on the tourist who is regarded as the main actor in the tourism system. Meanwhile, marketing, especially when one considers the marketing philosophy, also considers the customer as the 'main actor'. However, the study is using a tourism specific framework whose benefits are somehow holistic in nature (see figure 1.1).

Having provided an overview of marketing the section below focusses on the tourists and related constructs, in order to derive more insights into the tourist phenomena before focussing on the concept of taxonomies.

## **2.3 TOURISM AND RELATED CONCEPTS**

This section examines the meaning of terms tourism, tourism system, tourist motivations and tourist perceptions.

### **2.3.1 *Meaning of tourism***

Tourism is a highly complex phenomenon (Candela & Figin, 2012:17; Sharma, 2015:36) and is subject to diverse interpretation (Shapley & Telrfer, 2002:4). According to Burns and Holden (1995:4), this is partly due to the multi-disciplinary and abstract nature of

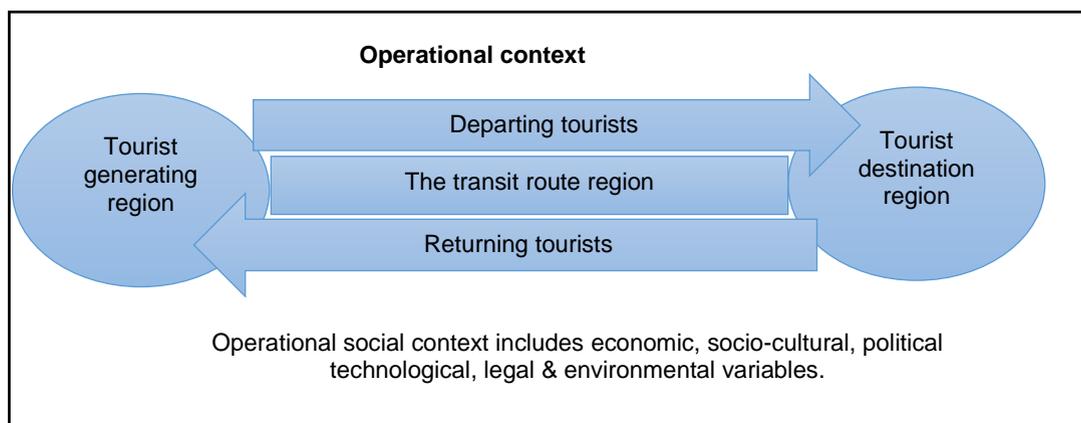
the concept. Similarly, Cooper (2005:12) noted that the term tourism is difficult to define because it is a multi-dimensional and multi-faceted phenomenon involving many different activities. The definitions of tourism can be classified into demand side and supply side definitions. Cooper (2005:12) noted that until the early 1990s, the tourism definitions were driven more by the demand side perspective. Even the UNWTO's definition is demand based, including such definitions by Holloway (2001:2) and Theobald (1998:13). Generally, UNWTO described tourism as a social, cultural and economic phenomenon which entails the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business/professional purposes (IRTS 2008:3.17.2). UNWTO definitions are technical, usually meant to assist those involved in the collection of tourism statistics (<http://booksite.elsevier.com>). Meanwhile, an early attempt to provide a supply-based definition was made by Leiper (1979:404) who defined the tourism industry as a 'collection of industries intended to the serve the needs of tourists'.

Definitions of tourism whether demand based, or supply based, allude to the importance of the consumer in the tourism system. For example, demand side definitions illustrate the central role of the customer in the tourism system. The supply side definitions, by focussing on the facilities and services intended to 'meet the needs of tourists' are also consumer oriented in a way. However, an appropriate definition of tourism should be one, which encompasses the whole phenomenon of the tourism system i.e. both the demand and supply side.

### **2.3.2 *The system approach***

Tourism has been conceptualised by several authors (Gunn, 1972; Leiper, 1979; Mill & Morrison, 1992; Getz, 1986) using the system's approach. A systems approach denotes tourism as a set of interrelated paths and forces which work together to achieve a common goal (Harary & Batell, 1981:29). Leiper's (1990) model comprising of three basic elements namely the tourist, the geographical elements and the tourist industry,

clearly illustrates the demand and supply side of the tourism system. This model (Figure 2.1) is a guiding framework of this study. The tourist is duly regarded as the main actor in the system.



**Figure 2.1: Leiper's tourism system (Mason, 2003:11)**

According to Cooper (2005:10), the major advantage of the model lies 'in its simplicity and general applicability'. In addition, the model is important in that the tourism elements are related and interact. Pearce (1989:20) added that the system illustrates the industry, as operating within a broader set of the environment. This enables one to appreciate the broader issues which affect tourism. The interdependent nature implies that any change, either positive or negative, on any part of the model will trigger changes in the whole system. Therefore, positive interventions which are demand based are likely to trigger positive effects for the tourism system. This study is largely focussing on the demand side of the tourism system and is relevant to this study in as far as it recognises the tourist as the main actor in the tourism system. The section below focuses on the meaning of the term the tourist.

### **2.3.3 The tourist as a concept**

Leiper (1979:404) regarded the tourist as the main actor in the tourism system. It is the tourist who initiates the act of travel, enjoy the experience and remember the fun memories. Bornhorst *et al.* (2010:572) averred that the tourist 'ultimately defines the success of tourism'. Murphy (2013:4) argued that in order for tourism development and planning to succeed it must be based on an understanding of who the tourist is. 'The notion of a tourist is sometimes poorly defined and provokes an ongoing debate among scholars' (Ambroz & Ovsenik, 2011:71). Smith (1978:203) defined the tourist as '.... a temporarily leisured person who visits a place'. Cohen (1984: 374) noted that the most widely accepted technical definition of a tourist was proposed by the International Union of Official Travel Organization (IUTO) in 1963 and was approved by the World Tourists Organization (WTO). It states that 'tourists (international) are temporary visitors staying at least twenty-four hours in the country visited and the purpose of whose journey can be classified under one of the following headings: leisure, recreation, holiday, health, study, religion, sport, business, family missions and meetings' (IUTO 1963: 14). However, this definition has been revised and updated over the years (UNWTO, 2008:2). The UNWTO (2008) defined a tourist as an 'overnight visitor taking a trip to a main destination outside his/her usual environment, for less than a year, for any main purpose (business, leisure or other personal purpose) other than to be employed by a resident entity in the country or place visited'. A same day visitor is regarded as an excursionist. The UNWTO technical definitions are aimed at 'strengthening the methodological and operational foundations of tourism statistics in an integrated manner including enhancement of the coherence of tourism statistics with other official statistics and further development of tourism satellite accounts' (UNWTO, 2008:iii).

McCabe (2005: 191), commenting on the definitions of the term tourist, stated that the term carries notions of 'impermanence, difference, foreignness, otherness and temporariness'. However, the technical definitions of a tourist do not provide insights into who tourists are, their characteristics and what they look for in destinations.

According to Meng (2006:24), the discourse on the concept of the tourist has largely been influenced by the modern and the post-modern perspectives. First, the modern perspective considers the tourist as an individual who looks for authentic experiences through the consumption of authentic tourism phenomena. Meanwhile, the post-modern perspective views the tourist as someone who values enjoyment and entertainment regardless of whether the tourism phenomena are authentic or not. Secondly, the modern perspective reflects a tourist as a cognitively oriented person while the post-modern perspective regards the tourist as an experience-oriented person. Thirdly, MacCannel (1976) suggested the 'existential encounter perspective', where a person is seen 'as a being that constitutes meaning as a member of the world' and not a perceiver of the world outside him.

In view of the work of scholars who attempted to comprehend who the tourist is, Meng (2006:26) concluded that 'that the tourist is someone who desires to escape from his monotonous, ordinary life and engage in activities that give them temporal exposure to an adventurous, exotic and spectacular world'. He further opined that tourism enterprises and establishments should design and sell experiences that cater for the needs of tourists. The tourists' taxonomy theories can be used to derive more information which can contribute towards getting a better understanding of the tourist.

## **2.4 MEANING OF TOURIST TAXONOMIES/TYOLOGIES**

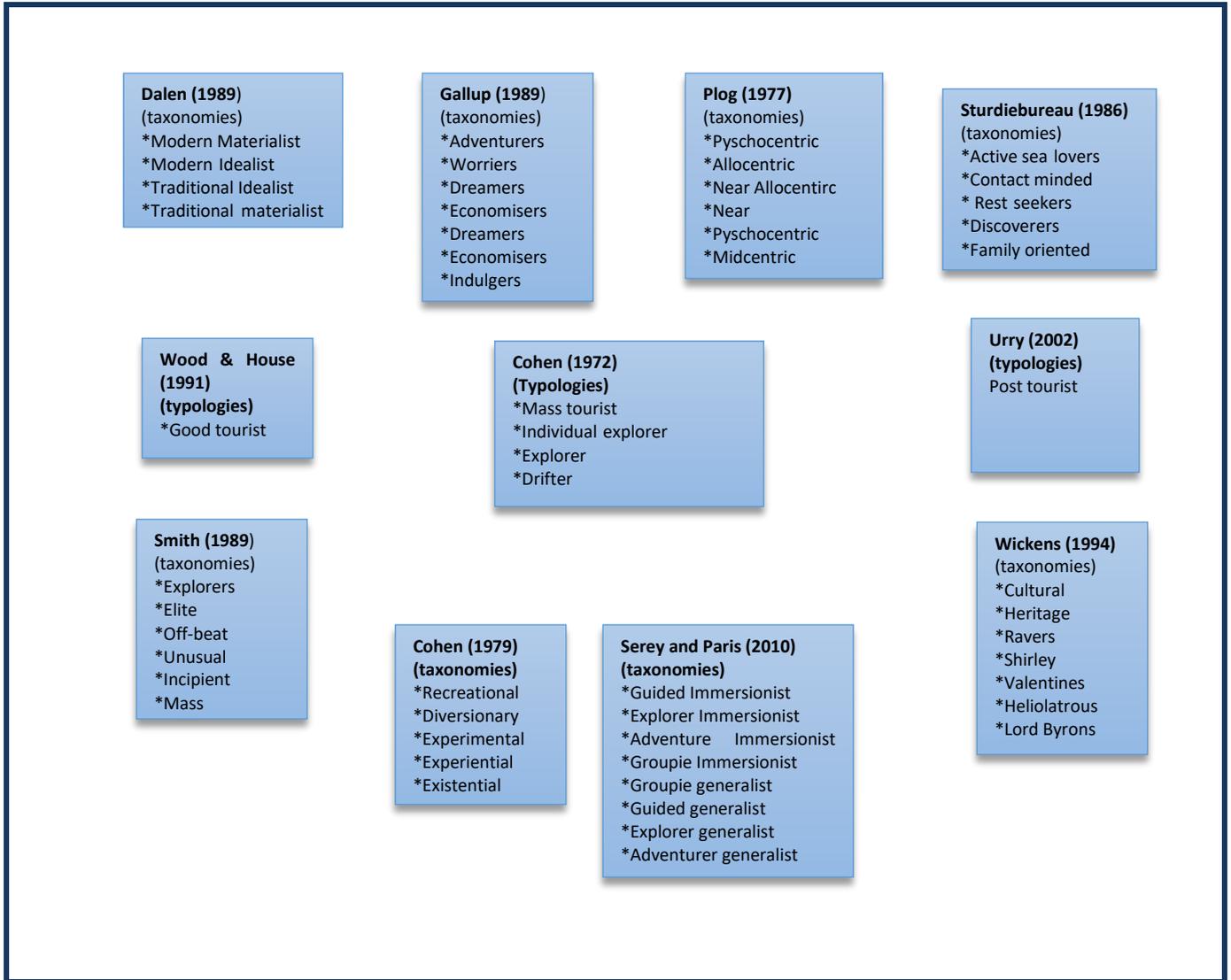
The words typology and taxonomy both refer to classification systems. The term taxonomy is generally used in the biological sciences, while typology is used in the social sciences (Bailey, 1994:6). The terms taxonomy and typologies have overlapping characteristics (Kamprath, 2014:1) and are used interchangeably (Bailey, 1994:4). However, there is need to clearly distinguish empirical classification from theoretical classification systems using proper terminology. As indicated earlier on, this study uses the term taxonomy. A taxonomy is defined as an 'empirical strategy for classifying cases according to their measured similarity on observed variables' (Bailey, 1994:1). Tourist

taxonomies provide a framework for understanding differences and similarities in objects that are classified framework (Nickerson *et al.*, 2009:3).

The practice of grouping tourists into different types came to the limelight when Cohen (1972:164) devised a fourfold classification of tourist types. However, Gray (1970:87), who is the pioneer of tourist typologies, categorised tourists into two types namely, sun lust and wanderlust. For Gray (1970) and Cohen (1972), the use of the term typology is applicable because their tourist types were not derived from empirical studies. The section below focusses on the tourist taxonomies/typologies.

#### **2.4.1 *Tourist typology/taxonomy theories***

This section reviews the major tourist taxonomies and typologies, the former is used for non-empirically typologies whereas the latter is used for empirically derived typologies. Figure 2.2 is a summary of the major theories on tourist typologies:



**Figure 2.2: A synopsis of tourist typology theories (Author's own compilation)**

### **2.4.1.1 Cohen (1972)**

Cohen (1972: 165-173) was one of the first researchers to propose that tourists can be grouped based on similar observable behaviour. He asserted that tourist experiences in destinations can be categorised into four distinct groups, depending on the level of familiarity and novelty that the tourists seek. He noted that novelty and strangeness are

important elements in the tourist experience (Cohen, 1972:166). He argued that 'even the modern tourist does not immerse himself/herself completely in an alien environment'. He added that most tourists tend to enjoy novelty from a strong base of familiarity. This enables them to feel secure enough to enjoy the experiences. The characteristics of Cohen's fourfold classification of tourist types makes up of the mass tourist, the individual organised mass tourist, the drifter and explorer (Table 2.1).

**Table 2.1: Cohen's tourist typologies**

Tourist types	Characteristics
<b>Mass organised tourists</b>	<p>Less adventurous than the other three groups.</p> <p>Seeks the services of tour guides.</p> <p>Use of packaged tours.</p> <p>Air-conditioned buses travelling at high speeds.</p> <p>Fixed itinerary.</p> <p>Makes no decisions</p> <p>Largely stays in the micro environment of is home.</p>
<b>Individual organised tourist</b>	<p>Most of the characteristics are similar to those stated above.</p> <p>Flexible itinerary, the tourists has some control of the planning process and time.</p> <p>Ventures out his environmental occasionally, most of the time he prefers his environmental bubble.</p> <p>Not necessarily confined to a group.</p> <p>Prefers familiarity though occasional he can venture out his environmental bubble.</p>
<b>Drifter</b>	<p>Arranges own trip.</p> <p>Attempts to get off the beaten track.</p> <p>Delights in comfortable accommodation and reliable transport.</p> <p>More venturesome than the first two.</p> <p>Can easily slide back to his environmental bubble in the face of challenges.</p>

	Maintains basic routines and comforts of his normal life, e.g. they look for comfortable accommodation and reliable transport.
<b>Explorer</b>	<p>Most adventurous as compared to the others.</p> <p>Shuns the beaten track completely.</p> <p>Perceives the ordinary tourist experience as 'phony'.</p> <p>Does not connect with the established tourism.</p>

**Source: Adopted from Cohen (1972)**

The four groups were classified into two broad groups namely the institutionalised tourists and non-institutionalised tourists, depending on the level of their attachment to the tourism industry in the destination. The drifters and explorers were regarded as non-institutionalised because of their tendency to shun the established tourist facilities, while the mass tourist and individual mass tourists were categorised as institutionalised tourists because of their heavy reliance on the tourism industry. Cohen's (1972) work stimulated the construction of different typologies by various scholars such as American express news release (1989); Dalen (1989); Cohen (1979); Perreault, Dorden and Dorden (1979); Plog (1974); Smith (1989); Studiebureau (1986); Urry (2002) and Wickens (1994).

#### **2.4.1.2 Cohen (1979)**

Cohen (1979:179-201) proposed another typology of tourists derived from a phenomenological perspective. He classified tourists based on the type of experiences they were seeking. The tourists in this framework were divided into five groups. The *recreational* tourist pursues physical recreation. The *diversionary* tourist looks for means and ways to forget their everyday life at home. The *experiential* tourist seeks authentic experiences. For the *experimental tourist*, the main desire is to be in contact with local people and communities while the *existential tourist* wants to totally immerse themselves in the culture and lifestyles of their vacation destination.

### 2.4.1.3 Plog (1974)

Based on an empirical study, Plog (1974:55-58) divided the tourists into *psychocentrics* and *allocentrics*. The former are less adventurous and have preference for familiar destinations, whereas the latter are more adventurous and prefer exotic destinations. The *allocentrics* consider travelling as an opportunity to discover new cultures and to make friends with the locals. Between these two extreme categories are the *near psychocentrics* whose characteristics are close to the *psychocentrics*, these prefer popular destinations. The *psychocentrics* regard travelling as a symbol of status. The *midcentrics* occupy the central point on the continuum and their major motivators are the need for relaxation and pleasure. The *midcentrics* look for healthy, beautiful environments with comfortable accommodation and have a tendency of spending a lot of money on souvenirs. The *near allocentrics* are adventurous, are inclined towards sporting activities, seek challenging activities and travelling is a platform to experience new life styles. Plog (1974) linked types of tourists to specific destinations, for example, he claimed that American tourists are likely to visit Coney Islands, while *allocentrics* are likely to prefer destinations such as Africa. This illustrates that destinations are not competitive to all types of tourists and destination managers should make deliberate efforts to identify the type of tourists who prefer visiting their destinations.

While Cohen (1972) and Plog (1974) devised their theories from different perspectives i.e. sociological and psychographic, the theories tend to predict similar tourist behaviours especially that some tourists are adventurous and prefer contact with local people while others have preference for famous, safe destinations and comfortable accommodation.

#### **2.4.1.4 Perreault, Dorden and Dorden (1979)**

Perreault *et al.* (1979:208-224) devised a taxonomy based on an empirical research. Five groups of tourist were identified, these are the *budget travellers* from the middle income group, who seek cheaper vacations; the *adventurous*, who are educated affluent travellers with preference for adventurous activities in destinations; the *homebodies* are not venturesome but rather prefer relaxing, travel and spent little time planning their travel; the *vacationers*, a relatively minority group, less educated and have low incomes, they value the pre planning process and spent a lot of time thinking about their vacations and have preference for active holidays; and the *moderates* who lack active lifestyles, display a predisposition to travel but shun weekend travel or sports.

In comparison with Cohen's (1972) typology model, there is little similarity especially on how tourist relate with the host population. However, the idea that some tourists are venturesome, as suggested by Cohen (1972) and Plog (1974), is also evident in this typology.

#### **2.4.1.5 Studiebureau (1986)**

Studiebureau (as cited in Langenhove & Bollaert, 1992:21) carried out an empirical study in order to determine the behaviour and expenditure of tourists during their holidays. The author came up with seven different groups which are; the *active sea lovers* who desire the sea, the beach and sporting activities; the *contact minded holiday makers* who value hospitable reception in destinations, meeting new people including interacting with the local people; the *nature viewers* who have preference for beautiful landscapes and cherish hospitable practices from the local people; the *discoverers* who are adventurous, prefer interacting with the local people and also seek cultural holidays; the *family oriented sun and sea lovers* formed the largest group with interest in a variety of tourist offerings such as good food, beautiful scenery, kind reception, making time for each other and child friendly activities; the *traditionalist* value safety and security as the

most important conditions they look for in destinations; consequently they choose familiar destinations and activities in order to avoid uncomfortable surprises.

#### **2.4.1.6 Dalen (1989)**

Dalen (1989: 183-186) carried out a study on respondents' beliefs, attitudes and life objectives. Though the study was not directly linked to travel and tourism, the author came up with four distinct groups of travellers which are: *modern materialist* who seek pleasure through entertainment and partying. They show great interest in beverages than food and have a tendency of making good impressions about their travel back home. The *modern idealist* resents mass tourism and fixed itineraries and is motivated by the need for excitement and leisure but is more intellectual than the modern materialist. They seek a variety of experiences such as making good friends, art, culture and a favourable ambience and atmosphere. The *traditional idealist* prefers package tours with a bias towards cultural and historical products, preferring popular destinations which offer safe and quiet natural environments. They also visit friends and relatives and they demand quality products and services in destinations. The *traditional materialist* looks for low cost travel products and special offers. Safety in destinations is a major concern for this group. They travel on tour packages and are afraid of being left alone. The modern idealist and modern materialist are rather difficult to match with Cohen (1972) tourist types. However, the traditional materialist shares similar characteristics with the mass tourist.

#### **2.4.1.7 American express news release (1989)**

American express news release (1989) cited in Swarbrooke (2006:84), Langenhove and Bollaert (1992:23) carried out a study using 6500 respondents taken from United States of America, West Germany, United Kingdom and Japan. Five groups of travellers were identified, and these are: the *adventurous* that are generally young, well-educated and affluent and take pleasure in meeting new people and getting exposure to different

cultures. They are independent and confident travellers who desire to experience new activities. *Worriers* travel less, prefer domestic trips and are generally afraid to fly. They are concerned so much about safety, the females tend to dominate in this group.

#### **2.4.1.8 Smith (1989)**

Smith (1989) cited in Swarbrooke (2007:88) identified seven types of tourists which are: *anthropologists* who are found in relatively small proportions of the total travel population. The *elite* are experienced independent travellers who prefer tailor made tours. *Off-beat* tourists do not like mixing with other tourists. *Unusual tourists* go for organised tours but make independent side trips to experience local culture. *The incipient* have preference for established destinations. The *mass tourists* expect familiar things. The *charter tourist* shows no loyalty to destinations but prefers holidays which meet their expectations in terms entertainment, accommodation and food standards.

#### **2.4.1.9 Urry (2002)**

Urry (2002) cited in Swarbrooke (2007:88) suggested that the term post tourists should be used to refer to the contemporary tourist. The post tourist is an experienced tourist who can enjoy all kinds of tourism experiences, sees tourism as a mere game and accepts pseudo-events for what they are. Sharpley (1994) as cited in Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:88) argued that the concept of the post tourist nullifies the tourist dichotomy as suggested by the typology theories. By branding all tourists as one type Urry (2002) is reintroducing the concept of a homogenous tourist which was prevalent in the pre-Cohen (1972) era. While it is true that some of the tourists fit this description, it cannot be applied to all tourists globally because tourism participation trends and patterns have not been uniformed for all people across the globe. Some people have a longer history of involvement in tourism, while other people's participation in tourism has been relatively recent and may conform to the modern tourist rather than the post

tourists. As a result, there is still a need to conceptualise tourists using the typology framework.

#### **2.4.1.10 Wood and House (1991)**

Wood and House (1991) cited in Swarbrooke (2007:88) came up with the concept of a good tourist who respects the environment and values the host community. The identification of a good tourist implies that there is a 'bad tourist' whose behaviour is completely different from the good tourist.

#### **2.4.1.11 Wickens (1994)**

Wickens (1994:834-844), basing on his study of tourists visiting Chalkidiki Peninsula, devised five groups of tourist typologies which are: the *cultural heritage* tourist who has special interest in natural beauty, history and culture. Most tourists in this group tend to be family groups and older holiday makers. *Ravers* mainly comprise of young males who seek enjoyment through night life activities, clubbing and alcohol. They tend to look for low cost provisions and services and enjoy swimming and sunbathing. *Shirley valentines* are female travellers whose major motivation for travel is romance and sexual encounters with men from the host destination. Tourism to them offers an opportunity to escape from the usual life of domesticity. The *heliolatrous* are sun worshipers who like to spend most of their time in the open air. The *lord byrons* have a tendency of preferring specific destinations and can even use the same accommodation units year after year. They resent the negative impacts of mass tourism on their favourite destinations.

#### **2.4.1.12 Seery and Paris (2015)**

Seery and Paris (2015:2-5) came up with a three-dimensional Tourist Typology Predictor (TTP) model based on individual's venturesome, interactiveness, and level of sensation seeking. Eight tourist personality types were identified. The *Guided*

*Immersionists*, who desire to experience the culture but are either afraid or hire a guide to show them the cultural significant places. They prefer a more one-on-one/personal experience. *The Explorer Immersionist* takes pleasure in being “air-dropped” into a culture and literally leave everything about themselves behind in order to fully integrate themselves into that culture to experience it. They seek to escape from other tourists. They prefer travelling to remote village where they fully identify themselves with the community. The *Adventure Immersionist* have the same characteristics with the explorer immersionist and the guided immersionist, but they shadow preference for safe environs. *Groupie Immersionist* tourists enjoy traveling in groups and tend to choose locations that are tourist hot spots, but still would like to see how different cultures are. *Groupies Generalist* are the type of tourists that seek out other tourists and popular tourist locations that they themselves are familiar with and travel within a group. *Guided Generalist* are similar to the *Groupie Generalist*, as they prefer to travel to familiar environments, but are willing to try some new experiences on their own and take calculated risks. Weekend road trips to undetermined destinations are common practices for this category. *Explorer Generalist* are those tourists that are casual sky divers, scuba divers, and back country skiers. They enjoy challenging themselves but will never participate in over challenging activities. They consider themselves adventuresome but really prefer to stay in their comfort zone. *Adventure Generalists* are sociable and enjoy activities where everyone is involved and are willing to try anything once as long as there is some kind of safety system in place.

The tourist typologies/taxonomies theories examined above give clues on the preferences of the different types of tourists when they visit destinations. According (Leinfellner & Köhler, 2013:287), preferences provide information about people’s priorities and desires. An analysis of tourist typologies clearly shows the priorities and desires of each tourist taxa. Therefore, tourist taxonomies, by providing a framework which unpacks the preferences of tourists, give information which is essential in product development. Those destinations which are able to reflect the preferences of their target

markets are likely to enhance destination competitiveness, from the viewpoint of tourists.

### **2.4.2 An integrated framework of tourist typologies**

A close analysis of the theories reveals some similarities among the different categories (see Table 2.2). Plog (as cited by Langenhove & Bollaert, 1992:26) concluded that researchers appear to have come up with similar dimensions which they labelled differently. Similarly, Lowyck *et al.* (1992:26) noted that researchers have come up with very diverse names for different types of tourists and in most cases, types which are similar to each other are concealed behind these labels. The researcher has attempted to come up with an integrated framework of tourist typologies derived from the various typology theories as shown in Table 2.2. The realisation that the attributes have inherent similarities, despite having been developed from different perspectives and methodologies, motivated the researcher to come up with a framework which captures the major ideas that have emerged from the typology theories to date. While the researcher acknowledges that each category can have subsets as suggested by Wickens (2002:834), only the major groupings have been outlined below.

**Table 2.2: An integrated framework of tourist typologies**

<b>New Labels</b>	<b>Label Borrowed From</b>
Mass tourist	Cohen (1972)
Cultural-contact minded tourist	Studiebureau (1986); Wickens (1994)
Adventurers	American express news release (1989)
Economisers	Perreault, <i>et al.</i> 1979).
Recreational tourist	Cohen (1979)
Post tourist	Urry (2002)
Pleasure seekers	Author's compilation
Family oriented	Sturdiebureau (1986)

**Source: Author's compilation**

### **2.4.2.1 Mass tourist**

Cohen's (1972) 'mass tourist' characteristics are found in most of the typology theories. These include Plog's (1974) Psychocentric tourist, Smith's (1989) mass tourist, Stuidibureau's (1986) traditionalist, American express news release (1989) worriers, Dalen's (1989) traditional idealist and Seery & Paris' (2015) Groupie Generalist. The label 'mass tourist' is used to stand for the tourists whose characteristics largely resemble those of the mass tourist as suggested by Cohen (1972).

### **2.4.2.2 Culture-contact minded tourist**

The culture and the desire to get into contact with the host population are common themes emerging from the typology authors. Wickens' (1994) cultural heritage tourists, Sturdiebureau's (1986) contact minded, Cohen's (1979) existential, Smith's (1989) unusual tourist and Cohen's (1972) drifter can be grouped together based on the desire for culture and or the need to get into contact with the host population. The Explorer Immersionist by Seery and Paris (2015) also shows similar characteristics. The label chosen for such tourists is 'culture-contact minded tourist'.

### **2.4.2.3 Adventurer**

Adventure is a recurring theme in the following typology theories: the adventurer by American express news release (1989), the discoverers by Sturdibureau (1986), the explorer by Cohen (1972); the allocentrics by Plog (1974), adventure immersionist, Serey and Paris (2010), offbeat by Smith (1989), though latter is closer to the Cohen's drifter.

### **2.4.2.4 Pleasure seekers**

Pleasure seeking is one of the common characteristics featuring in the various theories. For example, the Dalen's (1989) modern materialist and idealist seem to have

hedonistic tendencies. The ravers and shire valentines by Wickens (1994) have also been put in this group because of their desire to seek pleasurable experiences.

#### **2.4.2.5 The economisers**

The fact that some tourists tend to go for cheaper services is also a recurring theme emerging from the typology theories. For example, the budget traveller by Perreault *et al.* (1979), the economisers, the traditional materialist by Dalen (1989).

#### **2.4.2.6 Post tourist**

Post tourist is a label chosen to represent the experienced tourist, this theme is also evident in Dalen's (1989) modern idealist and Smith's (1989) elite tourist. The good tourist can also fit under the post tourist label.

#### **2.4.2.7 The recreational tourist**

The recreational tourist as suggested by Cohen (1979) has been included in order to cater for those tourists who engage in physical activities largely for health and wellness reasons.

### ***2.4.3 The importance of tourist typologies/taxonomies***

The tourist typologies have multiple-functions, most importantly, they can be used to aid the decision process in many aspects of the tourism activity (Coccosis & Constantoglou, 2006:3). Similarly, Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:91) asserted that typologies contribute to decisions over product development, price and distribution. According to Wearing *et al.* (2009:25), the typology theories are relevant in tourism marketing where they assist managers in designing marketing strategies. Tourist typologies have also been credited for putting the study of tourism onto the academic agenda (Wearing *et al.*, 2009:24). More so they depict tourist as having diverse and

multiple characteristics, whilst earlier on they were being regarded as having uniform characteristics (Uriely, 2005:204). The fact that tourists are not the same implies that their needs are different. As a result, the existence of different types of tourists makes it imperative for destinations to provide products which match different characteristics of tourists. The tourist typology theory is also relevant in the formulation and achievement of the goals of sustainable tourism development (Coccosis & Constantoglou, 2006:110). This is because tourist taxonomies provide insights into the nature of impacts associated with each category of tourist types. In addition, taxonomies also assist in tourism planning and the development of an effective tourism policy. One can argue that it is a critical 'back stage' tool in the creation of competitive destinations.

#### **2.4.4 Criticisms of typology theories**

Numerous criticisms have been levelled against the tourist typology theories. Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:90) provided a comprehensive summary of the various flaws associated with the theories (Table 2.3).

**Table 2.3: Criticism of typology theories**

Typology criticisms
The typologies are too generalised and simplistic and cannot fully explain the complex patterns of touristic behaviour in real situations
The tourist typology theories are not flexible and dynamic and as a result cannot cater for the changes in tourist behaviour which can occur over time.
Most typologies assume that tourists have complete autonomy over what happens to them in destinations, yet in some instances the decision taken is a compromise between the tourist and other members of the group.
Some of the behaviour of tourists in destinations is influenced by the travel company and whatever decisions made may not be a correct reflection of individual's true desires or personality.
A lot of changes have occurred in terms of consumer behaviour and most of the influential typologies were proposed long back. These cannot be used to predict contemporary tourist behaviour given the new developments in the industry such as the widespread use of the internet, long haul travel, budget cruises etc.

Far less has been published on the type of tourists found in Asia, Africa and the Middle East. Research on these may yield very different results.

Most of the theories are presented as if they are universal, yet national and cultural differences influence tourist behaviour.

The prescribed preferences in the tourist typologies may vary greatly from the actual behaviour displayed by tourists in destinations

There are methodological criticisms of the typologies too, for example some commentators argue that some researchers have allowed their own value judgments to influence their work.

The typologies are too rigid to accommodate changes in tourist behaviour which is caused by aging and increasing experience in travel.

Most typologies do not give reasons as to why tourists behave the way they do and as such they are not very helpful

Some of the empirically based typologies suffer from methodological flaws as they relied on small sample sizes.

Most of the theories are presented as if they are universal, yet national and cultural differences influence tourist behaviour.

There are still many gaps in the typology literature. For example, little has been written about the business tourist

**Source: Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:91)**

In addition, Wearing *et al.* (2009:25) criticised the typologies, in particular Cohen (1972), on the basis that he neglected the viewpoint of the tourist. He also indicated that typologies are now out-dated because of their reliance on functionalist theories which are no longer fashionable. He added that typologies are culturally specific and that tourists do not perfectly fit into the proposed categories. The tendency is that tourists normally have behavioural characteristics which cut across the different categories. However, Wearing *et al.* (2009:25) noted that the theory was important in that it helped to put the study of tourism on the academic agenda. However, it should be noted that, as with most models, even in the scientific realm, it is not possible to come up with a model that provides a perfect match with reality. Tourist typologies/taxonomies provide a guiding framework for understanding tourist behaviour in destinations. The fact that

most of the theories display some common elements is evidence that typology theories have some credence.

Tourist typologies, though developed from various perspectives using different methodologies, were found to have common characteristics is arguably their strength. This illustrates that tourist typologies can provide a framework for unlocking tourist behaviour. Despite the many criticisms labelled against the use of tourist typologies in tourism, the practise of determining tourist characteristics and classifying them into homogenous groups, is academically sound and an essential business practise. The concept of tourist typologies, though developed without marketing in mind, can be used as one of the strategies for gaining insights into tourist needs and preferences. This would facilitate the development and or promotion of tourism products which appeal to the identified markets.

#### **2.4.5 *Tourist typologies and the post-modernist paradigm***

An analysis of literature (Jack & Phipps, 2005; McCabe, 2005; Uriely, 2005) revealed that the tourist typology theories belong to the modern paradigm which is criticised for relying on out of date functionalist theories. McCabe (2005:85) averred that conventional notions of touristic behaviours and attitudes are beginning to be disputed. Wearing *et al.* (2000:53) acknowledged the important role played by tourist typology theories in putting the study of tourism on the academic agenda but argued that these theories are now 'philosophically unfashionable'. There appears to be a paradigm shift in terms of conceptualising tourist experiences. According to McCabe (2005:91), contemporary thinking on the tourist experiences is now putting emphasis on 'subjective and negotiated characteristics over more reductionists and rigid notions.' However, Uriely (2005: 210) is of the position that post modernism forms of thought should not be regarded as a complete replacement of modernist thought. His argument is that the forms of knowledge from the new paradigm should be regarded as 'additions rather than a contrasting alternative to the logic of earlier works'. This suggests that tourist

typologies, while they have their own short comings, should not be completely disregarded but must be used to compliment new forms of thought. As a result, the post-modernist thought should not be seen as antagonistic but rather as a paradigm that is adding value both to the conceptualisation of the tourist experience and tourism as a discipline.

Using Bailey (1994) one can argue that typologies and taxonomies by virtue of being classification systems are critical in understanding the tourist characteristics and behaviour which are highly complex. Bailey (1994) averred that classification is the starting point of any conceptualisation process in the social sciences which reduce complexity or achieve parsimony in the social world. Tourist taxonomies, in particular, can partially address the rigidity associated with typologies since they are empirically derived. The tourist 'subjective and negotiated characteristics' (McCabe, 2005:91) can always be made current through updating them continually through empirical research. The latter is now much easier than before, in the era of advanced ICTs it is now possible to make real time tracking of tourist behaviour and preferences for the purposes designing customised products services and even marketing messages.

Tourist typology theories illustrate that tourists can be subdivided into homogenous taxa or groups with each taxon having unique attributes. This requires destination managers to respond by developing products and services that best match the needs of targeted segments. Consequently, this has ramifications for destination competitiveness. When most of tourist typology theories were constructed, little was done to link them to destination competitiveness. In fact, many of them were constructed in the pre-destination competitiveness paradigm. The section below focuses on the concept of tourist motivation which to a greater extent explains tourist behaviour.

## 2.5 THE CONCEPT OF TOURIST MOTIVATION

Backman *et al* (1995:15) defined, motivation as 'a state of need, a condition that serves as a driving force to display different kinds of behaviour toward certain types of activities, developing preferences, arriving at some expected satisfactory outcome'. Tourist motivation is a primary driver of tourist behaviour (Eagles, 1992; Fodness, 1994). Similarly, Mehmetoglu (2011:153) opined that motivation factors provide insights into tourist behaviour.

Various frameworks have been put forward in an attempt to provide insights into the concept of tourist motivation, the notable being those by Crompton (1979); Dann (1977); Plog (1974) (revised in 2001) and Pearce and Caltabiano (1983). The 'push-pull factor' theory of tourism motivation by Dann is arguably the most recognised theory in tourism research (Dolnicar *et al.*, 2012:100; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994:844). The push-pull model suggests that people travel because of internal forces which push them into making decisions to travel and are pulled to a destination by external forces of the destination attributes (Kim *et al.*, 2003:170; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994:844). Pull factors are those that emerge because of the attractiveness of a destination.

Tourists often have more than one motive for choosing a certain destination. For example, people can choose one destination with the motive of relaxation in a pleasant and safe place combined, with visiting a local historical heritage (Zhang & Marcuessen, 2007:6). The desire for rest and relaxation, health and fitness, knowledge or education, adventure, social interaction, family togetherness, prestige and sense of achievement are some of the internal related factors which push people out of their usual environments (Uysal, 2015:1). Meanwhile, pull factors are destination related attributes which attract tourists such as beaches, recreation facilities and cultural attractions (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994:844). The push pull model implies that there is need to match the push-pull motives in order to maximise tourist satisfaction.

Effective tourism marketing depends on understanding tourist motivations (Uysal, 2015:1). Understanding tourists' motives provide 'cues and insights' Crompton (as cited by Dolnicar, 2012:12) that enable tourism suppliers to deliver appropriate goods and services (Uysal, 2015:1). Tourist motivation assists marketers in product development, service quality evaluation, image development and promotional activities such as positioning (Fodness, 1994:556; Uysal, 2015:1). Further, Lickorish and Jenkins (1997:40) indicated that tourist motivations provide insight into why tourists visit destinations. Thus, motivations, to some extent, can be used to ascertain the factors which stimulate demand towards a certain destination. Kim and Prideaux (2005:355) indicated that 'once a destination manages to identify the primary motivations which underpin demand from specific nations, this facilitates the development of appropriate products for a given market'

According to the UNWTO (2007:36), the global tourism market can be classified into the 'old' established markets and the 'new' emerging markets based on motivations. The former tends to look for spiritual and emotional refreshment and personal fulfilment, while the latter tends to be more materialistic or hedonistic. However, the organisation noted that the characterisation is rather crude and simplistic, as there are some people in the established markets whose holiday motivation is quite hedonistic, materialistic and more devoted to physical pleasure than spiritual refreshment whilst some travellers from the newer markets may seek a more spiritually fulfilling type of holiday. Therefore, the use of a taxonomy framework based on tourist needs can yield more meaningful segments. However, in this study the taxonomies are primarily based on tourist preferences though the motivations for each taxon are also considered. The section below focusses on tourist preferences.

## **2.6 TOURIST PREFERENCES:**

Preferences refer to choices which tourists make in destinations in relation to destination products, services and even experiences (*Leinfellner & Köhler 2013:287*). Goodall,

(1990:45) noted that, Motivations initiate action, but the course of action which is selected or rejected, depends on the individual's preferences. Similarly, Pearce (1988) argued that tourist preferences are more specific and more important than motivations. Tourist preferences in this study are identified in the context of the typology theories. In Dwyer and Kim (2003)'s model of destination competitiveness tourist preferences are indicated as an integral component of the demand conditions which influence destination competitiveness.

Knowledge of tourist preferences and matching them with destination products and services creates customer satisfaction (Sun, 2017:43) through the delivery of the desired service (Tripathi, 2010:19). In fact, Dwyer and Kim (2003:398) argued that the actual visitation of tourist to destinations depends on whether there is a perfect fit between tourist preferences and perceived destination products. Similarly, Singh (2012:43) opined that tourist preference acts as an "important factor of destination competitiveness" and that there is need for destination managers to make supply-based decisions which are informed or guided by tourist preferences. Therefore, the ability to create products which match tourist preferences is an integral exercise which provides a basis for providing competitive products and services, thereby contributing to destination competitiveness. However, it must be noted that in reality a given destination cannot match the preferences of all tourists, hence the need to identify up with specific segments or taxa which best suit destination resources.

The section below explores the concept of perceptions which is related to the concept of image, which according to Dwyer and Kim (2003) is one of the three demand-based variables which determine destination competitiveness.

## **2.7 THE CONCEPT OF TOURIST PERCEPTIONS**

The term perception describes 'the process, by which an individual selects, organises and interprets stimuli in a meaningful and coherent way' (Moutinho, 1993:11), to do

something that makes sense. The perception of a situation at a given time may affect whether people will act and how. (Pinki, 2014:58). Perceptions vary depending on the context in which they are made. (di Marino, 2008:4 Matos, Mendes & Valle, 2012:113). di Marino (2008:4) identified different types of perceptions namely, 'a priori', 'in situ' and 'a posteriori'.

Perception 'a priori' is the mental construction a person develops before visiting the place. This implies that tourists would have mentally 'visited' a place before they physically visit it. Perception 'in situ' is where a tourist reconciles what they have imagined with experience. Tourists never arrive in a place without any pre-conceived image. Perception 'a posteriori' indicates that tourist experiences do not end with the trip, but continue to consume some elements in their daily lives. For instance, the role that photographs store memories of specific elements of a destination (di Marino 2008:4).

Consumer perceptions are vital to marketers and often underlie the success or failure of products in a market place. Swarbrooke (1999:155) asserted that tourist perceptions influence actual behaviour and that there is need to understand consumer perceptions about products, destinations, and types of holidays. It is also possible for tourists to be grouped according to their perceptions. The perceptions of tourists can be sought in relation to different features of the product or the destination its self. In this study the perceptions regarding the competitiveness of the destination are considered.

Tourists are heterogenous but they share some similarities (Dolnicar, 2008:3). This makes it possible for them to be classified into homogenous subsets based on their perceptions on the competitiveness of the destination. The section below explores the concept of competitiveness, the major theories on destination competitiveness and relate the latter to the concept of tourist taxonomies.

## 2.8 THE CONCEPT OF COMPETITIVENESS

The term competitiveness is a complex concept (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:57, Dimian & Dimanciu, 2011:67). The imprecision of the term is to a greater extent caused by the fact that it has been defined from various perspectives (Porter, 1990:127). The definitions of competitiveness can be classified into micro and macro level definitions (Meng, 2006:34). From a macro level, competitiveness is defined as ‘the degree to which a nation can, under free and fair market conditions, produce goods and services which meet the test of international markets, while simultaneously maintaining and expanding the real incomes of people over the long term’ (OECD: 1992:237). Scott and Lodge (1985:3) viewed competitiveness as ‘a country’s ability to create, produce, distribute, and service products in international trade while earning rising returns on its resources’. Competitiveness is also ‘about producing better goods and services that are marketed successfully to consumers at home and abroad’ (Newall, 1992:94). From a micro level i.e. firm level, competitiveness means meeting customers’ needs more efficiently and more effectively than other firms (UK government cited by Thompson & Ward 2005:3) Porter (1998:3) argued that ‘it is firms, not nations, which compete in international markets’.

Regarding tourism, the discourse on competitiveness in general economics and business literature neglects comparative advantage and puts more emphasis on competitive advantage (Wilde, 2008:468). Dwyer and Kim (2003:372) noted that the discussions of competitiveness in the general literature are useful in understanding the various determinants of ‘firm’ or ‘national’ competitiveness, but do not effectively address unique factors relevant in determining tourism ‘destination’ competitiveness. As such the tourism academics have given a variety of definitions and tourism specific models, in an attempt to come up with conceptualisations which are compatible with the tourism phenomena. However, Enright and Newton (2004:777) explained that destination competitiveness should have a broader perspective which goes beyond conventional destination attributes to include generic business factors of

competitiveness. The section below, therefore analyses the concept of destination competitiveness.

### **2.8.1 Meaning of destination competitiveness**

Contemporary research is giving prominence to destination competitiveness as a key factor in the success of the tourism industry. Kozak and Rimmington (1999:1) noted that competitiveness is the most important factor which influences the long-term success of destinations. Dupeyras and Maccallum (2013:6) argued that 'understanding country competitiveness is a major consideration for policy makers and a major challenge for professionals in providing evidence to inform decision making'. Similarly, Assaker *et al.* (2013:1) noted that an appreciation of destination competitiveness and its drivers is essential to tourism researchers and policy makers.

An analysis of the definitions on destination competitiveness reveals that they can be grouped into two categories. Some definitions focus on the end-goal of competitiveness, which has to do with the wellbeing of the residents (Bahar & Kozak, 2007:62; Ritchie & Crouch, 2000:1; Dwyer & Kim, 2003:56;). Others have a bias towards the immediate goal of destination competitiveness. Such definitions specify issues like the 'ability to maintain market share' (Hassan, 2000:23; Heath, 2003:9), the ability to produce attractive, value added goods (d'Hautesserre, 2000:2), the provision of quality tourism experiences which can satisfy the tourists (Enright & Newton, 2004:778). These definitions indirectly acknowledge the role which tourists play in destination competitiveness. For example, it is only from the demand perspective that destinations are able to ascertain whether their products are attractive and satisfying the tourists. One can argue that these definitions offer insights on what needs to be done to achieve competitiveness. As such, the definitions provide an important guiding framework for managers in their endeavours to create competitive destinations. Palatková *et al.* (2014:10) asserted that the tourist destination should be managed as a private company though with some exemptions. 'The micro environment, because of its proximity, and a

greater sense of immediacy, often occupies the attention of managers, due to the ramification for the destination's ability to serve visitors' (Ritchie & Crouch, 2010:1053). In this study competitiveness is examined in the context of a firm. The focus is on what the hospitality and tourism industry need to do to enhance destination competitiveness through the consideration of the taxonomies of customers.

### **2.8.1.1 Determinants of destination competitiveness: a review of the models**

Porter (1990) pioneered and popularised the use of models in conceptualising and gaining insights into the competitiveness of business entities. Porter's model on national competitiveness, though rooted in economics, acted as a spring board for the later models in various disciplines including tourism. Palatková *et al.* (2014:5) noted that Porter's diamond model of national competitiveness 'became the framework for the design of subsequent models, more or less based on it'.

Within the tourism industry, several researchers have investigated the various factors that impact on the competitiveness of destinations. Several models of competitiveness have been designed, notable of which are: Crouch and Ritchie (1999); Hassan (2000); Dwyer and Kim (2003); Vengesai (2003); Heath (2002); Enright and Newton (2004) and Caber *et al.* (2012). The models offer an essential framework which guides destination managers in their efforts to enhance destination competitiveness. Crouch (2011:28) noted that the models provide "some clarity and rigour to a complex management task". According to Dwyer and Kim (2003:407), the models of destination competitiveness allow managers to identify the relative strengths and weaknesses of tourism destinations.

The determinants of destination competitiveness are multi-dimensional (Assaker *et al.*, 2013:2; Dwyer & Kim, 2003:372). The models are included in this section so as to assess the importance which has been given by scholars on the role of tourist factors

or demand side conditions, as drivers of destination competitiveness. Below is an analysis of the models designed by various authors which illustrate the key drivers of destination competitiveness.

#### *2.8.1.1.1 Ritchie and Crouch's model*

Ritchie and Crouch (2000: 3-4), in building their model of destination competitiveness, borrowed ideas from Porter's (1990) model. The destination competitiveness factors were grouped into five key categories. The first is the *core resources and attractors* category, which comprise of natural and man-made attractions, including the super structure. The core resources and attractors in this model are regarded as the primary elements of destination appeal. The second category comprises of the *supporting factors and resources* such as infrastructure and accessibility, which enable a destination to create a thriving tourism industry. The third category is the *destination management*, which refers to various activities that are carried by destination management organisations to enhance the appeal of core and supporting resources. The fourth category is made up of the *qualifying and amplifying determinants*, such as crime level, government fiscal policy, exchange rates, among others. These have the potential to negatively affect competitiveness. The fifth category is *destination policy, planning and development*. The later was added in 2000, when the authors revised the model. While the model was described by Hudson, Ritchie, and Timur, (2004: 82) as probably the 'most comprehensive and most rigorous of all models', a close analysis shows that the model has a bias towards supply based factors. In fact, Assaker *et al.* (2013:3) noted that this model 'unduly neglected the demand factors'. However, it should be noted that while the model does not explicitly include demand factors, it does not entirely disregard them as determinants of destination competitiveness. Awareness and image, which are touristic factors, are included among other supply factors under the category of qualifying and amplifying determinants (Ritchie & Crouch, 2000:3). Given that the model does not give a holistic framework of the drivers of destination

competitiveness, one can argue that it is not very useful in cases where managers should be focussing on demand conditions as sources of competitive advantage.

#### *2.8.1.1.2 Dwyer and Kim's model*

Dwyer and Kim (2003:374-408) came up with an integrated model which is similar to Ritchie and Crouch's (2000) model. The model has five categories which are as follows: *endowed resources*, such as mountains, scenery, and cuisine; *supporting factors*, including infrastructure, service quality, and accessibility; *destination management*, such as marketing strategy and safety regulations; *situational conditions* such as crimes, industry structure, and world economic conditions; and *demand factors*, including awareness, perception, and tourist preferences. Armenski *et al.*, (2011: 21) indicated that the integrated model regards demand factors as one of the key determinants of destination competitiveness. The authors further stated that the model offers a more realistic display of the factors which influence destination competitiveness. Unlike the Crouch and Ritchie (1999) model, the integrated model shows mutual dependency of the factors.

Dwyer and Kim's (2003) model is the one which largely informs this study because of its inclusion of the demand dimension as a key component of destination competitiveness. The model gives relevancy to tourist factors as one of the key aspect which needs to be looked at when analysing and strategising how competitiveness can be enhanced from the tourist perspective. Dwyer and Kim (2003: 398) asserted that to develop a successful brand there is need for destination managers to fully understand their targeted customers.

#### *2.8.1.1.3 Heath's model of destination competitiveness*

Heath (2003:337-351), using the African experience, came up with a model of destination completeness whose structure is rather different from the preceding ones.

He conceptualised the determinants of destination competitiveness in the form of a house structure. The model includes four elements namely: *Foundations*, building blocks, cement and roof. The foundations provide the vital base for completeness and consist of key attractors such as “personal safety and health, enablers such as infrastructure, value adders such as location and value for money, facilitators such as accommodation and airline capacity, and experience enhancers such as hospitality and authentic experiences” (Heath, 2003:337). *Building blocks* comprise of integrated development policy and strategic destination marketing which make tourism happen in a destination. The *cement* category binds and links the different components of competitiveness and is made up of stakeholders, communication, partnerships and alliances, information and research as well as performance measurements that are connected to the respective components of competitiveness. The *roof* represents the ‘people’ part of destination competitiveness. Heath’s categorisation appears not to follow the conventional classification as is evident in the two preceding models in which similar characteristics are grouped together. Factors classified in one category are cross cutting, for example, ‘*foundations*’ consist of “key attractors such as personal safety and health, enablers such infrastructure, value adders such as location and value for money, facilitators such as accommodation and airline capacity, and experience enhancers such as hospitality and authentic experiences’.

#### 2.8.1.1.4 Vengesayi’s model

Vengesayi (2003:637-644) proposed a model of destination competitiveness and attractiveness which advocates for a dual approach when assessing and determining the competitiveness of destinations. Vengesayi (2003:637) argued that there is need to use an approach which accommodates perspectives both from the demand and supply side when evaluating the competitiveness of destinations. This implies that the demand dimension is one of the key determinants of destination competitiveness. Vengesayi’s (2003:640) model has four major attributes which are: *intrinsic destination* and a *mix of activities*, the *experience environment* involves both the physical and social environment

which affects tourist experiences in a destination, supporting services, this includes venues, accommodation transport and energy. Whereas *communication and promotion* relate to reputation, branding and pricing. The positive interaction of these attributes yields a competitive and attractive destination which will in turn, create a unique destination brand which is able to boost destination image, tourist satisfaction and organisational performance. This model is a causal in nature, it illustrates the determinants and how they are linked including the outcomes.

While, Vengesai (2003: 637) advocates for the need to include input from demand side in the evaluation of destination competitiveness, the author does not include the demand as a determinant of destination competitiveness as in the case of Dwyer and Kim's (2003) model but presents them as outcomes. For example, destination image is depicted as an outcome of competitiveness in this model, while in Dwyer and Kim (2003) model, image is part of the demand condition which influences destination competitiveness.

#### *2.8.1.1.5 Hassan's model*

Hassan's (2000:239-245) model has four major determinants which influence destination competitiveness, environmental sustainability being the cornerstone. The four attributes of destination competitiveness are '*environmental commitment, demand orientation, industry structure and comparative advantages*. In terms of environmental commitment, Hassan argued that it is necessary for developmental plans to be compatible with environmental and social integrity for the tourism industry to maintain its economic viability. Demand orientation refers to the country's capability to respond to the changing characteristics of the tourists. The comparative dimension encompasses such factors as climate, location, heritage etc., which are critical in determining market competitiveness. Lastly, industry structure is to do with the existence or nonexistence of organised tourism related industries that enable the destination to compete in the market place. Examples of such structures are banks,

telecommunications and health. Hassan's model depicts the demand dimension as an important determinant of destination competitiveness. In order for managers to effectively address the changing needs of tourists, there is a need to continuously identify the groups of tourists visiting the destination and define their characteristics in order to meet their needs and expectations.

#### *2.8.1.1.6 Other models of destination competitiveness*

This section briefly outlines the other determinants of destination competitiveness most of which were developed from 2004 onwards.

Newton and Enright (2005:339-350) propounded a model of destination competitiveness which has a broader scope adopting both the tourism-specific factors and those from the industry setting in which tourism operates. He came up with 37 business-related factors and 15 conventional factors to assess and measure the competitiveness. The model acknowledges the importance of consumer demand as a source of competitive advantage.

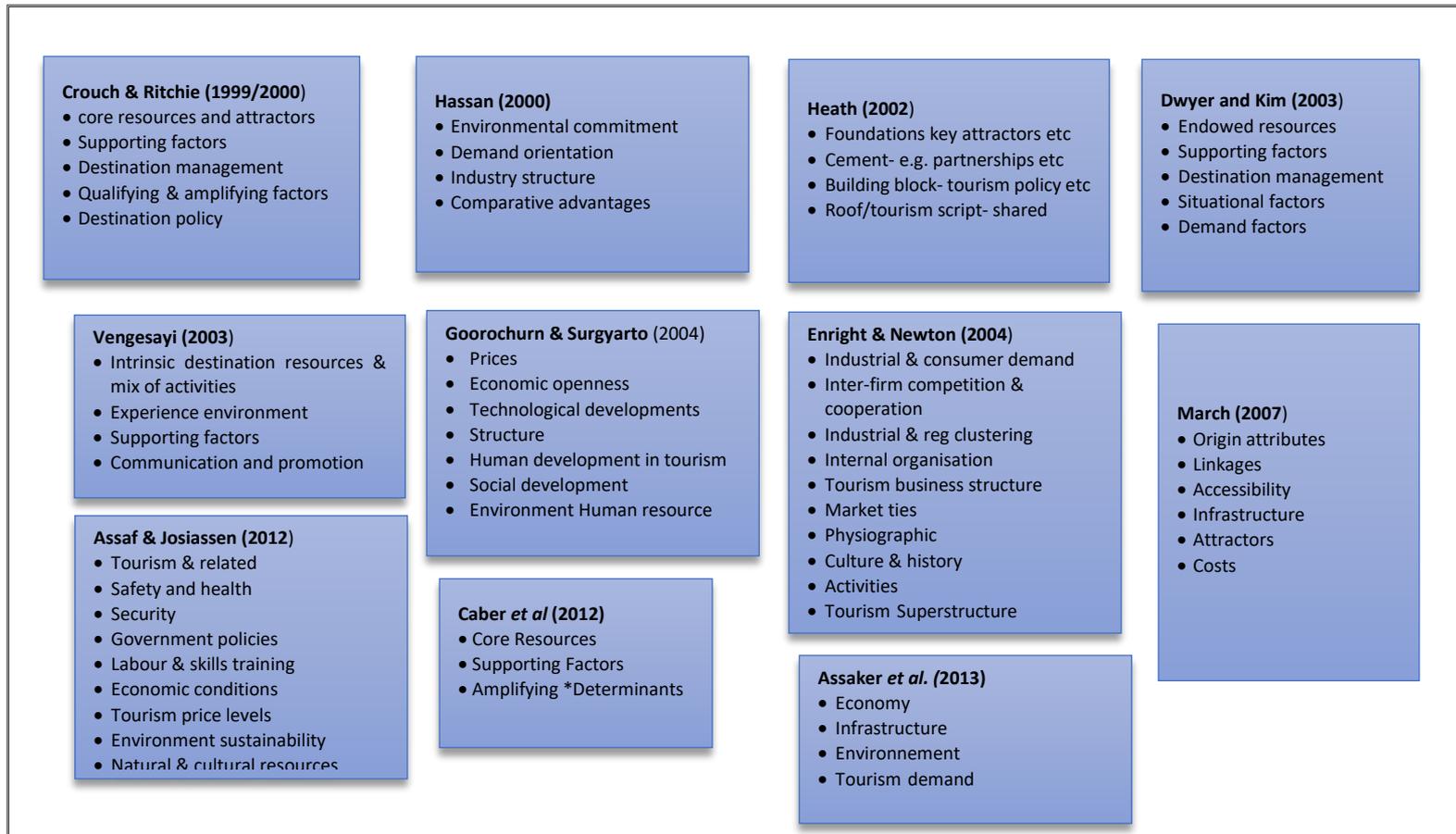
Assaker *et al.* (2013) used 17 of the original WTTC competitiveness indicators and grouped them into 4 key components which are the *economy, infrastructure, environment, and tourism demand*. This model is similar to Dwyer and Kim (2003), as it specifically acknowledges the demand side conditions as one of the important drivers of destination competitiveness. Assaf and Josiassen (2012), in a study in which they assessed the overall performance of 129 countries, proposed 30 determinants which they grouped into eight drivers of tourism performance. These factors are: *tourism and related infrastructure; security, safety and health, government policies, labour skills and training, economic conditions, tourism price levels, environmental sustainability as well as natural and cultural resources*. This model does not include the demand dimension as a driver of destination competitiveness.

Gooroochurn and Surgiyarto (2004:107) designed a model for evaluating destination competitiveness. The units of analysis making up the model are *prices, economic openness, technological developments, structure, human development in tourism, social development, the environment and human resources*. However, the demand dimension is not included in this model.

Caber *et al.* (2012:47) devised a three-dimensional model of destination competitiveness which is based on the micro environment only. In building the model, the authors borrowed ideas from Crouch and Ritchie (1999) and Enright and Newton (2005) models. The determinant attributes are *core resources, supporting factors, amplifying and amplifying determinants*. While Caber *et al.* (2012) model does not include the demand conditions as determinants of destination competitiveness, the authors used tourists' input to measure the competitiveness of destination using the revised importance performance analysis. This approach highlights the role of the demand side in destination competitiveness.

March (2004:5) proposed a model of destination competitiveness which is market oriented. He noted that the competitiveness of a destination is largely dependent on the destination's ability to attract a greater market share of visitors from its target markets than its competitors. The model comprises of a destination competitiveness inventory, which can be used to measure destination competitiveness. The inventory has six categories that collectively influence the consumer's decision process. These include firstly, *origin attributes*, which relate to the source markets and secondly, *linkages* which refer to economic, social and cultural or any other links that may exist between the destination and the source market. The third dimension is *accessibility*, which includes the number of gateways, visa requirements and speed through customs. *Costs* are the fourth category and this comprises all the expenses incurred by tourist to access and consume tourism products in the destination. The fifth factor is *infrastructure* which refers to a variety of facilities and processes which are required in order to attract and sustain visitation to a destination. *Attractors* that include a variety of natural and man-

made features of a destination which attract tourists to a destination is the sixth factor in this model. Figure 2.3 shows the major models of destination competitiveness.



**Figure 2.3: Major models on destination competitiveness**

In view of the above discussion on determinants of destination competitiveness as reflected by the models, it appears there is no general consensus among scholars on the importance of the ‘demand dimension’ in determining destination competitiveness. The demand dimension does not feature in all the models (see Figure 2.3). However, given the central role of the tourist in the tourism system, the demand dimension has an influence on the competitiveness of destinations. There is need to consider the demand side in any endeavour to come up with strategies to improve destination competitiveness.

### 2.8.1.2 A synthesised framework of destination competitiveness

After analysing the various models on destination competitiveness by (Crouch & Ritchie (1999); Hassan (2000); Heath (2002); Dwyer and Kim (2003); Enright and Newton (2004); Gooroochurn and Surgiyarto (2004); Assaker *et al.* (2013); Assaf and Josiassen (2012) and Caber *et al.* (2012), the author proposed a synthesised framework of the major determinants of destination competitiveness as illustrated in Table 2.4. What is clear is that competitiveness is a complex phenomenon, and the models developed so far are not entirely satisfactory (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:407). This explains why many models have been developed since the first by Crouch and Ritchie (1999).

**Table 2.4: A synthesised framework of the determinants on destination competitiveness**

<b>Determinants of destination competitiveness</b>	
<b>Supply side</b>	<b>Demand side</b>
Core resources and attractors	Preferences
Supporting factors	Image
Destination policy/planning	Awareness
Human resources	Motivations
Destination management	
Destination experience	
Information technology	
Stakeholder involvement	
Environmental commitment	
Situational conditions	
Costs	

**Source: Author’s compilation**

The factors shown in Table 2.4 have been given prominence by different authors. While most of the determinants in the framework are supply based, the demand dimension has been

included because it impacts on destination competitiveness. Four of the determinants shown in the framework were adopted from Crouch and Ritchie (1999, 2000). These factors are *core resources and attractors, supporting factors, destination policy, planning and development and destination management*. The latter is also part of Dwyer and Kim (2003) model. Meanwhile, Hudson *et al.* (2004:82) indicated that Ritchie and Crouch's model is possibly the most 'comprehensive and most rigorous of all the models' which, to a great extent, is a true observation.

*Environmental commitment* was adopted from Hassan (2000) model. The environmental revolution is partly being spearheaded by the consumer who is now looking for destinations which value the environment. From the supply side, the concept of sustainable tourism development is also top on the agenda. According to Heath (2001:346), the environment must be maintained and managed in a proper way in order to guard against undue deterioration. As a result, *environmental commitment* has been afforded a place in this framework.

The other factor included in the framework is the *destination experience* which is the 'the most fundamental product sought by tourists in a destination' (Ritchie & Crouch, 2000:1). Destination experiences are not the same for all destinations; a country can enhance its destination competitiveness by ensuring that the destination experience is next to none. *Information technology* has revolutionised the tourism distribution chain and accessibility of tourism products. As such, it has been included as a standalone attribute. Buhalis (2000:113) commented that taking advantage of new technologies and the internet can enable destinations to improve their competitiveness.

*Stakeholder involvement* has been included as an independent factor, though in most models it was bunched together with other factors. Stakeholder involvement is essential because the industry comprises of (author's compilation) different players, who collectively provide the tourism experience and, in some cases, these 'stakeholders have conflicting interest' (Buhalis, 2000:2). This requires destination managers to handle stakeholders with due consideration in order to give a seamless tourism product given that tourists regard the product in its totality.

*Human resources* development is increasingly being considered as a significant factor which influences destination competitiveness, (Heath, 2000:344; Dwyer & Kim, 2003:389). This is because competition among destinations is determined by skills and human resources (Bueno cited by Heath, 2003:344). The *cost factor* is also included given that costs, in relation to quality, are a key component of destination competitiveness because they influence travel decisions (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:397). The situational factors are the conditions in the operating

environment which can impact on the competitive strength of the determinants of destination competitiveness.

On the demand side, the factors most of the factors *image, preferences and awareness* were adopted from Dwyer and Kim (2003) model of destination competitiveness. However, in this study *motivations* were included because of the role they play in the appreciation of tourist behaviour. The aspect of tourist taxonomies has been included because each destination can only match certain types of demand (Buhalis, 2000:100). Similarly, Dwyer and Kim (2003:408) suggested the need to conceptualise destination competitiveness from the viewpoint of different types of tourists including their different travel motivations. It is not only important to establish tourist preferences and motivations but also to structure them in a manner that ensures a perfect fit and providing the most appropriate combination of local tourism products and services is the secret for successful destinations (Buhalis, 2000:103).

### **2.8.1.2 Strategies for enhancing destination competitiveness**

Yoon (2002:28) noted that the development of destination competitiveness strategies has not been thoroughly addressed. Crouch (2007:2), as well as Peng and Tzeng (2012:107), noted that literature on destination competitiveness focuses more on the measurement of destination competitiveness, with little being done on the identification of strategies for improving destination competitiveness. Meanwhile, an analysis of relevant models shows that several factors collectively determine the competitiveness of destinations (Assaker *et al.*, 2013:1). This implies that, strategies for enhancing destination competitiveness should take into consideration all the key determinants of destination competitiveness in order to come up with a holistic package, which creates sustainable competitiveness. Consequently, the current study is focusing on how the demand side, in the context of taxonomies, can contribute towards the competitiveness of destinations. Consideration of the demand side can provide clues on tourist-based strategies for enhancing destination competitiveness. This is especially important because the tourist is part of the production process.

The attention given to the concept of destination competitiveness, as shown by the existence of numerous models by various scholars, reflect the importance of competitiveness in determining the success of destinations. However, there is very little that has been done to assess and illustrate how the determinants can be used as sources of competitive advantage. The key role of the tourist in the tourism system makes it imperative for destination managers to consider the role of the demand side as a determinant of destination of competitiveness. This study is focussing on how the demand side, in the context of tourist taxonomies, can be

used to enhance destination competitiveness. The section below attempts to show the link between tourist taxonomies and destination competitiveness.

## **2.9 THE LINK BETWEEN TOURIST TAXONOMIES AND DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS**

The link between tourist taxonomies and destination competitiveness is based on the fact that the demand side is a key determinant of destination competitiveness (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). Meanwhile, Leiper (1979:366) averred that the major factors which stimulate tourist flows are located in traveller generating regions rather than in destinations. According to Vengesai (2003:638), failure to incorporate the demand side dimension in the evaluation of destination competitiveness provides an unclear picture on how competitive destinations are. He argued that the more a destination is able to meet the needs of the tourist, the more it is perceived to be attractive and the more the destination is likely to be chosen. However, destinations do not appeal the same to all tourists (Dwyer & Kim, 2003), making it imperative to determine tourist taxonomies and select those tourist segments which best match destination resources. According to Yoon (2002:3), the success of tourism development can be achieved depending on how well the supply component matches the demand side.

Tourist taxonomies, by giving insights into tourists' needs and motivations (Dey & Sharma, 2006:6), enable destination managers to develop products which can match the needs of tourists (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999:91). Destination managers need to organise the demand side into identifiable segments (taxonomies) to effectively and efficiently attend to the needs of the tourists. Dimoska and Trimcev (2012:286) argued that customer focus strategies enable destination managers to 'canalise' their resources and efforts to specific segments there by creating competitive advantages instead of focussing on the entire demand side. By so doing the destination managers can provide products which are more appealing. Dwyer and Kim (2003:369) asserted that the provision of products and services which appeal to the tourists enhances the competitiveness of destinations.

It must be noted that apart from Dwyer and Kim's (2003) proposal to consider destination competitiveness from the viewpoint of different types of tourist, existing literature does not explicitly relate destination competitiveness issues to tourist types (taxonomies). Therefore, the existence of this gap necessitated this study.

## **2.10 CONCLUSION**

The study reiterates that the tourist is the main actor of the tourism system, to the extent that some scholars define the tourist from a demand side perspective. This implies that efforts to enhance destination competitiveness should also include demand side dynamics. Tourist taxonomies, a framework which identifies tourist types, provides a platform for destinations to channel their resources and efforts to specific segments, which undoubtedly creates opportunities for improving the competitive positions of destinations. Meanwhile, a review of the models on destination competitiveness illustrates that the demand dimension is a key driver of destination competitiveness, though it does not feature in all the models. The multi-dimensional nature of the determinants of destination competitiveness calls for the development of a variety of tools for improving the competitive positions of destinations. Hence, this study sought to illustrate how the demand dimension-side dynamics in the context of tourist taxonomies, can be used to improve destination competitiveness using the example of Zimbabwe. Therefore, the next chapter focusses on Zimbabwe's tourism industry.

## **CHAPTER 3: AN OVERVIEW OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN ZIMBABWE**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Destination Zimbabwe lost its popularity at the turn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century due to a series of political and economic challenges that debilitated the competitiveness of the tourism industry. As a result, there is need for destination authorities to devise strategies targeted at enhancing the competitiveness of the industry. In order to formulate relevant interventions, there is need to examine the nature of the tourism industry and the dynamics that influence its operations. Therefore, the chapter examines the tourism industry's historical performance, its structure, the tourism product including its marketing, the source markets and the policy environment. The overall aim of the chapter is to critically evaluate the nature of Zimbabwe's tourism industry. In so doing, inherent gaps and challenges are identified, thereby justifying the need to carry out a study on how tourist taxonomies can be used to enhance destination competitiveness. The chapter concludes by giving a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) analysis of the tourism industry.

### **3.2 TOURISM PERFORMANCE IN ZIMBABWE: A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW**

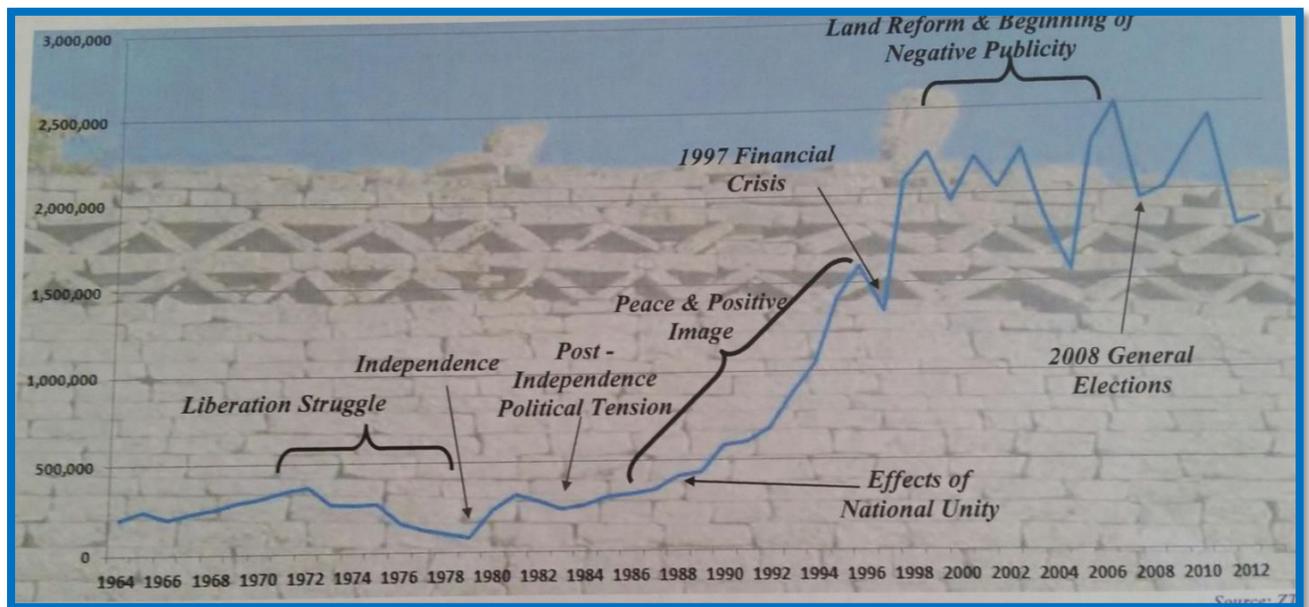
Zimbabwe is a landlocked country with a land area of 390 757km<sup>2</sup>, bordered by South Africa, Botswana, Zambia, Mozambique and Namibia. Agricultural land constitutes 85%, with the remaining area comprising of national parks, state forests and urban land (ZMDG, 2004:11). Tourism is one of the key sectors of the economy (Muchapondwa & Pamhidzai, 2011:71), and is one of the country's five strategic sectors for economic growth (ZIMASSET, 2013:20). The sector contributes significantly towards employment and foreign currency generation in the country (Rusike & Chitambara, 2012:2). In order to get a holistic picture of the industry in terms of its development and performance, the section below gives a historical overview of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe from the pre-second war era to the present.

#### **3.2.1 *Tourism performance in Zimbabwe***

The development and performance of Zimbabwe's tourism industry prior to the Second World War, was sluggish and the industry was largely operated by local individual entrepreneurs. The industry was mainly catering for the Rhodesian local white community and a limited number of South African tourists. However, the post Second World War period saw a significant increase in the number of inbound tourists due to improved micro and macro conditions. (Heath, 1986:29). The author, further stated that the growth of affordable foreign package

tours, increased wealth, shorter working hours and improved air passenger services promoted tourism mobility for the benefit of many destinations, including Zimbabwe. The establishment of the Federation government in 1953 (Baxter, 2011: 9) ushered in relative peace and economic stability, conducive for tourism development. In addition, the construction of the Kariba dam created a new tourist venue and local commercial companies became involved in the provision of tourism facilities (Heath, 1986:29).

The Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) in 1965, temporarily depressed tourist arrivals (ZTA, 2013:14), though the South African market remained resilient (Heath 1986:29). After the temporary set back, the 1970s saw a positive change on the country's tourism industry (ZTA, 2013:14). In fact, Child, Heath and Moore (1989:54) pointed out that between 1965-1972, the UDI and the UN mandatory sanctions did not affect tourist flows to the country. According to Irish and Hooper (1974:3B), tour operators continued to sell the country in their catalogues during the sanctions era. This partly explains why tourist arrivals continued to increase unabated. By 1972, tourist arrivals, both internal and foreign, reached highest recorded levels in the pre-independent Zimbabwe (Heath,1986:29). The industry's growth resulted in tourism becoming the country's second foreign currency earner (Irish & Hooper, 1974:3B). Figure 3.1 shows the tourist arrivals from 1964 to 2012.



**Figure 3. 1: Tourist arrivals to Zimbabwe 1964-2012 (Source: ZTA)**

However, after 1972 up to 1980 tourist arrivals from the international market were greatly reduced as a result of the intensification of the war (Child *et al.*, 1989:54; ZTA, 2013:14). Several hotels closed down, while others struggled along, hardly covering costs, or even running at a loss. Domestic tourism slightly improved because more tourists were now visiting within, having lost access to the cheap resort of Beira due to the dawn of independence in Mozambique in 1975. In addition, currency restrictions due to sanctions imposed on the country prevented the majority of local tourists from visiting South Africa (Heath, 1986:30).

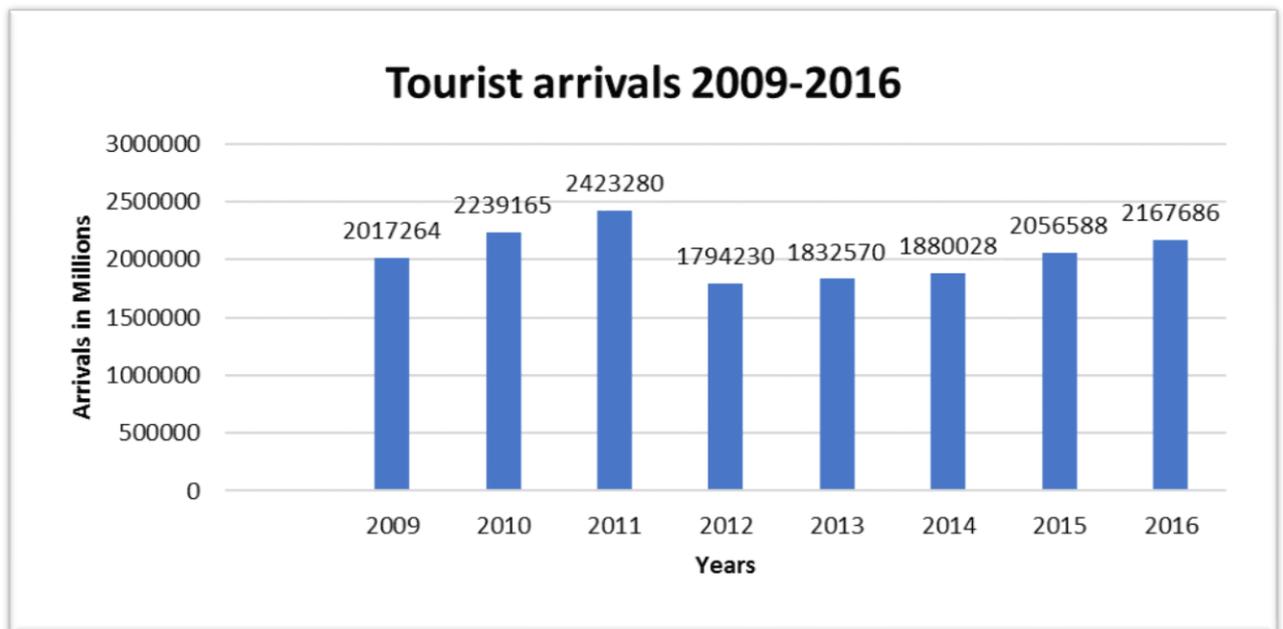
However, Independence in Zimbabwe brought renewed interest in the country's tourist industry (Abel *et al.*, 2013:46). Between 1980 and 1981 the number of tourists visiting the country substantially increased (Heath, 1986:30) though the figures did not surpass the 1972 record. The increase in the number of foreign tourists was short lived because of the post independence political tensions between 1982 and 1986 (Child *et al.*, 1989:56; ZTA, 2013:14). By the beginning of 1983 hotel bed-occupancy was running at 28-35 per cent, far below the break-even point (Heath, 1986:30). The killing of tourists in 1986 (CCJPZ, 1999:5; Child *et al.*, 1989:56) resulted in the near collapse of the overseas market because, Zimbabwe was seen as a dangerous country to visit. In addition, the large scale emigration by whites soon after independence condensed the domestic market and the vacuum was not immediately filled by the burgeoning black middle- and high-income groups (Heath, 1986:31). Fuel shortages, especially between the years 1982-1983, to some extent impacted on the performance of the industry (Child *et al.*, 1989:56).

The signing of the Unity Accord between the warring parties brought political stability in the country and tourists arrivals began to surge again into the 1990s (Child *et al.*, 1989:56; ZTA, 2013:14). During the decade 1989-1999, tourist arrivals grew at an average growth rate of 17.5%, whilst tourism receipts increased at an average annual growth rate of 18% in US\$ terms, the most rapid growth witnessed since independence. However, between 1999 -2000 the country experienced 11% drop in tourist arrivals and 38% decline in receipts (US\$) due to the deteriorating economic, social and political climate (ZTA, 2000:3), signifying the worst performance since independence.

The years from 2000-2009, were characterised by unstable growth in tourist arrivals largely as a result of the combined effect of unfavorable local economic and political conditions as well as the global economic crisis of 2008 (Imara, 2011:6). While the global financial crisis partially contributed to poor performance of the tourism industry in Zimbabwe, the political

instability associated with the Land Reform and the contested 2002 elections resulted in the country being perceived as an unsafe destination (ZTA, 2002:8). Imara (2011:6) averred that, “unstable political environments are a natural derailment to positive performance in the tourism industry due to safety fears”. The traditional source markets such as the USA, Japan and Germany issued travel bans and most airlines withdrew their services from the Zimbabwean route (ZTA, 2007:8).

The formation of the Government of National Unity (GNU) in February 2009 had an immediate positive effect on tourism performance due to improved political and economic conditions (Mutana & Zinyemba, 2013:96). Similarly, ZTA (2009:7) commented that the creation of the all-inclusive government and the subsequent lifting up of travel warnings revived Zimbabwe’s tourism industry. In 2010 and 2011 tourist arrivals continued on an upward trend, dropped off in 2012 and then picked up slightly in 2013 through to 2015. However, the year 2016 registered a modest growth of 5% but receipts drooped by 9% (ZTA, 2016:7). Figure 3.2 shows tourist arrivals since 2009. It is evident that the country is experiencing fluctuating growth in terms of tourist arrivals.



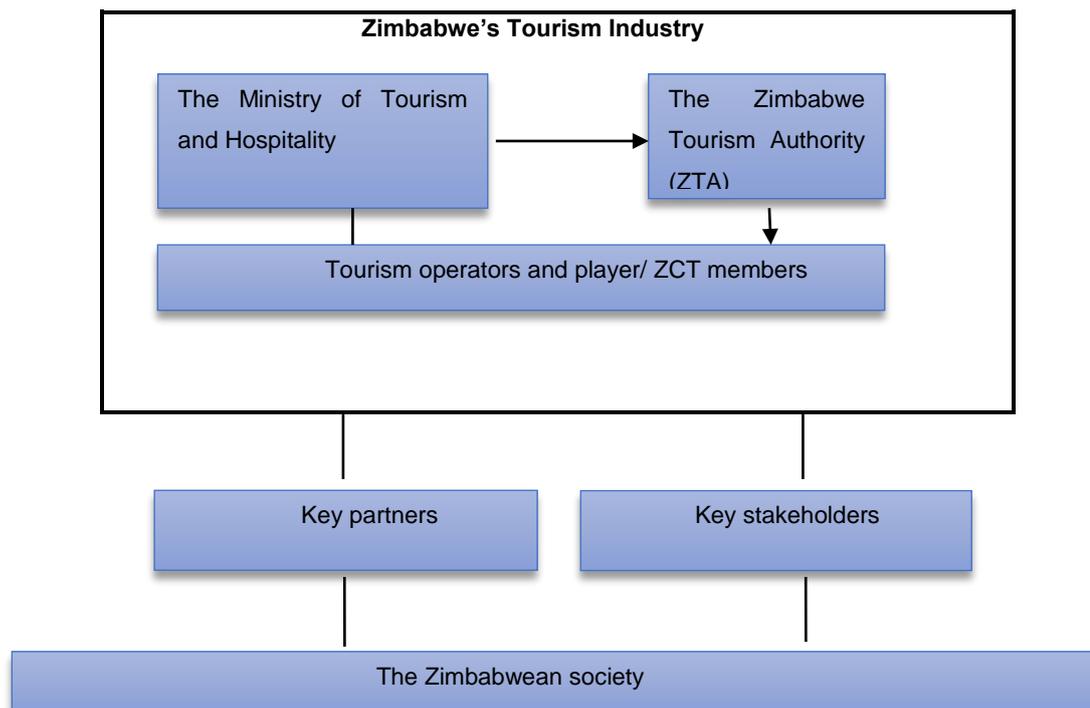
**Figure 3. 2: Tourist arrivals in Zimbabwe 2009-2013 (ZTA, 2016)**

The historical development of tourism in Zimbabwe reflects that the industry is highly volatile and vulnerable to economic and political happenings. As pointed out earlier on, the industry’s growth was largely initiated by entrepreneurs in response to demand for tourism services, with

the government trailing behind. This shows that the development of the industry was based on an ad hoc approach, with no deliberate attempt by the authorities to compliment the efforts of the entrepreneurs by putting in place sound planning laws and policies for the industry. Notably, the industry has been operating for more than 75 years without a tourism policy and master plan. The country's first tourism policy became operational in 2013 ( MTHI (Ministry of tourism and Hospitality Inustry), 2013:1) and the master plan is yet to be finalised. The section below focusses on the structure of the tourism industry in Zimbabwe.

### 3.3 THE STRUCTURE OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN ZIMBABWE

The tourism industry incorporates different sectors (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2004:274; Muhcina, 2008:278). "It cuts across conventional sectors, requiring inputs which are social, economic and cultural in nature" (Jefferson & Lickorish, 1988:785). In Zimbabwe, the tourism industry is government led, private sector driven and community oriented (Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry (MTHI), 2013:15). Figure 3.3 illustrates the structure of the industry.



**Figure 3. 3: The structure of the tourism industry (Source: Author's compilation)**

The industry, is headed by the Ministry of Tourism and Hospiatlilty, which has a Destination Management Organisation called the Zimbabwe Tourism Industry (ZTA) as its implenting arm. The private sector is represented by the Zimbabwe Council of Tourism (ZCT), which is an

umbrella body for all tourism service providers (Moyo, 2000:206). Meanwhile, the industry has many stakeholders and key partners.

The section below, looks at the role of the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality and ZTA, including two partners, namely the Zimbabwe National Parks and Wildlife Authority (ZNPWA) and National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe (NMMZ). These two organisations are the major custodians of the country's tourism assets.

### **3.3.1 The ministry of tourism and hospitality**

The tourism industry is currently administered by the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality which is a standalone ministry that was created in 2009. Prior to this and at different times, the industry fell under a number of ministries. In the pre-independence era, it was under the Ministry of Information, Immigration and Tourism. In the post independence era, it was housed in the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, which later became the Ministry of Environment and Tourism, and then the Ministry of Mines, Environment and Tourism, only to be replaced for the second time by the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MTHI, 2014:6). The role of the ministry of tourism and hospitality is summarised in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: The role of the ministry of tourism and hospitality**

<b>Overall functions of the ministry of tourism and hospitality</b>
Administer and control the tourism Act and its Statutory Instruments to ensure compliance.
Develop, implement and review tourism policies and legislation in consultation with stakeholders
Oversee the development, implementation and review of the National Tourism Master Plan and Tourism Development Strategies
Monitor and co-ordinate policies governing the operations of Zimbabwe Tourism Authority ZTA
Coordinate and implement international tourism policies, programmes and protocols with regard to the United Nations World Tourism Organisations (UNWTO), World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) and environmental organisations and other relevant international bodies
Co-ordinate and implement all regional economic communities (REC) blocs and tourism projects and programmes e.g. Southern African Development Community (SADC) Regional
Tourism Organisations of Southern Africa RETOSA, COMESA, East African Community (EAC) and African Union (AU)

Co-ordinate joint commissions on bilateral and multilateral matters pertaining to tourism and develop agreements, protocols, MOUs, etc. on tourism co-operation
Supervise, co-ordinate and liaise with regional and overseas tourism offices, and embassies with regard to tourism development issues
Overall supervision of the registration and grading of hotels, lodges, travel agents, tour operators, tour guides and other designated tourism facilities (DTFs)
Overall supervision and monitoring of standards of all tourism facilities, and ensure that the tourism and hospitality industry comply with international standards and statutes.
Identify and develop tourism products and projects in the communities and provinces e.g.  Community Based Tourism Projects (CBTs) heritage and historical sites, e.t.c.
Oversee research and planning of the whole tourism industry in the country including the physical development of both infrastructure and superstructure related to this industry in consultation with stakeholders.
Facilitate the production and processing of the national tourism statistics and keep up to date information on all trade organisations and projects for the ministry's database.
Develop a ministerial web portal, ensure effective internet access to the ministry and its branches countrywide, and facilitate the gathering of website content and its constant up-date

**Source: Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality (2014:10)**

Abel *et al.* (2013:13) noted that the changes that were effected in terms of the ministerial location of the industry over the years reflected the general thinking within government on the role of tourism in economic development. For example, before independence the industry was partnered with the information sector because tourism was used as a propaganda tool. In 1982 the industry was amalgamated with natural resources and this was motivated by the realisation that the sustainability of the tourism industry is dependent upon the conservation of natural resources. However, the fact that the industry is currently run by a standalone ministry is an indication that tourism is regarded as a critical player in the national economy (MTHI, 2013:6). The next section focusses on the role of ZTA which is the Destination Management Organisation (DMO).

### 3.3.2 The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA)

ZTA is responsible for implementing the vision and strategic plans of the ministry (MTHI, 2014:6). It is responsible for the promotion, planning and development, research and enforcement of standards and services (ZTA, 2015:1), as explained in Table 3.2. Prior to independence, the tourism industry was run by the Rhodesia National Tourist Board (RNTB) under the Ministry of Information, Immigration and Tourism. Upon attainment of independence the RNTB was replaced by the Zimbabwe Tourist Board (ZTB). This new board was responsible for both regulatory and commercial operations. The Tourism Act of 1975 was amended in 1984, paving way for the creation of a parastatal, the Zimbabwe Tourist Development Cooperation (ZDTC). The organisation was responsible for the promotion and management of the destination (Abel *et al.*, 2013; Ndoda, 2010:66). The organization was dissolved due to a myriad of challenges mainly relating to funding and the inconsistencies resulting from the fact that it was both a service provider and a regulator. It was replaced by the ZTA, created through the Tourism Act of 1996 chapter 14:20 (Abel *et al.*, 2013:14).

**Table 3.2: Functions of the ZTA**

The role of Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA)
To promote Zimbabwe as a destination for tourists, and to promote the tourist industry in overseas, regional and domestic markets;
To develop marketing skills and initiatives within the tourist industry;
To promote high standards in the tourist industry through the establishment of standards, training and human resource development;
To register and grade designated tourist facilities;
Market research and the development of a tourism database
To promote awareness in Zimbabwe of the benefits of tourism;
To provide consultancy and advisory services in relation to tourism;
To investigate and make recommendations to the Minister on any matter affecting the tourist industry and the administration of this Act;

**Source: Tourism act chapter 14:20**

Commenting on the operations of the parastatal and the parent ministry, Abel *et al.* (2013:24), indicated that there is no proper coordination and role clarity between the MTHI and the ZTA. For example, both are represented separately in each region and there appear to be a

duplication of roles. The ZTA, is perceived by stakeholders as a sleeping giant. The organisation, in self-introspect, acknowledged that it requires a strong leadership and should follow sound business principles driven by strategy and not the other way around (ZTA, 2007:28).

### **3.3.3 The Zimbabwe Council of Tourism**

The private sector is a vital component of Zimbabwe's tourism industry (MTHI, 2013:15). The Zimbabwe Council of Tourism (ZCT) is an umbrella body for tourism service providers which was formed in 1992. The ZCT represents the entire scope of Travel and Tourism enterprises, ranging from operators of retail travel agencies, safari and hunting operators to car rental and activities companies. The organisation aims to advocate for the creation of an enabling environment for the growth of tourism (Moyo, 2000:206). The affiliate members of the ZCT are organized into sub-sectors associations as follows:

1. AZTA – the Association of Zimbabwe Travel Agents
2. BAR – Board of Airline Representatives
3. BOAZ – Boating Association of Zimbabwe
4. HAZ – Hospitality Association of Zimbabwe, incorporating CEAZ – the Catering Employers Association of Zimbabwe
5. ITOZA – Inbound Tour Operators of Zimbabwe Association.
6. SOAZ – Safari Operators Association of Zimbabwe, incorporating ZPHGA – The Zimbabwe Professional Hunters and Guides Association
7. ZIVRA – Zimbabwe Vehicle Rental Association

The ZCT acts as a national voice on all issues that affect the industry and its members. In so doing, the organisation is able to contribute towards a quality and competitive tourism industry in the country (ZCT, 2015:1). While, the ZCT is an association of private players, there are other stakeholders and partners for the industry.

In addition, the ZCT acts as a national voice on all issues that affect the industry and its members. In so doing, the organisation is able to contribute towards a quality and competitive tourism industry in the country (ZCT, 2015:1). While, the ZCT is an association of private players, there are other stakeholders and partners for the industry, most of which are parastatals.

### 3.3.4 Key stakeholders and partners

Tourism is a highly collaborative industry whose success is dependent on all stakeholders and industry partners. Table 3.3 indicates the key stakeholders and industry partners. However, only two industry partners, which are custodians of most of Zimbabwe's tourism resources, are analysed in section 3.2.4.1 and 3.2.4.2.

**Table 3.3: Key industry stakeholders and partners (as of 2007)**

Key stakeholders	Industry partners
Ministry of foreign affairs	Ministry of environment and tourism
Ministry of finance	Ministry of information and publicity
Ministry of transport and communications	Reserve bank of Zimbabwe
Ministry of local government, public works and urban development	Tourism operators
Ministry of land, land reform and resettlement	Air Zimbabwe
Ministry of home affairs	Civil aviation authority of Zimbabwe
Ministry of education sport and culture	National handling services
Ministry of energy and power development	Parks and wildlife management authority
Zimbabwe revenue authority	National museums and monuments of Zimbabwe
Department of immigration	Media
Zimbabwe public police	Forestry commission
Zimbabwe national statistical agency	Other airlines
Environmental management agency	
National oil company of Zimbabwe	
Posts, telecommunications and regulatory authority in Zimbabwe	
Confederation of Zimbabwe's industries	
Zimbabwe national chamber of commerce	

**Source: ZTA (2007)**

#### 3.3.4.1 The Zimbabwe National Parks and Wildlife Authority

The Zimbabwe National Parks and Wildlife Authority (ZNPWA) is responsible for conserving Zimbabwe's wildlife and wilderness resources, by managing National Parks, Protected Areas and other state-owned land (<http://www.zimparks.org>). According to the Parks and Wild Life Act (20 of 1975), the mandate of the parastatal is to: control, manage and maintain national parks, botanical reserves and botanical gardens, sanctuaries, safari areas and recreational parks. Child *et al.* (1989), stated that the then Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management is one of the country's major tourist organisations. The role of ZNPWA plays a

significant role in the country's tourism industry. The country's national parks receive most of the tourists visiting Zimbabwe. ZNPWA also provides visitor accommodation and has lodges, cottages and campsite facilities for visitors on its properties throughout Zimbabwe (Child *et al.*, 1989:53; ZNPWA:1). The organisation provides accommodation to tourists as a way of raising money for conservation purposes and tourism functions are secondary (Child *et al.*, 1989:53).

#### **3.3.4.2 The National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe**

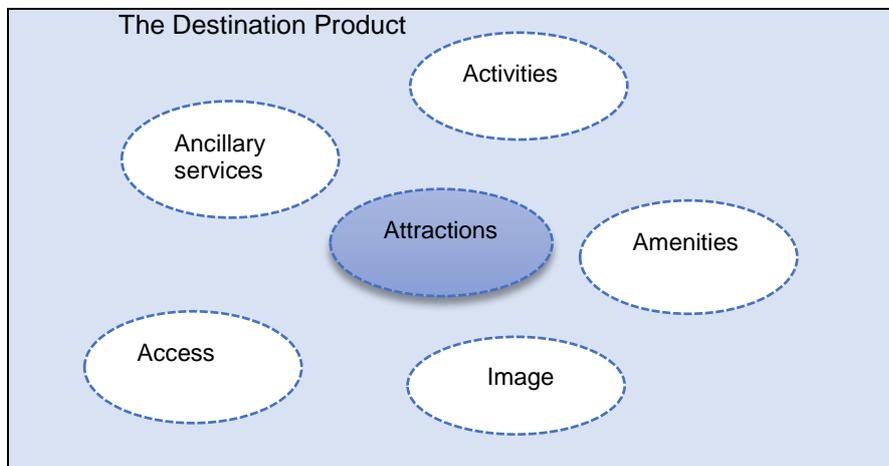
The National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe (NMMZ) is a heritage institution, established under an Act of Parliament the National Museums and Monuments of Rhodesia Act (25 of 1972). According to this act, the mandate of the agency, is to preserve ancient, historical and natural monuments, relics and other objects of historical or scientific value or interest (The Museums and Monuments Act, Chapter 25:11:3). Most of the heritage resources which fall under this parastatal are major tourist attractions and the Great Zimbabwe is one such example. The section below focusses on the key tourist attractions in the country.

### **3.4 THE DESTINATION PRODUCT: ZIMBABWE**

A product is "anything that can be offered to a market place for attention, acquisition, use consumption that may satisfy a want or a need. It involves physical objects, services, persons, organisations, places and ideas" (Kotler, Burton, Dean, Brown & Armstrong, 2015:276). With reference to the tourism product, Jefferson and Lickorish (1988:211) defined it as a "collection of physical and service features together with symbolic associations which are expected to fulfil the needs and wants of the buyer". Similarly, Divisekera (2003:36) describes the tourism product as a bundle of goods and services. Butler (2011:4), asserted that tourist destinations are essentially products which are developed and modified to meet the needs of specific markets.

While there is a general consensus that the tourism product is a composite product (Abel *et al.*, 2013:1; Buhalis, 2000:2; Smith, 1994:582) there is no agreement in terms of its constituent parts. Smith (1994:582) identified five components which make up the tourism product namely, the physical plant, services, hospitality, involvement and freedom of choice. Bennet (cited in Ndoda 2010:78) opined that a tourism product comprises of attractions, facilities, accessibility, price and image, while the (UNWTO 2007:4) identified attractions, amenities, accessibility, human resources, image and price as the elements of the destination product. Meanwhile, Buhalis (2000:2) provided a framework for analysing the destination product comprising attractions, amenities, access, activities, available packages and ancillary services thus

implying that these components make up the destination product. What is evident from the views of the above authors is that the tourism product comprises of both tangible and non-tangible features. In this study, the destination is conceptualised in terms of attractions, amenities, accessibility, activities, ancillary services and image as shown in Figure 3.4.



**Figure 3. 4: The destination product (Author’s own compilation)**

According to Seaton and Bennet (1996:382), a destination can be regarded as a single product able to produce many other smaller products. This section focusses on the components of the tourism product.

### **3.4.1 Attractions**

Attractions constitute an integral component of the tourism system and the other components owe their existence to the presence of the attractions (ZTA, 2007:15). Pearce (1991:46) defined an attraction as a named site with specific human or natural feature which is the focus of visitor and management attention. Meanwhile, Middleton (1994:23) opined that an attraction is a “designated permanent resource which is controlled and managed for the enjoyment, amusement, entertainment of the visiting public”. Attractions play a crucial role in the success of tourism destinations. These two definitions do not directly cover events as attractions. According to Leask (2010:156), the boundaries of the definitions of attractions remain blurred as some authors dispute the inclusion of events because of their lack of permanency and that they do not occupy a specific geographic site.

Swarbrooke (2002:3) classified tourist attractions into four types namely, natural attractions, man-made purpose built attractions, man-made not purpose built attractions and events.

Table 3.4 shows the types of Zimbabwe’s major tourist attractions using Swarbrooke’s (2003) typology.

**Table 3.4: Major tourist attractions in Zimbabwe**

Natural attractions	Man-made not purpose built	Man-made purpose built	Events
1. Wildlife 2. Victoria Falls 3. Eastern Highlands	4. Zimbabwe Ruins 5. Kariba	6. None	7. Hifa 8. Harare carnival 9. Sanganai/Hlanganani World Travel Expo 10. International Trade Fare ZITF.

**Source: Author’s own compilation**

Zimbabwe does not have tourist features primary built for tourism purposes as shown in Table 3.4. However, given the vulnerability of the natural based tourism products to environmental degradation and climate change, its high time the country considers establishing man-made purpose built attractions.

Generally, tourism attractions in Zimbabwe heavily rely on natural and heritage resources. The natural resources include wildlife, water, wilderness areas, water bodies and landscapes (Abel *et al.*, 2012:15; Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources Management (ENRM), 2010:39). In addition to the natural resources, the destination has unique cultural traditions such as food, art, music, dance and local customs, some of which have not been fully exploited for tourism (ZTA, 2007:43). Zimbabwe hosts 5 United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) Natural World Heritage sites namely the Victoria Falls, Matopos National Park, Mana Pools National Park, Great Zimbabwe and Khami Ruins (Rusike & Chitambara, 2012:2).

The country also has a number of community based tourism projects, mainly the Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE), (Abel *et al.*, 2013:10-11). Figure 3.5 is a matrix of Zimbabwe’s potential and current tourist attractions.



**Figure 3. 5: Matrix of tourism attractions in Zimbabwe Source: (ZTA, 2007:43)**

While the above list is reflecting a variety of attractions, the problem is that the ZTA tends to concentrate more on promoting the established attractions at the expense of less known ones (Mirimi *et al.*, 2013:2162) yet the country's tourism product is limited (Manwa, 2003:5; ZTA, 2007:27). Similarly, Golden *et al.* (1997:6) indicated that the absence of a coastline excludes the sun, sea and sand tourism related products. As a result there is need to widen the product offering through the development and promotion of the tourist attractions indicated above (Table 3.4) as 'not well-developed. Notably, the not so well developed attractions far out number the well developed ones, an indication that the country has numerous and wide ranging tourism resources.

Environmental challenges are compromising the quality of Zimbabwe's tourism product, given that it heavily relies on the natural environment. According to the ZIMASSET (2013:24), the country has abundant natural resources, but continues to experience numerous environmental management challenges that include, pollution, poor waste management, deforestation, land degradation, veldt fires, poaching and biodiversity loss. More so, the country is also vulnerable to perennial droughts and floods related to climate change. One can argue that, heavy reliance on natural resources can spell doom for the future of the industry because of increasing climate change and variability. Zimbabwe is now experiencing more hot days than cold days with mean surface temperatures having increased by 0.4 degrees Celsius between 1900 and 2000 (MEWC, 2013:1).

### **3.4.1.1 Natural attractions**

This section focusses on some of the key natural attractions which generate demand for tourism in the country, namely wildlife, the Victoria Falls, the Eastern Highlands.

- *Wildlife*

Much of Zimbabwe's tourism is based on wildlife (Child *et al.*, 1989:53; Goodwin, Kent, Parker & Wallpole, 1997:5; Manwa, 2003:45; ZTA, 2007:30), with the national parks receiving most of the tourists (ZMDG, 2004:11). Wildlife is so important in the country's tourism such that, even Victoria Falls, the country's most popular attraction, is located in a national park (Goodwin *et al.*, 1997:5). The country has 11 national parks, 16 safari areas, 6 sanctuaries, 15 recreational parks and 15 botanical gardens (Goodwin *et al.*, 1997:5; Heath, 1986:). The major national parks include Hwange, Gonarezhou, (which is also part of the Great Limpopo Trans-Frontier Conservation Area GLTFCA), Matopos, the Zambezi, Nyanga, and Mana pools (a designated World Heritage Site). Wildlife in Zimbabwe comprises of the big five and large

groups of the endangered African Wild Dog (Chikuta, 2015:70; Rusike & Chitambara, 2012:2). The country also has a number of conservancies where sport hunting activities are carried out. There is no formal definition of conservance in Zimbabwe but it is used to refer to wildlife management on private land (Godwin *et al.*, 1997:108).

Some of Zimbabwe's national parks are part of the Trans-Frontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs). The TFCA initiative, pioneered by the Peace Parks Foundation, seeks to facilitate the establishment of a network of cross-border conservation areas, by consolidating major nature parks in Southern African countries. There are currently 14 TFCAs in Southern Africa (RETOSA, 2010:23).

- *Victoria Falls*

The Victoria falls is one of the world's major natural wonders and is (arguably) the country's major tourist attraction (Child *et al.*, 1989:72), especially for international tourists (Heath 1990:7). It is found along the Zimbabwe-Zambia border making it a shared attraction. Apart from being a spectacular feature, the Falls are associated with a number of adventure activities such as bungee jumping, canoeing, white water rafting, among others. Since the Victoria Falls is situated within a national park, it is also associated with wildlife tourism related activities such as elephant rides, walking with lions and game viewing among others (Heath 1990:9; Abel *et al.*, 2013:10-11). The Victoria Falls can be regarded as the most unique tourism product offered in Zimbabwe (ZTA, 2007:29).

- *The Eastern Highlands*

The Eastern Highlands present a completely different Zimbabwe, with a cool temperate climate (Rusike & Chitambara, 2012:2). The major attraction in the Eastern Highlands is the scenery comprising of three distinct mountains (Vumba, Chimanimani, Inyangani), as well as streams, hot springs, rich vegetation, wildlife and unique culture. Chimanimani and Inyangani are the largest mountains in the country. The major activities include game viewing, bird watching, casinos, golf and hiking. The major problem with this resort area is that it is not serviced by scheduled flights (<http://zimbabwe.com/location/eastern-highlands/>).

### **3.4.1.2 Man-made attractions**

The major man-made attractions in Zimbabwe, though not purpose built, are the Great Zimbabwe monuments and the Kariba dam.

- *Great Zimbabwe Ruins*

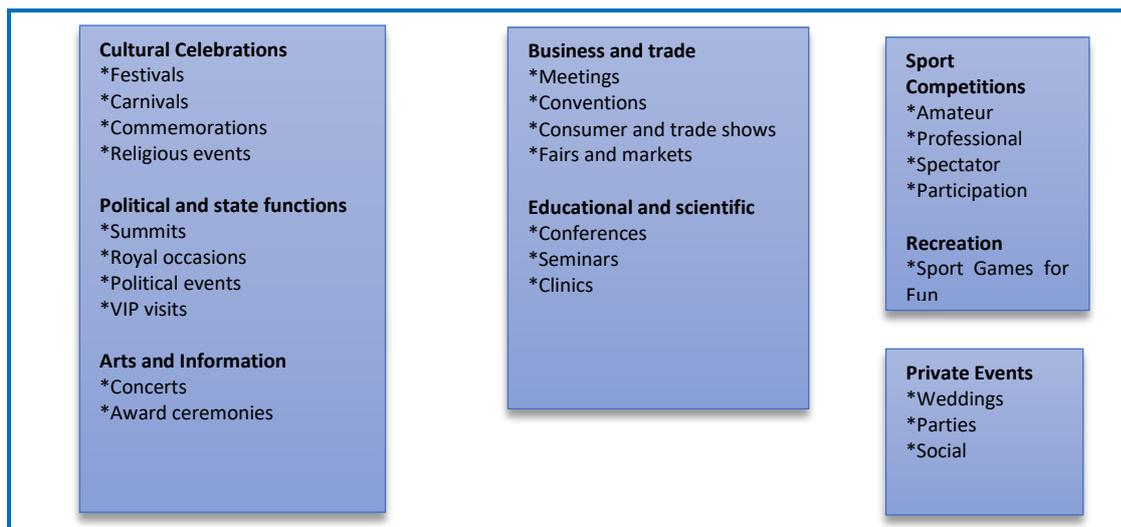
The Great Zimbabwe monument is a stone built structure, after which the country is named. The monument is rated as the second largest stone building in Africa, after the pyramids of Egypt. The structure was built in the sixteenth century and it formed the headquarters of the Munhumutapa Empire which thrived between the 16th and 17th century. There are other smaller monuments in different parts of the country, the Khami Ruins being one of the notable ones (Abel *et al.*, 2013:11). Godwin *et al.* (1997:8) claimed that outside tour operators pointed out that most long haul tourists visiting Southern Africa are eager to have cultural and social experiences. In that vein, Zimbabwe should come up with unique products probably based on its culture and heritage in order to create competitive advantage in the region.

- *Kariba Dam*

The Kariba dam is a bi-national project between Zimbabwe and Zambia, primarily built for power generation though it has attracted a variety of tourism activities such as fishing (Heath, 1990:10; Scudder, 2005:1). Lake Kariba is among the four largest man-made lakes in the world and the second largest in Africa. Kariba is home to numerous species of flora and fauna and is an exciting and unique safari destination (ZimParks, 2015:1). It is also the venue for the famous annual tiger fishing competition and the opening of the flood gates (Heath, 1990:10; Machena & Mabaye, 1987:11).

### **3.4.1.3 Events**

Events are defined as “formal periods or programmes of pleasurable activities, entertainment or events having a festive character and publicly celebrating some concept, happening or fact” (Janiskee, 1980:97). This definition appears biased towards pleasure related events. However, Getz’s (2008:404) inventory of events is broader, classifying events into eight different types as shown in Figure 3.6.



**Figure 3. 6: Types of events (Source: Getz, 2008:404)**

Zimbabwe has a number of annual events which include sporting competitions, fairs and expos, arts and music festivals (Zimbabwe Events Guide, 2014:1). The analysis of the annual events calendar (World Guides, 2015:1) shows that the major events in the country can be classified into business and trade, arts and cultural celebrations as well as sporting competitions. The arts and cultural events include the Harare International Festival of Arts (HIFA) and Harare carnival. The business events are the Zimbabwe International Trade Fair (ZITF) and the Sanagani/Hlanganai World Expo.

Zimbabwe was once a leading MICE destination in Southern Africa, attracting international conferences such as the Non Aligned Movement Summit, Common Wealth Heads of Government Meeting and World Council of Churches (Ndoda, 2010:72). The author attributed this to a positive image the country had during that period. The country also hosts sporting events. However, The sporting events are not held frequently, with the last major sporting event being the 'All Africa Games' which was held in 1995 (Karambakuwa, Shonhiwa, Mauchi, Gopo, Denhere, Tafirei, Chingarande, & Mudavanhu, 2011:68) and tourist arrivals rose by 35% during that (Muchapondwa & Pamhidzai, 2011:72). In 2013, Zimbabwe hosted a six-day United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) General Assembly in Victoria Falls. This is an indication that the international community's confidence in Zimbabwe is improving. The bid was awarded during the time of the GNU at which period the the image of the country improved (Karambakuwa *et al.*, 2011:68). The section below focusses on accessibility which is also an integral component of the tourism product.

### **3.4.2 Accessibility**

Accessibility entails the provision of transportation from the source markets to the destination (UNWTO, 2007:4). Accessibility of the destination is a key factor in tourism given that tourists have to travel in order to consume product at its point of production (Divisekera, 2003:32). Further, visa requirements, ports of entry, and specific entry conditions are part of the accessibility of a destination (UNWTO, 2007:4). The destination ought to be easily reachable to most people by road, air, rail or cruise ships. Visitors should also find it easy to connect from one point to the other within the destination. Restrictive policies such as cumbersome visa requirements diminish tourists' willingness to visit a country, and indirectly reduce the availability of key services (WEF, 2015:7).

Tourists visiting Zimbabwe travel either by road or air, with those from within the region largely using the former while the latter is mostly used by long-haul tourists (ZTA, 2007:23). According to Abel *et al.* (2013:12), Zimbabwe is not very accessible by air as compared to other countries in the region because of the withdrawal of the majority of airlines which were servicing the country (Abel *et al.*, 2013:; Muzapu & Sibanda, 2016:56). The country, does not have direct flights from its major source markets namely USA, and Europe (Zibanai, 2016:12). The withdrawal was necessitated by deepening economic crisis which reached its peak in 2008 (Imara, 2011:6). More so, the country's accessibility is compromised by the fact that air policies are not accomodative, resulting in some foreign airlines either being restricted or denied access to reduce competition for the national flag carrier (ZTA, 2007:23). According to Robinson, Lueck and Smith (2013:194), laws and regulations can limit the accesibility of tourists attractions.

For those tourists using road transport the border procedures lengthen the travelling time resulting in the cancelation of some trips by tourists and also discouraging repeat visits (RETOSA, 2011:36). Similarly, Kwanisai, Mpofu, Vengesai, Mutanga, Hurombo and Mirimi (2014:9) argued that, the depressed experiences tourists have at the border creates a perception that Zimbabwe is inaccessible. Apart from the problem of accessibility into the country, movement from one tourist resort to another is also difficult because most of the tourist attractions are not serviced by air except for Kariba and Victoria falls. According to Abel *et al.* (2013:22), the problem of internal accessibility is further compounded by the fact that the country does not have luxury coaches which can be used by tourists to visit attractions via road more so the infrastructure is in a dilapidated state (ZIMASSET, 2014:19). To some extent, lack of internal accessibility is being exploited by other destinations to lure tourists and then

provide excursion trips to Zimbabwe. For example, South Africa at one time was using the promotional statement “ *fly and visit the Victoria Falls*” (ZTA, 2007:16 ). The country is missing out on cross border packages since most are being developed on the basis of connectivity. South Africa is benefiting most because of the dominance of Oliver Tambo International Airport as the regional hub (ZTA, 2007:24).

### **3.4.3 Activities**

Activities are those things that tourist do or participate in during their stay in a destination. At times, it is difficult to distinguish between activities and attractions in that the ability to take part in an activity is often the main attraction (ZTA, 2007:24). In most cases the attractions provide the major base for various activities (Buhalis, 2000:4). For example, the Victoria Falls found along the Zambezi River offers a variety of activities such as white-water rafting and canoeing (Abel *et al.*, 2013:10).

According to ZTA (2007:32), Zimbabwe does not offer a wide range of tourism activities. Consequently, the limited activities, explain why the length of stay by tourists in the destination is relatively short (ZTA, 2007:33). The wildlife resources are associated with game viewing, bird watching, hunting, while, the Eastern Highlands, because of its terrain, offers unique activities such as hiking, mountain climbing and trout fishing. (<http://zimbabwe.com/location/eastern-highlands>). Lake Kariba, which is the largest inland lake in Zimbabwe, is associated with a number of water based activities such as boating, canoeing and fishing. The country also offers sporting activities for tourists through numerous golf courses, especially in Harare and the Eastern Highlands (ZTA, 2007:72).

### **3.4.4 Amenities**

Amenities refer to the support services which are needed by tourists in a destination in order to fulfil the purpose of their visit. These include accommodation, catering facilities and retailing, among others (Buhalis, 2000:4). The major hotels in Zimbabwe include the Africa Sun Chain Group, Rainbow Tourism Group, Cresta-Hospitality, Meikles Africa, Dzimbabwe Hospitality Group, Regency Hotel Group and a host of other independent hotels (Chikosha & Maximillan 2015:31; Zhou, 2013:892). Victoria Falls Resort has some hotels which are of international standards (Heath, 1990:9). However, a decade of an unprecedented economic decline in most sectors (Ncube *et al.*, 2010: 335) and lack of proper maintenance due to reduced revenues resulted in the deterioration of most tourism facilities (ZTA, 2007:30). Supply was adversely affected by the dire economic situation prior to 2009, with no new

lodgings constructed, while the existing facilities were not adequately maintained (Ncube *et al.*, 2010: 329).

### **3.4.5 Ancillary services**

Ancillary services are support or auxiliary services (Rautanen, 2013:9), which facilitates the movement of tourists to the destinations of their choice. Most of these services are in the public sector, though travel agents can perform some of the services on behalf of their customers. (Medlik, 2012:170). Ancillary services include car rental, travel insurance, passports and visas, health requirements, foreign currency and traveller's cheques and information services provided by tourist organisations (Beaver, 2005:ix).

The visa regime is divided into three categories and it discriminates other markets. Category A countries do not need visas, while category B countries obtain visas at the point of entry with Category C countries requiring visas before they visit. Though Category B appears to offer convenience as compared to category C, there tends to be a sense of uncertainty associated with it. This results from fear of being denied a visa at the point of entry after travelling to the country. Most of Zimbabwe's target markets are in category B and ZTA is pushing for the relaxation of the visa regime especially for the country's major source markets (ZTA, 2007:18). The section below focusses on the image which is an intangible component of the tourism product.

### **3.4.6 Image**

Destination image was defined by Crompton (1979:18) as "the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination". Similarly, Barich and Kotler (1991:95) defined destination image as "the sum of beliefs, attitudes, and impressions that a person or group has of an object. The object may be a company, product, brand, place, or person". Regarding Crompton's (1979) definition, Jenkins (1999:2) observed that it is inadequate in so far as it does not acknowledge the fact that destination image can be shaped by groups of people.

A good image and a positive reputation are probably the most valuable assets a country can possess (Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002:295). The images held by individuals in the marketplace are crucial to a destination's marketing success (Awuah & Reinert, 2010:145). Image exerts a strong influence on consumer behaviour in the tourism sector (Beerli & Mart, 2004: 623) and it influences tourists' decisions on destination choice (Awuah & Reinert, 2010:135). Examining the travelers' perceptions of a destination image can isolate the factors

that contribute to the attractiveness of a destination, as well as providing insights into factors that need improvement (Moreira & Lao, 2014:92). Similarly, recognising the images that tourists have of a destination is necessary to identify its strengths and weaknesses (Chen & Uysal, 2002:42). Dolnicar (2008:5) opined that tourists have different views on particular aspects of a destination and it is important for destination marketing organisations to appreciate these differences. This assists managers to effectively market tourist products (Jenkins, 1999:2). It is in this regard that the study established tourists perception about the tourism products and services in Zimbabwe.

Image is one of the major factors which has influenced tourism performance in Zimbabwe over the years (ZTA, 2007: 46). Following the farm invasions and increasing economic challenges the image of the country was heavily dented (KFH, 2009:22; ZTA, 2007:46). 'Zimbabwe lost considerable goodwill from the international community because of intense media scrutiny regarding human rights issues' (Lumsdon & Page, 2007:75). While the country is relatively safe and secure, the perception of international tourists is to the contrary (ZTA, 2007:17). However, the country recently experienced some mass protests resulting in some countries such as the UK and Austria publishing travel advisories cautioning tourists travelling to Zimbabwe (ZTA, 2016:7). Such developments further weaken the image that Zimbabwe has on the market.

The bias of Zimbabwe's tourism resources towards nature and in particular wildlife, is likely to appeal to tourists with a disposition towards novelty, adventure and culture, for example, Plog's (1974) allocentric, Cohen's (1972) non institutionalised or Seery and Paris's (2015) explorer immersionist. In fact, Muchapondwa and Pamhidzai (2011:71) noted that Zimbabwe is a wanderlust destination because of the nature of the country's attractions (Lake Kariba, scenery, eco-diversity in the Eastern Highlands, ancient ruins of Great Zimbabwe, a favourable warm climate) and the fact that it is landlocked. Having discussed the various components of the Zimbabwe tourism product, the section below focusses on the country's source markets.

### **3.5 TOURISM MARKETS**

This section begins by briefly looking at the state of tourism performance at a global level, then the Southern Africa region, before looking at Zimbabwe.

### 3.5.1 Tourist arrivals: a global perspective

In global terms, tourism has grown immensely in spite of some occasional shocks (UNWTO, 2014:2). The end of the Second World War marked the beginning of a remarkable period in the growth of international tourism (Pearson, 2011:1). International tourist numbers ballooned from 25 million in 1950 to 1133 million in 2014, while tourism receipts rose from 2 billion in 1950 to 1245 billion in 2014 (UNWTO, 2014:2). Europe's market share has shrunk over the years, but the block still enjoys a large market share of 50.7% as of 2010 (see Table 3.5).

**Table 3.5: Tourist arrivals by tourism block**

Region	1950 %	1960 %	1970 %	1980 %	1990 %	2010 %
Europe	66.5	72.5	70.3	68.4	63.5	50.7
Americas	29.6	24.1	23.0	18.9	18.8	15.9
Asia Pacific	1.0	1.3	3.6	7.8	19.3	21.7
Africa	2.1	1.1	1.5	2.5	4.6	5.3
Middle east	0.9	1.0	1.4	2.5	4.8	6.4

**Source:** Pearson, (2011:1)

Africa, in 1950 was number three after Europe and the Americas with 2.1 %. In 2010, the block had the least market share of 5.3%. Christie, Fernandes, Mersseri and Twining-Ward (2014:43) noted that Africa's market share is still small at the international level, which is reflective of the situation obtaining in the block's member countries, though some are enjoying a greater share of the small market.

### 3.5.2 Tourist arrivals in Africa by region

The Southern African sub-region receives a fair share of the outbound tourists to Africa (RETOSA, 2010:7). The region was ranked number two in 2014 (UNWTO, 2014:13), see Table 3.6.

**Table 3.6: Tourist Arrivals in Africa by Sub-region**

Sub-regions	1980	1995	2010	2020 (projections)
<b>Africa</b>	7.2	18.9	50.3	85
North Africa	4.0	7.3	18.7	31

West & central	1.0	2.3	8.8	13
East Africa	1.2	5.0	12.1	22
Southern Africa	1.0	4.3	12.6	20

**Source: UNWTO (2016:15)**

North Africa is strategically located because of its closeness to Europe, and is the most popular regional destination in Africa (Naudé & Saayman, 2004:3). In 2010 it received 18.7 million tourists and Southern African was in the second position with 12.1 million tourists. Southern Africa being a long haul destination is doing relatively well at continental level (UNWTO, 2016:15).

### **3.5.3 Tourist arrivals within Southern Africa**

South Africa receives most of the tourist arrivals visiting the region. For example in 2010 South Africa dominated the market share with 47%, while Zimbabwe trailed behind with a meager 10% market share as shown in Table 3.7.

**Table 3.7: Tourist arrivals for Southern Africa in 2010**

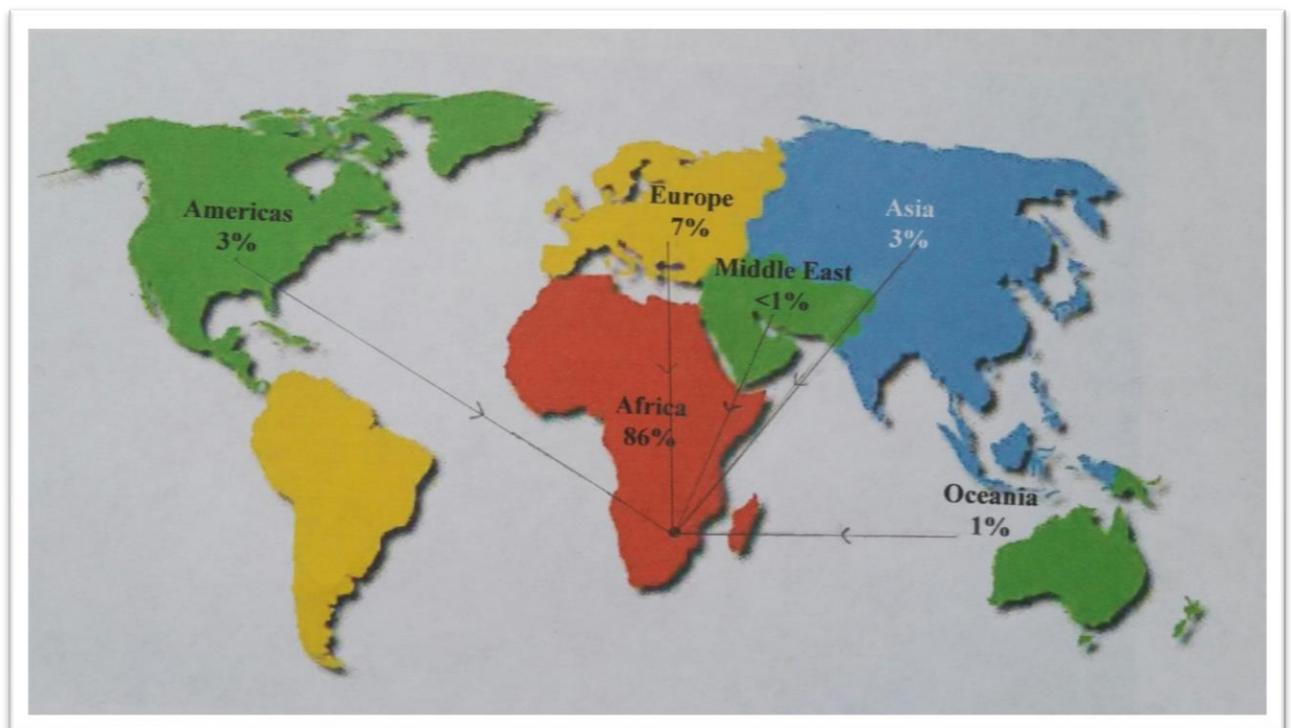
<b>Southern African countries</b>	<b>Market share in %</b>
South Africa	47
Zimbabwe	10
Botswana	7
Mozambique	7
Swaziland	7
Mauritius	6
Tanzania	4
Malawi	4
Zambia	4
Madagascar	2
Lesotho	2
Angola	1
DRC	0

**Source: (RETOSA, 2010:40)**

The popularity of the destination Zimbabwe has declined over the years (RETOSA, 2010:40). Although, it is the second most favored destination in Southern Africa, its market share is small, in comparison to that of South Africa. For Zimbabwe, a destination which was once ranked fourth in Africa in 1996 (Ndoda, 2010:91), its current performance is a former shadow of itself (RETOSA, 2010:40).

### 3.5.4 Zimbabwe's international tourism markets

International tourism is described as tourism which involves the crossing of international boundaries UNWTO (2008:15) and it comprises of inbound tourism and outbound tourism. This study is focussing on the inbound market. Zimbabwe's tourism industry largely caters for the international market (ZTA, 2007:10). The country is a long haul destination in relation to western markets (ZTA, 2013:10). For quite a long time, the industry had a bias towards high spending low volume tourists, though it was not officially documented (ZTA, 2007:10). The political and socio-economic dynamics in the first decade of the new milenium brought changes to the compositon of the tourism market. The tourism industry had to make deliberate efforts to venture into new markets. The markets are analysed in geographical terms using the continental blocs. For the overseas market, the country heavily relied on Western countries especially the UK and the USA, though most of the tourists who visit Zimbabwe originate from within the continent (ZTA, 2007:30) as illuatrated in Figure 3.7.



**Figure 3.7: Size of Zimbabwe's international markets (ZTA, 2013:10)**

As shown in Figure 3.7, Africa contributes 86% of the international tourists. Europe is the second most important source market with 7%, followed by the Americas and Asia both contributing 3% each, Oceania contributes 1% while Middle East contributing less than 1% (ZTA, 2013:7) However, UNWTO (2015: 4) noted that tourism statistics from Africa are based

on limited volatile data and must be handled with a lot of caution. The section below focusses on Europe which makes up the country's largest source market.

#### **3.5.4.1 The European markets**

This group comprises of the United Kingdom, Germany, France and Italy, part of the so called traditional source markets for Zimbabwe (ZTA, 2007:10). As of 2013, the highest source markets for the country were UK and Ireland providing 28% of the total tourists from Europe, followed by Germany (18 %) and France with 10% respectively (ZTA, 2014:29). Germany and UK have a high propensity to travel and are high spender markets (ZTA, 2007:12). The UK has always been the leading source market for Zimbabwe from the European continent (ZTA, 2016:3). Most of the countries from Europe are usually found in the top ten categories of outbound tourists in terms of arrivals and receipts (ZTA, 2007:10), implying that this market is very lucrative. However, a series of political and economic crisis had reduced the number of tourists from Europe. However, in 2015 and 2016 the tourist arrivals have been increasing (ZTA, 2016:6).

#### **3.5.4.2 American markets**

On average the American market contributes 7% of the tourist arrivals to Zimbabwe. The USA is the leading source market in this block, followed by Canada and Brazil. In 2013 USA provided 84% of tourists from this continent, while Canada and Brazil provided 8% and 4% respectively (ZTA, 2013:20). American markets tend to be high spenders but Africa as a whole receives an average of 2% of the outbound market (ZTA, 2007:100). The American market has a special interest in hunting wild animals (ZTA, 2007:15) and one can argue that the recent global outrage over the killing of Cecil the Lion by an American hunter further confirms this.

#### **3.5.4.3 Asian markets**

The Asia and Pacific is a growing tourist source market, with China being the largest outbound market (UNWTO, 2014:2). However, Zimbabwe's share of the market from the continent stands at 3% . Japan is the largest market for Zimbabwe, followed by China, and South Korea. In 2013 Japan provided 38% of the arrivals, whilst China and South Korea contributed 31% and 16% respectively (ZTA, 2013:21). Zimbabwe is failing to effectively tap into the Chinese market, less than 0.02% of all Chinese trips overseas are visiting the country and the majority being business tourists (ZTA, 2013:21). This is relatively insignificant especially in view of the

Look East Policy initiative. There is need for the country to identify the needs of the Chinese market in order to lure them to travel for leisure purposes.

### 3.5.4.4 The Middle East

Africa is the second most important destination for the Middle East, with the majority visiting North Africa. This region represents Zimbabwe's smallest source market, with a market share of less than 1% in most years. Israel is the most resilient source market from this depressed region contributing about 84% of the tourist followed by Saudi Arabia making up 7% percent of the market to the country (ZTA, 2007:13; ZTA 2013:23).

### 3.5.4.5 African markets

While Zimbabwe draws tourist from all over Africa, Southern African countries are the major source markets as illustrated in Table 3.8.

**Table 3.8: Top African Source Markets for Zimbabwe in 2013**

Country	Market Share In %
South Africa	45
Malawi	18
Zambia	15
Mozambique	11
Botswana	4
Other African Countries	3
Tanzania	2
DRC	1
Namibia	1

**Source: ZTA (2013:19)**

South Africa is Zimbabwe's Largest Source Market (ZTA, 2007: 15, ZTA, 2013:20), even during colonial times (Heath, 1986:30). However, the most tourists from the region are not high spenders, consequently arrival numbers are not matched by foreign currency earnings (RETOSA, 2010:13). Moreover they tend to stay with Friends and Relatives (VFR) than in hotels and other rented accommodation facilities (ZTA, 2013: 26). More so, some of the movements which occur across borders in Southern Africa largely involve short stay visitors rather than commercial tourists ( Lumsdon & Page, 2007:75).

While, the tourism markets in Southern Africa are generally identified using the geographical criterion. RETOSA in 2010, investigated the preferences of tourists visiting the sub region using information obtained from tour operators. The organisation categorised the tourists into the following: 'Family Relaxers', 'Independent Relaxers', 'Luxury Discoverers', 'Packaged Discoverers', 'Mature Explorers'. Adventurous explorers were identified as the most promising segments (RETOSA, 2010:74), see Table 3.9.

**Table 3.9: Typologies of tourists visiting Southern Africa**

Category	Characteristics
Family Relaxers	Prefer relaxation, fun, good food, family time.
Independent Relaxers	Prefer relaxation, peace, tranquillity.
Relaxers	Relaxing, eating and drinking.
Luxury Discoverers	New exotic experiences, exclusivity, being pampered.
Mature Explorers	Prefer soft adventure, soft exploration, learning experiences
Adventurous Explorers	Prefer adventure, off-the-beaten track experiences, learning and social interaction.
Special Interest segments	Aquatic sports, cultural/ heritage/ archaeology exploration, eco- experiences, adventure experiences, etc.
Packaged Discoverers	Prefer new experiences and destinations, seeking value- for-money and comfort in organisation.

**Source: (RETOSA, 2010:74)**

While this was a good step towards unravelling the characteristics of tourist markets in the region, there is need to get input from the tourist themselves. Individual countries should make similar studies and classify their market into taxa or segments. This would enable them to identify the most lucrative segments to which they can tailor make their products.

### **3.5.5 The domestic market in Zimbabwe**

Domestic tourism refers to “journeys and visits within a person’s home country” (Singh, 2009:1) and the domestic tourist is understood to be “any person residing in a country who travels to a place within the country, outside his/her usual environment for a period not exceeding 12 months” (UNTWO, 1995:4). However, the term “domestic” has different meaning in national accounts, where it refers to the activities of resident visitors within and outside the country of reference, either as part of domestic or outbound tourism trips (UNWTO, 2008:15). However, in this study domestic tourism is referring to the activities of resident visitors within the country of reference.

Domestic tourism is significantly larger than international tourism. It accounts for approximately 80 per cent of all tourism activity worldwide (Neto, 2002:2). For example, in 2008, 83% of the total global vacation trips were domestic (tourismhttp://dtxqtq4w60xqpw.cloudfront.net). However, there is a view that international tourism is ‘the tourism’ and domestic tourism ‘the other tourism’, thus giving the latter second-class connotations (Kanokanga *et al.*, 2014). In terms of research, the tourism community focusses mainly on international tourism. Thus, consistent data on domestic tourism is not so readily available (Eijeglaar *et al.*, 2008:1).

Regarding Africa, Mazimhaka (2007:491) noted that domestic tourism is an undeveloped theme in African tourism scholarship. In a study carried out by Mazimhaka (2011:94) the culture of travelling in Rwanda is still low and those who can afford to travel for leisure do not consider participation in tourism as a valuable exercise. The practice is still perceived as a ‘foreign concept’. Similarly, Moseley *et al.*, (2007:30) noted that in Namibia, travel by local tourists is often overlooked by members of the tourism industry and is often considered a luxury by many. These findings to some extent reflect the situation obtaining in most African countries including Zimbabwe.

The size of the domestic market in Zimbabwe is still small as compared to countries such as South Africa (ZTA, 2007:27). For a long time the country has been concentrating more on international tourists rather than the domestic market (ZTA, 2007:34). However, it is highly vulnerable to international trends like global financial crises, terrorism, sustainability issues and politics (Kabote *et al.*, 2014:1). The absence of a tourism culture among black Zimbabweans is inhibiting the growth of the domestic tourism sector (Zhou, 2013:890). However, Zimbabwe’s population comprises of a growing black middle class with potential for

domestic tourism visitation and investment. As such, there is need to develop a domestic tourism strategy to tap into this market (Abel *et al.*, 2013:18). Scheyvens (2002:155) argues that ‘countries searching for an alternative, less exploitative form of tourism development than that dominated by the interests of multinational capital, should encourage domestic tourism as this results in greater community ownership of tourism enterprises.

According to Pierret (2011:1-3), domestic tourists know the destination, its language, its customs, its laws, its climate, its cultural context and as a result their preferences tend to be different from those of the international tourists. As such it is necessary to establish the characteristics of the domestic tourist including the perceptions of the tourism products in the country in order to come up with products that match their needs. Moseley, Sturgis and Wheeler (2007:300) noted that measuring tourist perceptions of domestic tourists exposes areas needing improvement with regards to tourism services and businesses.

### **3.5.6 Market segments for Zimbabwe**

The ZTA broadly groups its market firstly, according to purpose of visit, with most of the tourist visiting for leisure and secondly by using the geographic criterion. Secondly, The ZTA uses the geographical approach i. e. country of origin and or region as shown in Table 3.10. It appears there are no empirical studies that have been done to try and establish the characteristics of Zimbabwe’s tourism market. ZTA (2007:42),reported that there is need to carry out market research in order to determine the needs of tourists.

**Table 3.10: Zimbabwe’s tourist market: preferences**

<b>Market segments</b>	<b>Preferences and expectations</b>
Domestic market	Affordable facilities Traditional cuisines Entertainment and related activities for family settings
South Africa market	Accommodation, cuisines that are competitively priced Entertainment Varied tourist activities Shopping facilities
SADC and the rest of Africa	Accommodation, cuisines and tourist activities Shopping facilities Conference facilities
Asian market	Facilities that accommodate their religion Appropriate food e.g. Tsai Cuisine, Halaal food Language Culture

	Shopping facilities
Middle East	Accommodation facilities suitable for families Praying facilities Appropriate food Varied activities Shopping facilities
Traditional western markets	High quality accommodation, cuisines and services Variety and nature tourism Wildlife Entertainment

**Source (ZTA, 2007:34)**

While the above characteristics give useful insights into the nature of Zimbabwe's market, the use of the geographic criterion masks differences and similarities which occur within and among countries and or regions (UNWTO, 2007:33). Hence, there is need to classify the market into different taxa in order to effectively meet the needs of tourists. RETOSA (2010:116) underscored the need to understand and track the needs of travellers and targeting the most lucrative market segments.

### **3.6 TOURISM MARKETING IN ZIMBABWE**

The marketing of Zimbabwe as a destination is largely spearheaded by the ZTA, which is the DMO of the country. Abel *et al.* (2013:15) divided the marketing initiatives of ZTA into four phases.

The first phase spanned from 1980-1984, The then DMO (ZTDC) mainly focussed on the establishment of tourism offices mostly in western countries. The tourism industry is represented in countries such as the UK, USA, Germany, France, Italy, Spain, Netherlands, New Zealand and China, among others. (Abel *et al.*, 2013:25; ZTA, 2007:24). The goal was to reposition the country as an African destination.

The second phase (1985-1999) was characterised by peace and stability and tourism grew rapidly. During that phase, consolidation of markets, penetration into new, with an emphasis on niche markets were the major activities carried out by the organisation.

The third phase stretched from 2000-2008 and was characterised by 'stagnation and decline' the need to improve the country's tainted image greatly influenced ZTA'S marketing initiatives. The organisation embarked on 'crisis related marketing' (Zhou, 2014:14) with the aim to change the negative perception of the country and widen the market base (Abel *et al.*,

2013:15). The major target markets were mainly China, Malaysia and Russia in line with The Look East Policy, (Abel *et al.*, 2013:15; Zhou, 2014:14). Karambakuwa *et al.* (2011:72) opined that ZTA's marketing initiatives during this phase were not very effective because tourist arrivals continued to decline.

The fourth phase was the era of the Government of National Unity (GNU) stretching from 2009-2012. The main marketing thrust has on re-establishing links with key operators and consolidation of both the new and the old markets as well as bidding for high profile events, (Abel *et al.*, 2013:15; Zhou, 2014:21). Currently there is a vigorous marketing programme in which the country is being promoted as a safe and unique destination (Government of Zimbabwe (GOZ), 2016: iv).

One can conclude that Zimbabwe's marketing strategies were largely dictated by the political, economic and social environment rather than consumer needs. While marketing should be done in consideration of the dynamics taking place within the competitive environment, it is also important to be guided by consumer needs and wants. According to Abel *et al.* (2013:25), the DMO lacks adequate product knowledge and is failing to effectively market the destination, let alone consult stakeholders on which market segments to target and the nature of promotional activities to undertake. The foregoing concerns could be addressed by determining tourist taxonomies. Therefore, this study focusses on the consumer, advocating for the use of tourist taxonomies to derive meaningful insights into tourist preferences.

### **3.6.1 Destination branding**

ZTA uses branding as one of its major tools in marketing Zimbabwe as a destination. A destination must be favourably differentiated and positively positioned in the minds of the consumers (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003:37). Branding is a marketing tool which enables destination managers to differentiate from similar destinations in a growing competitive world (Bierzynski, 2011:3). Meanwhile, a brand is defined as "a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of these, intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors" (Morgan *et al.*, 2004: 41). It is described as the DNA that defines a product (UNWTO 2007:38). However, UNWTO (2007:38) cautioned that it must not be regarded as mere logo, a slogan, a product, or a marketing campaign in a technical sense, but should be seen to represent the dynamic relationship between the product and how it is perceived by potential customers and visitors.

Customer's perceptions should define the brand's core characteristics. A destination should focus on its core market segments when developing a brand (UNWTO, 2007: 18). It is therefore essential for brand owners, or destinations, to understand their target audience, so that they can develop a dynamic relationship with their most valuable groups of consumers (UNWTO, 2007: 41). Target markets should also be considered when making other branding decisions, because target marketing occurs when the marketer develops marketing mixes that attempt to appeal to one or more market segments by using tailored products for each selected segment (Ndhlovu, 2009:38-39).

Tourism products in Southern Africa tend to be similar, (ZTA, 2007a:20) making it imperative for the organisation to come up with strategies and marketing initiatives that differentiate the country from competitors. The ZTA has used a variety of positioning statements as a way of differentiating and positioning Zimbabwe's products in the mind of the customer. Soon after Independence the positioning statement was 'Zimbabwe waiting to be discovered' aimed at arousing curiosity (ZTA, 2007a:21). This was later replaced by 'Zimbabwe Africa's paradise' which was in tandem with the prevailing peace, stability and relatively good infrastructure. (Miriimi *et al.*, 2014; 107:26). In 2011, the paradise branding theme was dropped and replaced by 'Zimbabwe the world of wonders' because the country's tourism product had deteriorated so much that the statement was no longer compatible with the state of the product (ZTA, 2012:7; Chibaya, 2013:85; Mirimi *et al.*, 2014:107). Apparently, the world of wonders theme mainly relates to the natural resources, which were rated favourably by WEF (WEF, 2012:36) and the brand theme seem to be targeting novelty seeking tourists.

RETOSA (2010:13) noted that most countries are not basing product development and marketing initiatives on market research. Similarly, ZTA (2007:42) acknowledged the need to carry out market research in order to fully understand and anticipate the needs of different markets, since tourists have different expectations (ZTA, 2007:41). In fact, for branding to be effective, it should be informed by the needs and wants of the customers. As a result, this study seeks to come up with tourist taxonomies which can yield information which makes marketing strategies such as branding more effective.

### **3. 7 THE POLICY ENVIRONMENT AND TOURISM**

The development of the tourism industry in Zimbabwe has been, to a larger extent, influenced by the policy environment (Abel *et al.*, 2013; ZTA, 2007:30). Public policies at the domestic level function as instruments of conflict management enabling authorities to control and synchronise competing values and interests within a country (Zhou & Zvoushe, 2012:213).

However, at the international level, policies “constitute a means through which governments relate and market themselves to the outside community”. In that regard, policies become inextricably linked to tourism as they have a bearing on how the country is perceived by the outside world. Good policies tend to promote a favourable image of a country, while the reverse is equally true. The RETOSA Competitiveness Report (2010:7) noted that some of the impediments to tourism development in Southern Africa result from legal and policy frameworks crafted by some RETOSA members who do not promote the smooth flow of trade in tourism services.

### **3.7.1 A review of selected public policies in Zimbabwe**

After independence policy making in Zimbabwe largely focussed on redressing the economic and social imbalances brought about by colonial rule (Mazingi & Kamhidza, 2000:4). The new government inherited a dual economy characterised by a relatively well developed urban sector and a largely poor rural sector comprising of about 80% of the population (Cox & Anderson, 2010:1; MDG report, 2004:1). Access to economic, social and economic benefits was defined along racial lines with the white minority enjoying greater part of the share (Mazingi & Kamhidza, 2000:4). Even access to tourism services was not spared, Heath (1986:35) observed that the tourism and recreation industry in Zimbabwe was “developed by white Rhodesians for white Rhodesians”.

There are a number of growth policies which have been crafted since 1980 to date. Most of the policies have directly or indirectly affected the tourism industry. The section below examines some of the key policies instituted by the government.

#### **3.7.1.1 The Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP)**

The Economic Structural Adjustment Programme was implemented from 1990 to 1995 upon the recommendation of the World Bank and IMF (Mazingi & Kamhidza, 2000:2). In summary, the policy was aimed at reducing state control of the economy allowing free market forces to shape it. (Mazingi & Kamidza, 2011:335-336).

The policy failed to bring meaningful changes to the socio-economic landscape, its impact on the economy was insignificant, with an average annual growth rate of less than 1% recorded (ZIMPREST, 1998:5). Mazingi and Kamidza (2011:344) also noted that these “neo-liberal policies reversed gains made during the 1980s in the social sectors, particularly on education, health care, sanitation and public assistance”. The non realisation of the objectives of the

ESAP contributed to deepening inequalities and poverty. The dissolution of Zimbabwe Tourist Development Cooperation (ZTDC) in 1996 due to funding challenges (Abel *et al.*, 2013), could be linked to deteriorating economic conditions triggered by ESAP. The economic downturn reached threatening levels in 1997 (MDG Report, 2004:11, Chiripanhura & Makwara, 2000:12) because of the financial crisis and tourist arrivals nose-dived (ZTA, 2013:14). The worsening poverty and economic decline meant that the majority of Zimbabweans could not fully participate in domestic tourism due to limited disposable income. Mutsena and Kabote (2015:9) indicated that some of the policies the government adopted affected domestic tourism development as well as the operation of the tourism related businesses.

### **3.7.1.2 The Land Policy**

The land question has for a long time been a major concern in the country (Goodwin *et al.*, 1997:119; Zhou & Zvoushe, 2012:217). The agricultural policy under the colonial government was meant to 'serve and satisfy the interests' of the minority whites (Zhou & Zvoushe, 2012:215). The Lancaster House Conference Agreement was restrictive in terms of land reform as it had prescribed the willing buyer willing seller policy. After failing to make meaningful progress in land redistribution, the government enacted the Land Acquisition Act of 1992 which authorised compulsory acquisition of land. Funding for compensation could not be secured from both Britain and donors allegedly because the government had not put in place 'clear land policy and the accompanying mechanisms for transparency' (Zhou & Zvoushe, 2012:217). Following the rejection of the Draft Constitution of 2000 which among other issues, sought to address the land issue, frustrated war veterans invaded farms. The government responded by embarking on a fast track land reform programme.

The fast tract land reform programme also occurred in wildlife based areas in the Lowveld. Almost all game ranches and parts of the conservancy were occupied. Fences were torn down and the wire used to make snares, cattle were driven into the game areas leading to fears of veterinary disease outbreak, trees were cut down for firewood, fields were cleared and huts were built (Kamhidza & Makwara, 2000:8).

The events associated with land reform had an instant impact on tourism performance in Zimbabwe. According to ZTA (2007:29) and Abel *et al.* (2012:23), during the land reform programme tourism space was not spared as some establishments were taken over by blacks, some of whom lacked the expertise to run them. In addition the majority of the establishments failed to yield meaningful profits because of depressed tourist numbers. This impacted on the quality of tourism products because of poor maintenance due to lack of revenue.

### **3.7.1.3 The Indigenisation Policy**

The Indigenisation Policy has the mandate to empower black populations who were underprivileged in the colonial era so as to afford them the chance to partake in the national economy through owning businesses and increasing stake in the corporate. The Policy requires investors to cede 51% shares to locals. While the intents of the policy are noble, some of the contents are shrouded in controversy. The requirement to surrender 51 per cent to locals is exorbitant and disadvantages the investors. The policy is vague on the definition of 'indigenous Zimbabweans' sector (Zhou & Zvoushe, 2012:218).

According to Imara (2011:6), 'unclear indigenisation and property holding rights could deter new investments by leading international players'. Similarly, Zhou and Zvoushe (2012:218) commented that the policy makes the country an undesirable investment destination. Generally speaking, this policy has scared away investors including tourism. The government policies should address, among other issues, the operating environment so that it becomes conducive to investors and operators (Muzapu & Sibanda, 2016:57).

### **3.7.1.4 The Look East Policy**

The term Look East Policy is believed to have been coined by Dr Mahathir bin Mohamed, the former Prime Minister of Malaysia in 1981. In the Malaysian context, it refers to an initiative to learn from Japan and Korea in nation building in the areas of academic prowess, technological knowhow, labor ethics and discipline (Maroodza, 2012:1). Zimbabwe's Look East Policy was officially pronounced in 2003 (Friedrick-Ebert-Stifung, 2004:1) with the intention to court Eastern investors and political allies, especially China, Malaysia and Iran (Mashingaidze, 2006:71). According to Youde (2007:3), the Look East Policy is not contained in any formal policy document, and Friedrich-Ebert-Stifung (2004:1) opined that it is more of a slogan than a policy. While, Zimbabwe's friendly relations with China have a long history (Friedrich-Erbert-Stifung, 2004:2), Zimbabwe adopted the Look East Policy particularly to deal with its severe economic problems and fall-out from the West. (Matenga, 2015:1; Maroodza 2011:1; Mudavanhu, 2014:280 ;Youde, 2007:3).

Following the promulgation of the Look East Policy in 2003, the government signed a Memorandum of Understanding with China which accorded the country, Approved Destination Status (ZTA, 2004:4). While the Status increased tourist arrivals from China (ZTA, 2004:6), to date the country is failing to attract a significant number of Chinese tourists as anticipated. Japan is the largest inbound market for Zimbabwe from the Asian Continent while China is

the second (ZTA, 2013:8). Marunda (2014:1) argued that the Look East Policy can only be a credible alternative when the major challenges facing tourism development in general, are adequately addressed.

### **3.7.1.5 Short Term Emergence Recovery Program (STERP)**

Short Term Emergence Recovery Program (STERP) was crafted by the Inclusive Government following their signing of the Global Political Agreement (GPA). STERP was emergency short-term stabilisation programme, whose key goals were to promote economic stabilisation and national healing, at the same time laying the foundation of a more comprehensive and developmental economic framework (STERP, 2009:6-8). The policy identified tourism as one of the anchors for the stabilisation of the economy together with sectors such as agriculture, mining, manufacturing (Ploch, 2010:10) The STERP was implemented in two phases. STERP I (2009) focussed on a short term stabilisation programme, whose key goal was to address the key issues of economic stabilisation and national healing. STERP II sought to move the country's economic reforms beyond macro-economic stabilisation and encourage rapid sustainable growth, building on the successes of STERP I (Matutu, 2014:3). According to Matutu (2014:7), STERP yielded mixed results with the first phase performing better than the second. However, in terms of tourism development, the industry benefited significantly from the stabilising economic conditions and the improvement of the country's image (Karambakuwa *et al.*, 2011:68; ZTA,2009:7).

### **3.7.1.6 The ZIMASSET**

Upon the expiry of the Inclusive Government, a new growth policy, the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Social and Economic Transformation (ZIMASSET) was established. This policy was instituted by the ZANU PF party after its victory in the harmonised elections held in August 2013. ZIMASSET seeks to achieve "sustainable development and social equity anchored on indigenisation, empowerment and employment creation through the utilisation of the country's natural and human resources (ZIMASSET, 2013:6). ZIMASSET identifies four clusters that are expected to enable the country to achieve economic growth and re-establish its position as one of the strongest economies in the Southern region and Africa. In order to achieve the anticipated growth, mining, agriculture, transport, tourism, information and communication were identified as the key drivers (ZIMASSET, 2013:9-11). The effects of ZIMASSET on tourism are yet to be seen.

An analysis of the policies above shows that, the country national policies to some greater extent have negatively affected the performance of the tourism industry. This was compounded by the fact the Tourism industry had no policy of its own for quite a long time. The section below focusses on the National tourism policy.

### **3.7.2 Tourism policy: Zimbabwe's National Tourism Policy (NTP)**

Ritchie and Crouch (2000:3) defined tourism policy, "as a set of regulations, rules, guidelines, directives, and development and or promotion objectives and strategies that provide a framework within which the collective and individual decisions directly affecting tourism development and the daily activities within a destination are taken". These authors pointed out that tourism policy is critical in the success of tourism competitiveness. Zimbabwe, for quite a long time, existed without a Tourism Policy, Master Plan and Marketing Plan (ZTA, 2007:17; Abel *et al.*, 2013:14). The ZTA (2007:17) explicitly stated that this is "tantamount to building a house without a foundation", while MTHI (2014:1) admitted that no progress in the development of tourism can be made without a tourism policy. However, the crafting of the policy began in 2010 and it was adopted by Cabinet in 2012 and became operational in 2013 (Abel *et al.*, 2013:14; NTP, 2013:1).

Zimbabwe's National Tourism Policy (NTSP) appears to be market driven on paper (MTHI, 2013:15). However, the commitment to create products and services that match the 'needs and expectations' of the tourist is not clearly articulated and is not reflected in the objectives section of the policy. Meanwhile, the National Tourism Master Plan is yet to take shape (Abel *et al.*, 2013:14). The Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa (RETOSA, 2010:13) stressed the need for its member countries to have strategic plans in place specifying the medium-term growth strategies. To some extent this study, by coming up with tourist taxonomies provided information which could be used in tourism policy and planning. Having analysed the various aspects relating to the tourism industry in Zimbabwe, the section below wraps this chapter by making a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) analysis.

## **3.8 SWOT ANALYSIS**

The diagram shows a SWOT analysis of the tourism industry in Zimbabwe. Most of the ideas were borrowed from a SWOT analysis carried out by Zimbabwe's Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry in 2013. However, the researcher made some additions based on relevant literature. The visual depiction is such that some components (in spatial terms) seem to

override or suffocate others. However, the spatial breadth occupied by a component in Table 3.11 does not necessarily represent the actual strength of that component on the ground.

**Table 3.11: SWOT analysis of the tourism industry in Zimbabwe**

<p style="text-align: center;"><b>STRENGTHS</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Strategic geographical position in relation to countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and beyond.</li> <li>-Unique natural tourism resources, e.g. the Victoria falls and wildlife resources giving the country strong comparative advantage.</li> <li>-A favourable ranking in terms of quality of natural resources by WEF.</li> <li>-Distinct culture, history and shrines some of which are UNESCO heritage sites</li> <li>-A relatively peaceful environment, despite the occasional political disturbances common during election periods-Zimbabwe is a peaceful country with very low crime rates with friendly people.</li> <li>-A favorable climate with therapeutic effects</li> </ul>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>THREATS</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Tourism development and marketing largely based on guesswork rather than research.</li> <li>-Delays in the crafting and implementation of the tourism Master Plan.</li> <li>-Poor collection of tourism statistical information</li> <li>-Lack of a tourism satellite account which the Ministry of Tourism should push for.</li> <li>-Limited tourism product range.</li> <li>-Overreliance on traditional markets, exposing the country in the event of withdrawals by these markets.Limited use of ICT. -Compromised service.</li> <li>-Lack of themed purpose-built attractions</li> </ul>
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>OPPORTUNITIES</b></p> <p>The country is naturally situated at the core of Southern Africa and has the potential to become the hub of the region.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-In terms of ground transport Zimbabwe is the gateway to countries in the region and even beyond.</li> <li>-Leadership positions in international institutions proving opportunities to influence the global agenda.</li> <li>-This also provides a platform for reengagement.</li> <li>-Economic empowerment of blacks and the availability of disposable income are essential inputs for domestic tourism development.</li> <li>-Abundance of resources which can be used to come up with innovative products for the country</li> </ul>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>WEAKNESSES</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Dilapidated and exhausted infrastructure which is not adequately maintained</li> <li>-Very few direct flights into the country</li> <li>-Poor facilitation at points of entry and exit resulting in congestion.</li> <li>-Inadequate funding from the government compared to counterparts in the region.</li> <li>-Reduced internal access to resorts by both air and ground transport</li> <li>-Political considerations overriding sound business principles</li> <li>-Negative publicity denting country image</li> <li>-Lack of clarity on the Indigenisation Policy.</li> <li>-Lack of conclusion to the Land Reform Programme</li> <li>-Uncertainty of land tenure especially in the case of conservancies. This hinders long term development plans.</li> <li>- Inconsistent and unfavourable national policies.</li> <li>-Poaching and deforestation which is depleting the tourism resource base.</li> <li>-Climate change and associated hazards such as droughts and floods.</li> <li>-The tendency by political leadership to stigmatise open mindedness and objectivity as lack of patriotism.</li> </ul>

**Source: Author's own compilation.**

As shown in Table 3.11, Zimbabwe's tourism industry is currently experiencing multiple challenges and is not very stable because the operating environment is characterised by

numerous threats which seem to far outweigh the strengths. This implies that the destination managers should come up with all-inclusive strategies to try and improve the competitive strength of the industry. The SWOT analysis was compiled from the supply side observations and literature. However, it is also necessary to find out how the demand side (tourist) perceives the competitiveness of the destinations. Demand side evaluations compliment the supply side perspective, thereby giving what Vengesai (2003:167) called a 'holistic' impression of destination competitiveness. In this regard, the current study focusses on how the demand side can be used as a source of competitive advantage through the use of tourist taxonomies.

### **3.9 CONCLUSION**

The tourism industry in Zimbabwe has a relatively long history of existence and is largely supported by a rich natural resource base and cultural attractions. However, the industry's performance has had mixed success largely because the operating environment has not been very conducive. This is compounded by the country's infrastructure (including tourism infrastructure) that is in a dilapidated state.

The development of the industry has largely been characterised by lack of adequate policy and planning, despite being backed by a strong institutional base. From both a commercial and academic point of view, there is lack of research on the country's tourist needs and wants, including the market segments. There is need to identify and align the country's tourism product with the preferences of the major target markets, including domestic tourists. This would make it possible to effectively match the needs of the market with the destination resources. Hence this study seeks to gain insights into the characteristics of Zimbabwe's tourist markets and how the resultant tourist taxonomies can be used to enhance destination competitiveness using the Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework.

## **CHAPTER 4: METHOD OF RESEARCH**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

Methodology refers to ways of obtaining, organising and analysing data (Polit & Hungler, 2004:233). It is the design, setting, sampling, data collection and analysis techniques in a research study (Burns & Grove, 2003:488). The chapter begins by outlining the research objectives, followed by an overview of the major philosophical views that underlie different research strategies, the research design, sampling methods, data collection techniques, questionnaire development, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, reliability and validity as well as the ethical considerations.

### **4.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The main objective of the study was to determine tourist taxonomies of Zimbabwe and illustrate how tourist taxonomies can be used a tool for enhancing destination competitiveness. The taxonomies were largely constructed from tourists' behavioural preferences. The behavioural characteristics were ascertained by requesting tourists to indicate the extent to which they showed preference for novelty/familiarity, activities and environmental attributes when visiting Zimbabwe. Motivations were included as a way of providing background information to understand better the resultant tourist taxonomies as well as to gain insights into the demand drivers for tourism in the country. Perception factors were included to allow tourists to evaluate the key destination attributes and services making it possible to assess the competitive strength of the destination from a tourist's point of view. The specific objectives and corresponding hypotheses thereto are as follows:

1. To analyse literature on destination competitiveness and tourist typologies.
2. To critically review literature on the Zimbabwean situation, regarding tourism markets and destination products.
3. To establish the demand drivers for the country' tourism industry from the viewpoint of the tourist.
4. To determine the perceptions of tourist towards the Competitiveness of Zimbabwe's destination products.
5. To establish the preferences of tourists visiting the country's tourist attractions
6. To establish the tourist taxonomies for Zimbabwe.

7. To develop a Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF) and draw conclusions on how tourist taxonomies can be used as a management tool for enhancing destination competitiveness.

The section below gives relevant background and discusses the methodology used in this study.

### **4.3 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHIES**

As a way of putting the methodology chapter into context, a brief analysis of the research philosophy was undertaken. Philosophy is a “set or system of beliefs of the study of the fundamental nature of knowledge, reality and existence” (Waite & Hawker, 2009:685). Research philosophies are basically differentiated by their position on issues to do with ontology and epistemology (Creswell, 1994:6; Oliver, 2010:35; Mack, 2010:5). It is necessary to consider the philosophical assumptions that underline different research paradigms (Collis & Hussey, 2015:47) because philosophical orientation has implications on the way research questions, methodology, methods for a particular study are designed (Grix, 2004:57). Similarly, Mack (2010:6) asserted that ontological assumptions inform epistemological assumptions, which in turn inform methodology and these all determine the methods employed to collect data.

#### **4.3.1 *Types of research philosophies***

There is an incoherent classification of research philosophies by scholars (Mkansi & Cheampong, 2012:132). However, there are two basic research paradigms common in literature, namely positivism and interpretivism (Mack, 2010:57). According to Collis and Hussey (2015:45), positivism and interpretivism are best regarded as extremes of a continuous line of paradigms that can exist concomitantly with many new paradigms in-between. A third notable paradigm is pragmatism (Onweuegbuzie & Leech, 2005:270) and it combines ideas from both positivism and interpretivism. Research philosophies are distinguished by their position on the ‘nature of reality’ (ontology) which influences ‘how the knowledge should be known’ (epistemology) (Creswell, 1994:6; Oliver, 2010:35; Mack, 2010:5; Hughes & Sharrock, 1997:5).

#### **4.3.1.1 Positivism**

Positivism assumes that reality subsists independent of human behaviour (Collis & Hussey, 2015:44; Crossan, 2015:50). The ontological position of positivism is one of realism, which asserts that objects have an external existence. It follows therefore, that the positivist epistemology is one of objectivism (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:7). This view that treats the “social world like the natural world, as if it were a hard, external and objective reality means that scientific investigation will be directed at analysing the relationships and regularities between selected factors in that world” (Cohen, 2007:8). Thus, the social and natural worlds are both regarded as being bound by certain fixed laws in the sequence of cause and effect (Collis & Hussey, 2015:44). Positivism adopts a clear quantitative approach to investigating phenomena including social reality (Adams *et al.*, 2014:81).

The use of positivism in understanding social reality is criticised on the grounds that it is impossible to separate people from the social contexts in which they exist and that people cannot be understood without examining the perceptions they have of their own activities (Collis & Hussey, 2015:45). Similarly, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:11) argued that positivism is less successful, in its application to the study of human behaviour because of its complexity and that it contrasts perceptibly with the order and regularity of the natural world. Therefore, this led to the emergence of the post-positivism paradigm.

#### **4.3.1.2 Post-positivism**

Post-positivism has similar ontological and epistemological beliefs as positivism (Scotland, 2012:10). The proponents of post-positivism believe in the possibility of an objective reality, however, acknowledging that it is not possible to observe the world researchers are part of, as totally objective and disinterested outsiders. Post-positivists while, accepting that it is not possible to totally uncover reality through research, believe that researchers should try to approximate that reality as much as possible (Sukamolson, 2007:2). According to the post-positivists, knowledge is regarded as tentative, hypotheses are not proved but simply not rejected (Creswell, 2007: 73). The section below examines interpretivism which can be regarded as being the opposite of the positivist/post-positivist paradigm.

#### **4.3.1.3 Interpretivism**

The interpretivism paradigm is often referred to as the ‘anti-positivist’ paradigm since it was developed as a reaction to positivism. It is also sometimes called constructivism because it

emphasises the ability of the individual to construct meaning (Mack, 2010:7). The interpretivist argues that social reality is subjective, because it is socially constructed (Collis & Hussey, 2015:47). The interpretivism paradigm attempts to understand, explain, and demystify social reality through the eyes of different participants (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:19). This is accomplished by intermingling with people and observing them in their natural settings thereby enabling researchers to have an in-depth subjective understanding of their lives. Interpretivists seek to 'describe, interpret and otherwise come to terms with meaning, not frequency of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world' (Van Maanen, 1983:9).

#### **4.3.1.4 Pragmatism**

Pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy (Creswell, 2014:39). In fact, pragmatists argue that it's not necessary to ask questions about reality and the laws of nature (Collis & Hussey, 2015:55). Pragmatists use methods that "suit the problem rather than methods that suit ontology or epistemology concerns" (Holden & Lynch, 2004:11). Pragmatists argue that researchers should be free to combine methods from different paradigms selecting them based on usefulness for answering the research question. This implies that it possible to use methods from more than one paradigm in the same study (Collis & Hussey, 2015:54).

#### **4.3.2 *The philosophical orientation of the study***

This study adopted the post-positivist paradigm, which heavily borrows from the positivist paradigm. The basic goal of this study was to establish the tourist taxonomies and have an impression of the sizes of different segments. As such the objectives of the study were better accomplished by adopting the post positivist paradigm, because of its focus on objective reality but at the same time acknowledging that knowledge is tentative and not absolute (c.f. 4.3.1.2).

### **4.4 THE RESEARCH APPROACH**

Research approaches are plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Creswell, 2009:3). Basically, the research approaches can be classified into quantitative, qualitative and mixed research designs (Creswell, 2008:3; Mertler & Charles, 2011:33; Williams, 2007:65). The positivism philosophy informs the quantitative approach, whilst the qualitative approach is underpinned by the interpretivism paradigm, as much as pragmatism informs the mixed methodology approach. The research objectives 'dictate the research approach to be used' (Sigh, 2006:100). Below is a brief analysis of the research approaches.

#### **4.4.1 Quantitative research approach**

Quantitative research involves explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods such as statistical tests (Muijjs, 2004:13). The quantitative approach emphasises on the production of precise and generalisable statistical findings (Rubin & Babbie, 2007:79). It attempts to quantify data and generalise results from samples (MacDonald & Eadlam, 1986:8). The intention is to establish, confirm, or validate relationships and to develop generalisations that contribute to theory (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:102). There are two main types of quantitative research approaches namely, experimental designs and non-experimental designs (Muijjs, 2004:11). However, Creswell (2009:155), seems to suggest that experiments and surveys are the major types of quantitative methods, while, Rubie and Babie, (2007:79) identify experiments, quasi experiments and surveys as the main types of quantitative research. This shows that there is no consensus among scholars on the issue of classification as well as the terminology used in identifying the different types of quantitative research approaches. According to Hancock, Ockleford and Windrdge (2002:13), surveys can be carried out in both qualitative and quantitative studies. Experimental research basically differs from non-experimental in that the former involves controlling some of the research variables whilst in the latter the variables are not manipulated (Muijjs, 2004:11). This study is non-experimental in nature and takes the format of a survey.

#### **4.4.2 Qualitative research approach**

Qualitative methods provide insights into the setting of a research problem, generating of ideas and/or hypotheses (MacDonalds & Headlam, 1986:9). Qualitative research is normally used when one desires to understand people's experiences and how they express their perspectives (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:33). Qualitative research can be used as a precursor to quantitative. It can qualify information that is needed to execute quantitative studies (Clow & James, 2014:96). Qualitative approaches to data collection usually involve direct interaction with individuals on a one to one basis or in a group setting (Hancock *et al.*, 2002:9).

#### **4.4.3 Mixed methods**

Mixed research methods incorporate elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Creswell, 2008: 3; Mertler & Charles, 2011:33). Mixed methodology takes three basic forms depending on the extent to which each method has been incorporated in the study. Thus, a

mixed methodology study can have a qualitative emphasis, quantitative emphasis or equal emphasis (Rubie & Babie, 2007:83).

#### **4.4.4 Research approach for the study**

This study used a quantitative research approach. The main objective of establishing tourist characteristics (preferences, perceptions and motivations) and determining the proportion of tourists falling within different taxonomic groups was best accomplished by quantitative methods. The quantitative approach is quite flexible, in that phenomena not naturally existing in quantitative form can be measured quantitatively by designing instruments with rating scales (Muijis, 2011:2). The approach provides specific facts that can help decision makers to take an informed decision (Shukla, 2008:27). This study sought to establish the different tourist types visiting the destination, which information would assist destination manager to make appropriate decisions on how to improve destination competitiveness. The use of a large sample size and statistical rigour, associated with quantitative research, provides advantages in terms of generalisability, reliability and validity (Shukla, 2008:27).

### **4.5 RESEARCH DESIGN**

The term research design takes on different meanings in different studies (Shukla, 2008:27). Saunders *et al.* (2008:136) defined a research design as the general plan which is followed in the quest for answers to research questions. Meanwhile, Adams *et al.* (2014:81) defined it as a master plan which specifies the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing the needed information. Similarly, Mertler and Charles (2011:35), opined that research designs are the specific procedures involved in the research process, which includes data collection, data analysis and report writing.

#### **4.5.1 Types of research designs**

While there are numerous labels used to identify different types of research designs, these are traditionally classified into three categories namely exploratory, descriptive and casual (Burns & Bush, 2010:51; Clow & James, 2014:27; Shukla, 2008:99).

Exploratory research involves a preliminary examination of a problem or a situation to identify parameters to be studied further and, in some cases, to define a problem. Exploratory research is often used in the first stage of a more comprehensive research study and could be used to provide hypothesis (Clow & James, 2014:27). An exploratory research seeks to

find out 'what is happening, to seek new insights, to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light' (Robson, 2002:59). It is mainly suitable in cases where the precise nature of the problem is not known (Saunders *et al.*, 2008:140). This implies that exploratory research is more oriented towards the qualitative approach, which uses such designs as ethnography, phenomenology (Hancock *et al.*, 2002:4). Methods of exploratory research include focus groups, in-depth interviews, case studies and even pilot studies (Clow & James, 2014:28).

Descriptive research provides information about conditions, situations, and events that occur in the present (Robson, 2002:59). It provides a snapshot of the current state of affairs (Stangor, 2012:1), with the intent to 'portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations' (Robson, 2002:59). Descriptive research also considers the relationship between variables (Burns & Bush, 2010:57; Zikmund & Babin, 2010:51). Similarly, Williams (2007:66) asserted that descriptive research enables the identification of attributes of a particular phenomenon based on an observational basis, or the exploration of correlation between two or more phenomena. However, Kent (1999:6) argued that the term descriptive research should only be used when dealing with research that measures and presents variables one at a time and should not include those that try to evaluate relationships. For studies that combine descriptive and correlational elements, Souse, Driessmack and Mendes (2007:504) referred to them as 'descriptive co-relational studies'. Thus, correlational research involves the search for relationships between variables.

Causal research seeks to identify possible causal relationships (Ross, 2012:3), i.e. whether one variable causes another (Clow & James, 2014:29). The emphasis here is on studying a situation or a problem in order to explain the relationships between variables (Saunders *et al.*, 2008:140). Causal research is sometimes also referred to as 'explanatory research' (Kent, 2007: 18; Saunders *et al.*, 2008:140). The goal of casual research is to eliminate all other possible causes except the one being studied (Clow & James, 2014:29). The section below outlines the research design that was used in this study.

#### **4.5.2 The research design for the study**

This study was largely descriptive in nature because, it mainly focussed on establishing touristic attributes, which were used as a basis for constructing tourist taxonomies. However, the study also sought to investigate non-casual relationships between variables through the inclusion of tests of association, such as Chi-square test of independence. The choice of the most appropriate design depends largely on the objectives of the research (Creswell, 2008:7). According to Blumberg, Copper and Schindler (2008:207), a descriptive study illustrates

phenomena or characteristics, estimates the proportion of population that has the identified characteristics and describes the association among variables. Signh (2006:102) noted that a descriptive survey provides valuable knowledge concerning human behaviour. Descriptive studies, in most case, use numbers which allow for statistical and mathematical relationships to be examined (Clow & James, 2014:28). As such, the objectives of the study were best addressed by a descriptive design which included the investigation of non-casual relationships between variables.

### **4.5.3 Sampling**

The study largely used probability forms of sampling. Sampling is the process of drawing a sample from a population (Gravetter & Forzano, 2011: 143). A good sample should resemble the population, from which it came, on all characteristics (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:248). Sampling methods are classified as either probability sampling or non-probability sampling. What differentiates them is that, in a probability sample the chances of members of the wider population being selected for the sample are known, whereas in a non-probability sample the chances of members of the wider population being selected for the sample are unknown (Cohen, 2007: 110).

#### **4.5.3.1 Probability sampling**

Probability sampling is one in which it is possible to state that the likelihood (probability) of each member being selected for the sample is the same (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:143; Johnson & Christensen, 2014:273; Mertler & Charles, 2011:102). Types of probability sampling are: random sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling and systematic sampling. In practice, it is also possible to combine two or more probability sampling techniques (Mertler & Charles, 2011:102).

A random sample is one which gives each unit within the population an equal chance of being selected and is the corner stone of sampling theory (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:251). Random samples can be handpicked using tables of random numbers or computer programmes (Mertler & Charles, 2011:102).

Systematic sampling involves determining a sampling interval, selecting a random starting point between 1 and k and selecting every k<sup>th</sup> item (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:146; Johnson & Christensen, 2014:255).

Stratified sampling is used when a researcher wants to ensure that sub-groups within the population are represented proportionally in the sample (Mertler & Charles, 2011:102). Further, stratified random sampling entails subdividing the population into mutually related classes and then selecting a random sample from each group (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:259). It is employed in case where the population has identifiable sub groups and is carried out to ensure that classes are adequately represented (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012: 147). In proportional stratified sampling, the proportions in the sample should reflect the actual proportions in the population whereas disproportionate sampling selects equal percentages for the subsets involved. (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:259-260).

Cluster sampling involves the selection of groups that already exist. Here the researcher selects groups rather than individuals (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:149; Mertler & Charles, 2011:102). A cluster refers to a collective type of unit that includes multiple elements rather than a single unit. Meanwhile, cluster random sampling is a sampling method where clusters are randomly selected (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:261). Multi stage sampling entails a set of randomly selected clusters in which all the elements in the selected clusters are included in the sample (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:261).

Probability sampling methods are most appropriate when one intends to generalise findings as they are deemed to be more representative of the population from which they are drawn. These methods require extensive knowledge of the population, specifically, there is need to list all the individuals in the population and in most situations this information is not always available (Gravetter & Forzano, 2011:143). However, researchers do not always use the most powerful sampling methods, frequently non-random samples are drawn (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:273). According to Gravetter and Farzano (2011:143), probability sampling methods are rarely used, except in research involving small contained populations. This study investigated a large population of tourists whose population frame tends to be inconsistent and difficult to manage. As a result, this made the use of random sampling difficult. Systematic sampling could have been used, but this was not, due to time constraints required as it would have required more time.

#### **4.5.3.2 Non-random sampling techniques**

Non-probability sampling is a sampling procedure whereby the inclusion of each member of the population cannot be specified (Mertler & Charles, 2011:103), and as such they are biased (Saunders, 2008:218). This is because the researcher does not know the population and

cannot list the members of the population (Gravetter & Forzano, 2011:143). It is used when probability sampling is not feasible (Mertler & Charles, 2011:103).

Types of probability sampling include convenience sampling, quota sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:273; Mertler & Charles, 2011:103). Convenience sampling involves selecting units or people, who are available or those who can be recruited easily and are willing to participate. Technically speaking, we cannot generalise from a convenience sample (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:263). Similarly, Mertler and Charles (2011:103) stated that the results from convenience sampling should be generalised with caution. However, researchers often use convenience sampling because of practical constraints.

Quota sampling is whereby the researcher identifies the major groups or subgroups of interest and determines the number of people to be included in each group (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:265). Quota sampling can ensure that subgroups are represented, thereby improving the representativeness status of convenience sampling (Gravetter & Forzano, 2011: 152).

In purposive sampling the researcher specifies the characteristics of a population of interest and then tries to locate individuals who have those characteristics (Johnson & Christensen, 2014:265).

In snowballing each research participant who accepts to be in a research study is asked to identify one or more additional people who meet certain characteristics and may be willing to participate in the research study. This sampling method can be used to locate members of populations that are hard to find or when no sampling frame is available.

Meanwhile, convenience sampling can be improved by borrowing from some of the procedures of systematic sampling. For example, a researcher can choose to target every 5<sup>th</sup> person, which would ensure that the researcher is not focussing on a particular sub group or people who appear to be more approachable.

#### **4.5.4 The sampling procedures for the study**

The study used the census approach and the non-probability sampling procedure. The census method was applied in that, at national level all the six tourism regions were included in the study. Convenience sampling was then used to recruit the respondents. Researchers have

established that convenience sampling is prone to bias, since it relies on cases that are easy to get, resultantly making it rather difficult to obtain a reliable sample (Saunders *et al.*, 2008:241). That notwithstanding, the study is making use of a large population of tourists whose population frame is inconsistent and difficult to determine. As a result, this makes random sampling difficult to apply. Systematic sampling could have been used, but there was no guarantee that the systematically selected respondents would be willing to participate in the study, which would have required more time and resources to get a good sample size. In view of such practical constraints in terms of time, financial resources and logistics that method was not used in this study. According to Johnson and Christensen (2014:273), researchers do not always use the most powerful sampling methods, but frequently non-random samples are drawn. Similarly, Gravetter and Forzano (2011:143), observed that probability sampling methods are rarely used, except in studies involving small populations.

The sampling for this study was done in three phases. The first stage involved the identification of the tourist regions at a national level. The second stage was to do with the selection of the study sites within the identified tourist region. The third stage involved the recruitment of the individual respondents.

- *Selection of Study Areas*

Zimbabwe was divided into six tourist regions, with each region having several tourist sites. The tourist regions are Victoria Falls, Kariba, Bulawayo, Great Zimbabwe and Eastern Highlands (Vengesayi, 2003:110), and Harare. All the regions were covered in the study, which means that a census method was used in the selection of study regions.

- *Selection of Study Sites*

The researcher then selected one tourist area within each region, using purposive sampling. Thus, the seemingly popular areas were chosen in each region. The following tourist hot spots were selected: the Victoria Falls representing the Victoria Falls region, Kariba resort representing the Kariba region, Bulawayo representing the Bulawayo region, Nyanga representing the Eastern Highlands, Masvingo representing the Great Zimbabwe region and Harare, which was included as an additional region in this study, since it is the capital city.

Two business events were covered, namely, the Zimbabwe International Trade Fair (ZITF) in Bulawayo, and the Sanganayi/Hlanganani Tourism Expo.

- *Selection of Respondents*

At each tourist site, depending with the nature of the region, the researcher targeted those spots where tourists gathered in large numbers. Data was collected mainly from airports, international events, accommodation establishments and relaxation or activity sites. Data was collected during the period 28 December 2015 to 16 June 2016. Table 4.1 shows the six regions which were included in this study and the type tourist spots which were targeted for data collection including the specific times when data was collected.

**Table 4.1: Regions and tourist hot spots targeted for the study**

Name of the tourist regions	Data collection sites	Data collection time
Eastern Highlands	Accommodation establishments/ Relaxation and Activity Sites	
Harare	Harare International Airport	
Bulawayo	ZITF and Sanganai International Travel Expo	
Victoria Falls	Victoria Falls International Airport and Tour Operators	
Kariba	Relaxation and activity sites and Kariba Airport	
Great Zimbabwe	Accommodation Establishments and Relaxation and Activity Sites (Lake Mutirikwi)	

**Source: Author's compilation**

The Airports were the major hub for international tourists, namely, Harare and Victoria Falls airports. Most of the domestic tourist respondents were recruited from the Eastern Highlands, Kariba and Great Zimbabwe, though handful of domestic tourists were also recruited at Victoria Falls and Kariba airports. Bulawayo provided a balanced mix of both domestic and international tourists.

At a given site all tourist within reach were requested to participate in the study and those who indicated willingness were given self-administered questionnaires to complete. This was done in order to avoid focussing on a particular sub-group or people who appeared more approachable. The strategy, firstly, of including all the tourist regions at the national level, and secondly, of approaching tourists at random until the desired size was reached, was meant to improve the representativeness of the sample. More so, a deliberate effort was made to

include tourists from different tourism blocs. This was achieved by ensuring that a minimum of 30 tourists were included from the major source markets namely, Africa, America, Europe and Asia. The use of a large target sample helped to ensure that the minimum number of 30 was achieved. More so, most of international tourists who were approached were very cooperative making it possible to reach the target.

#### **4.5.5 The sample size**

The study targeted a sample of 1200 respondents. According to Salaria (2012:2), a good sample should be representative and of sufficient size to allow confidence in the stability of its characteristics. Sample size is important primarily because of its effect on statistical power. Statistical power is the probability that a statistical test will indicate a significant difference when there is truly one (Eng, 2003:310). The sample size should be carefully fixed so that it will be adequate to draw valid and generalised conclusions (Singh & Masuku, 2014:7). Larger sample sizes generally lead to increased precision when estimating unknown parameters. There are several approaches to determining sample size (Singh & Masuku, 2014:10).

These include using a census for small populations, imitating a sample size of similar studies, using published tables, and applying formulas to calculate a sample size (Singh & Masuku, 2014:10). The strategy of imitating previous studies exposes researchers to the risk of inheriting that study's errors (Singh & Masuku, 2014:10). For survey research studies, a common recommendation is to sample approximately 10% - 20% of the population, however, this is not possible with large populations Gay *et al.* (as cited by Mertler & Charles, 2011:105). Given these competing influences, it is not surprising that the final sample size is almost always a matter of judgement as well as of calculation (Saunders, 2008:218).

Zimbabwe receives more than a million visitors per annum, and the strategy of using 10-20% yields an extremely large sample. As a result, the researcher was guided by other methods which can be employed to come up with sample sizes, especially, Glen's (2009:3) sample size table. Glen's (2009:3) sample tables show that for populations exceeding 100 000, a sample of 400 is sufficient if one wants to use the 95% confidence level. The researcher targeted a sample of 1200 tourists because the study population included both international and domestic tourists. In coming up with that figure, the researcher was also guided by a related study carried by Vengesayi (2003) in Zimbabwe, which targeted more than 700 tourists. The goal in this was to achieve a minimum of 400 actual respondents each for the two sub-groups, i.e. domestic and international tourists. In this study, a large sample size was used in order to make up for the deficiencies of convenience sampling. The researcher attempted to merge

the strengths of different sampling procedures, in an attempt to obtain the most accurate possible results, in the given circumstances.

#### **4.5.6 Research methods**

Research Methods are the specific procedures and techniques used to collect and analyse data (Crotty, 1998:3; Dawson, 2009:14). The study employed both primary and secondary data sources. Data can be solicited for through four basic approaches which are experiments, surveys, field research and secondary data (Singleton & Straits, 2010:193). Primary data refer to information obtained first hand by the researcher on the variables of interest for the specific purpose of the study, while secondary data refer to information gathered from sources already existing (Sekaran, 2008:220). There are several sources of secondary data, including books and periodicals, government publications of economic indicators, census data, Statistical Abstracts, data bases, the media, annual reports of companies (Sekaran, 2008:223). The survey method was used as the method for collecting primary data in this study.

##### **4.5.6.1 The survey**

Most scholars tend to avoid defining the word survey and only explain what a survey constitutes (de Leew *et al.*, 2008:2) and there seems to be no consensus among authors on what a survey really involves. However, the limited definitions found in literature describe a survey as a method of gathering information from a sample (Adams *et al.*, 2014:87; Scheren, 2004:9). There are two types of surveys namely, cross sectional surveys and longitudinal surveys (Singleton & Straits, 2010:272). Cross sectional studies are carried out at a single point in time, while longitudinal study asks the same question at multiple points in time the latter are useful for tracking trends (Clow & James, 2014:35). Surveys are one of the most common methods for collecting descriptive data (Clow & James, 2014:35), making it possible to collect data from many people (Mertler & Charles, 2011:242). Surveys offer an effective means of social description that provides extraordinarily detailed and precise information about large and heterogeneous population (Singleton & Straits, 2010; 272). They are a flexible tool, which can produce both qualitative and quantitative information depending on how they are structured and analysed (MacDonalds & Headlam, 1986:8). Saunders *et al.* (2008:142) noted that the survey strategy is usually associated with the deductive approach. However, surveys often suffer from low response rates (Adams *et al.*, 2014:128).

The survey method encompasses a body of methods (Collis & Hussey, 2015:55) and Sekaran, (2008:223), identified interviews, questionnaires, and observation as the three main data

collection methods used in survey research. However, Singleton and Straits (2010; 270), maintained that interviews and questionnaires are the two basic methods in survey research.

#### **4.5.6.2 Data collection methods**

According to Corbetta (2003:12–13), the four basic methods which can be used to gather data are questionnaires, interviews, focus groups and observations. The section below briefly examines the generic methods of data collection.

- *Interviews*

An interview is a purposeful discussion between two or more people Kahn and Cannel (cited by Saunders *et al.*, 2008:306). The interview method of collecting data involves presentation of oral-verbal stimuli and reply in terms of oral-verbal responses (Kothari, 2004:97). There are three types of interviews, namely structured, semi-structured and unstructured (Saunders *et al.*, 2008:306; Sekeran, 2008:225; Singleton & Straits, 2010:266). Interviews, especially the face to face, tend to have a high response rate (Singleton & Straits, 2010:283). Interviews provide rich detailed information and insights into the subject under investigation (Clow & James, 2014:28). With in-depth interviews the goal is to probe deep into an individual's thoughts and ideas in order to better understand a person's mental disposition (Clow & James, 2014:108). A typical in-depth interview, which provides ample opportunity for probing deep thoughts, lasts for one to two hours. The researcher not only controls the interpretation but has great control over the interview itself. While interviews can yield thoughts and ideas which may not possibly come out from a group, they are highly subjective because the interviewer controls the interpretation of the findings (Clow & James, 2015:109).

- *Observation*

The observation method seeks information by way of investigator's own direct observation without asking from the respondent (Kothari, 2004:9). Observation is a tool used to collect data about behaviours, but it cannot be used to explain the reasons behind the behaviours (Clow & James, 2014:128). They allow data to be collected in its natural setting and simultaneously at different locations. Observation can be open or disguised (Dawson, 2009:32). In undisguised observation individuals know that they are being observed, whereas in disguised observation they are not aware (Clow & James, 2014:131). In disguised observations, the advantage is that participants' behaviours are not affected by knowledge of

being observed, but the disadvantage is that the researcher cannot obtain demographic information (Khothari, 2004:96).

- *Focus groups*

Focus groups may be called discussion groups or group interviews (Dawson, 2009:29). According to Ritchie and Lewis (2003:171), data are generated by interaction between group participants. Focus group discussions are aimed at obtaining respondents' impressions, interpretations, and opinions, on a specific topic. Focus groups are relatively inexpensive and can provide fairly dependable data within a short time frame. They can be more efficient than interviews (Adams, *et al.*, 2014:111) as it possible to receive a wide range of responses during one meeting (Dawson, 2009:29). The major disadvantage for a focus group discussion is that individuals can come to consensus on a thought or an idea through the informal leadership of one or two individuals (Clow & James, 2014:98). In addition, some individuals may not feel comfortable to speak in group and only socially acceptable answers may come out. Nevertheless, by conducting focus group discussions the moderator is able to observe body language of participants in addition to the verbal comments (Clow & James, 2014:98-99, 108).

- *Questionnaire*

The study used a questionnaire to collect data from the respondents. A questionnaire is a collection of questions that draw out desired information from a sample using standardised responses (Neelankavil, 2007:184-185). Questionnaires can be self-administered or interviewer administered. Self-administered questionnaires can be classified into the following types, delivery and collection questionnaires, mail questionnaires, internet mediated questionnaires (Saunders *et al.*, 2008:362; Sekaran, 2008:224). The interviewer aided questionnaires can be administered face to face or through the telephone (Saunders *et al.*, 2008:362).

Questionnaires have the advantage of obtaining data more efficiently in terms of time, energy, and costs on the part of the researcher (Sekaran, 2008:224). They are also convenient to respondents as they can choose a suitable time to respond. Questionnaires also assure privacy as respondents may be willing to reveal sensitive information or socially undesirable behaviours in self-administered questionnaires than in face to face interviews (Singleton & Straits, 2010:266). Other advantages of self-completion questionnaires are that they are cheaper and quicker to administer, eliminate absence interviewers, no interviewer variability, convenient to respondents. However, disadvantages of questionnaires are that, it is not

possible to probe and collect additional information, they are associated with low response rates and run a greater risk of missing data (Bryman & Bell, 2007:233-234). In addition, self-administered questionnaires are vulnerable to non-response bias due to response selectivity (Singleton & Straits, 2010:288). Similarly, Kothari (2004:101) noted that questionnaires are vulnerable to ambiguous replies or omission of replies, making interpretation difficult. More so, in the case of rating scales questionnaires are prone to acquiescence, which is the tendency of some people to agree or disagree with a set of questions or items (Bryman & Bell, 2007:220). However, the advantages of questionnaires far outweigh their limitations.

The need to come up with standardised information which would be analysed quantitatively was best achieved through the use of a questionnaire. Additionally, the nature of the study required a large sample, which was best obtainable by using a self-administered questionnaire.

#### **4.5.6.3 Questionnaire development**

The questionnaire comprised of five sections and used a five-point Likert scale. According to Rubin and Babbie (2007:210), the Likert scale provides options to choose from a set of responses that reflect different degrees giving an opportunity, in a way, for respondents to clarify their answers.

Section A had questions on motivation, which questions were included in order to have a better understanding of the tourist's preferences and perceptions as well getting insights on the demand drivers for tourism in Zimbabwe. In designing the section on motivations, the researcher used the recurring themes on motivations as illustrated by such authors as Dann's (1977) push-pull model, Crompton (1979) and Pearce (2005). The researcher also included specific pull factors based on the unique attributes (wildlife, scenery, climate and the local cuisine) of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination.

Section B contained questions on tourist behavioural preferences. Most of the questions were derived from the International Tourist Role (ITR) Scale designed by Mo *et al.* (1993). The activity and environment related variables were included in order to capture the changing tourist needs and these were designed by the researcher.

Section C established tourist perceptions about the products and services on offer in the country. The researcher developed variables for this section guided by literature from destination competitiveness models namely Ritchie and Crouch (2000) and Dwyer and Kim (2003). Caution was made to include only those variables (core resources, activities, pricing, hospitality and safety) which tourists were able to evaluate.

Section D comprised of questions seeking to reveal demographic and trip characteristics. In terms of trip characteristics, respondents are asked to give information such as their country of origin, travel company, how they booked for the trip and sources of information they consulted before visiting the destination.

Each section had an opened question to allow respondents to independently express themselves on the main theme of the section. The questionnaire was developed with the guidance of two supervisors who provided their expert opinion on the first draft of the questionnaire that the researcher had designed. After a series of alterations and amendments, the questionnaire was approved in mid-December 2015.

The questionnaire was pre-tested in Nyanga during the Christmas holidays. No major changes were made to the questionnaire except in section A where 'religion and pilgrimage' was added to the section on trip purpose.

#### **4.5.6.4 Data collection procedures**

The study was conducted at six different tourist hot spots in Zimbabwe between December 2015 and June 2016. The study areas are Nyanga, Harare, Bulawayo, Victoria Falls, Kariba and Masvingo. The researcher sought permission from key tourist organisations at each tourist hot spot. The pilot test was conducted in December 2015 during the Christmas holidays. Most of the data was collected during the Easter holidays March 2016. However, the survey in Nyanga was done at the end of December 2015, soon after the pilot test, in order to cut costs. In Harare, the Harare International Airport was the main target, while in Victoria Falls the main research site was the Victoria Fall airport. Two business events, the country's International Travel Expo known as Sanganai/Hlanganani and the ZITF were covered. However, a second event; HIFA which had also been targeted was cancelled. This event was traditionally held in Harare and would have provided an opportunity to collect data from leisure tourists who normally attend the festival. This left the researcher with no particular event to target for leisure tourists in Harare. Efforts to get access to tourists booked at accommodation establishments

in Harare and neighbouring sites such as Lake Chivero were fruitless due to bureaucratic hurdles. However, from the Sanganaï/Hlangani, and ZITF the researcher managed to get tourists from Harare. Although these were given the questionnaires at business functions, they were still able to reveal their leisure preferences. A total of 137 questionnaires were collected from both events which were held from 22-25 April 2016 and 15-18 June 2016 respectively.

Permission was sought from the Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe (CAAZ) and the ZTA to access the country's airports and events, respectively. These two organisations were very supportive. At the Harare International Airport, the research assistant managed to administer a total of 300 questionnaires from 29-31 March 2016. Such a high response rate was very encouraging given the fact that the study used convenience sampling. At Victoria Falls, most of the data was collected during the Easter holiday from 24-26 March 2016, with a total of 295 questionnaires administered. However, some of the questionnaires at this site were administered to tourists booked with tour operator organisations and accommodation establishments. This was done in order to boost the numbers of domestic tourists most of whom were using road transport. In Kariba, the researcher did not manage to get a meaningful number despite targeting the airport, relaxation sites and some accommodation establishments. This was because there were very few tourists in that resort town during the Easter holidays. The same applies to Masvingo where only 79 questionnaires were administered in three days between 25-27 March 2016. In Nyanga a total of 141 questionnaires were completed. However, most of them were unusable because they were not properly completed. In Bulawayo data was collected from two business events the ZITF and Sanganaï/Hlanganaï tourism expo and a total of 150 questionnaires were distributed with each event receiving 75 questionnaires. All in 137 questionnaires were collected and 90 were found usable. At the ZITF data was collected from 25-29 April 2016. Data was also collected from tourists attending the Sanganaï Hlanganaï tourism expo.

At each hot spot, tourists based at accommodation establishments, departure lounge at airports and those going about their activities were approached randomly. Research assistants were engaged to gather data since the research was carried out at different geographically isolated tourists' sites. The researcher made use of former students with a degree qualification in Hospitality and Tourism Management, the third research assistant was a colleague who is a PhD candidate. Generally, domestic tourists were reluctant to participate in the study, their major complaint being that the questionnaire was too long.

**Table 4.2: Questionnaires distributed**

Tourist hot spots	Sample size
Harare airport	300
Victoria falls airport	300
Masvingo	150
Kariba	150
Bulawayo ZITF/Sanganyi	150
Nyanga	100
Total	1200

The study used convenient sampling because it was difficult to determine the sampling frame. Not all questionnaires were usable because they had many empty spaces.

#### **4.5.7 Validity**

Validity refers to a researchers' ability to "draw meaningful and justifiable inferences from scores about a sample or population" (Creswell, 2005: 600). Validity is the ability of a scale or measuring instrument to measure what was intended to be measured (Colis, 2015:53; Neelankavil, 2007:184). It assesses the accuracy of the measuring instrument. Three types of validity commonly examined in research methods are content validity, construct validity and criterion validity (Adams *et al.*, 2014:237).

Content validity refers to whether or not the content of the manifest variables e.g. items of test questions of a questionnaire is able to measure the latent concept that we are trying to measure. Content validity relates to theoretical knowledge of the area (Muijis, 2004:71). It concerns the extent to which a measure adequately represents all the facets of a concept (Clow & James, 2014:270; Singleton & Straits, 2010:139) and can be improved by asking experts and respondents about their views on the content of the instrument (Muijis 2004:71). Content validity usually depends on the judgment of experts in the field (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008:279). However, it is a subjective method and the least accurate (Adams, 2014:184-206).

Criterion validity is more applicable to instruments that are developed for some practical purpose rather than theoretical studies, <testing hypotheses or advancing scientific knowledge (Singleton & Straits, 2010:139-140). Construct validity is to with whether the instrument is measuring the intended construct or concept and its interpretation. It assesses how well a measurement can predict future actions or behaviour. Construct validity can be

demonstrated by finding out whether the measure has both convergent and discriminate validity (Singleton & Straits, 2010:140).

The questionnaire items for this study were largely informed by similar studies on tourist typologies, especially the Mo and Havitz international scale. Face validity was enhanced by conducting a pilot study. Content validity was enhanced by seeking expert opinion from tourism academics, in particular the researcher's two supervisors.

#### **4.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Ethics in a study refers to the right behaviour and addresses the question of how to conduct research in a moral and responsible way (Blumberg *et al.*, 2008:154). In general, a research should be designed in such a way that that the respondent must not suffer physical harm, discomfort, pain, embarrassment or loss of privacy. To safeguard against these, the research should follow three guidelines which entails explaining the benefits of the study, explaining the participants' rights and protection and inclusion of the participant's informed consent (Blumberg *et al.*, 2008:156). In this study, the researcher, sought permission from responsible institutions to gain access to tourists. Some of the targeted organisations were excluded from this study after the researcher was denied access.

Respondents were not forced to complete the questionnaire. The researcher first sought the consent of the organisations and institutions that handled tourists, before proceeding to request respondents to complete the questionnaires.

#### **4.7 CONCLUSION**

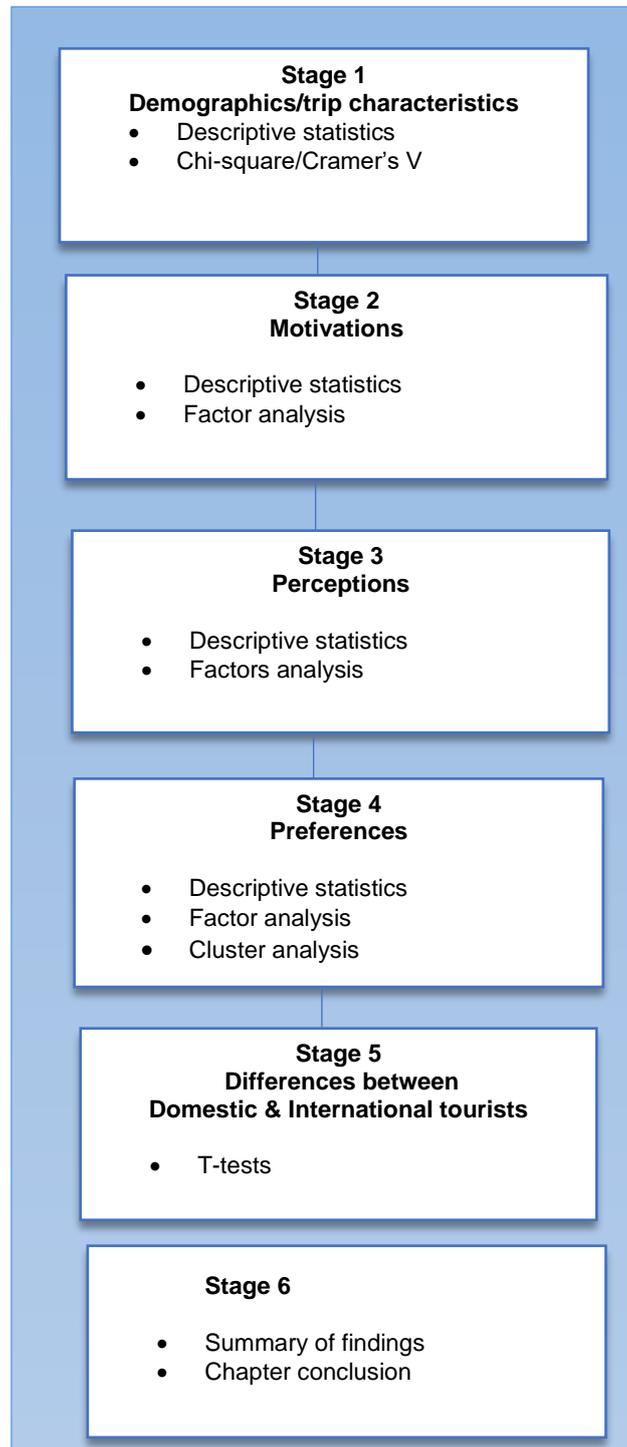
The methodology was to a greater extent adhered to as initially planned. However, accommodation sites were not made the primary points for collecting data because of access issues. Instead, this was complemented by use of the country's airports, especially for international tourists. Nevertheless, the accommodation establishments and relaxation sites mainly yielded domestic tourists. The study mainly used, non-probability sampling, which, to some extent, compromises the generalisability of the data. Meanwhile, the use of a large sample and the inclusion of tourists from different sites all over the country were meant to improve the representativeness of the data.

## **CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents, analyses, interprets and discusses the results of the study. The main goal of the study was to establish the tourist taxonomies and illustrate how taxonomies can be used to enhance destination competitiveness. This chapter answers four of the study's seven objectives, which are; to establish the demand drivers for Zimbabwe's tourism industry, to assess the competitiveness perceptions of tourists visiting the country, to ascertain the preferences of tourists and to identify (preference based) tourist taxonomies for tourists visiting the country. The research findings were analysed by the Department of Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University Potchefstroom campus, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

The study used the quantitative approach and data was collected from both international and domestic tourists at six different tourist hot spots in Zimbabwe by means of an 8-page questionnaire. The questionnaire comprised of four sections, with the first section consisting of questions which sought to establish the demographic and travel characteristics of the tourists. The second section comprised of the motivation items, while the third section comprised of the preference items, upon which the typologies were based. The fourth section comprised of statements which sought to establish the perceptions of tourists on selected destination attributes. The results of the study were analysed at five levels as shown in Figure 5.1.



**Figure 5. 1: Data analysis structure**

Firstly, the socio-demographic and trip characteristics were examined using descriptive statistics, the Chi-square test of independence and the Cramer's V. Secondly, the motivations were analysed using descriptive statistics and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). Third, the perceptions were assessed using descriptive statistics, followed by factor analysis. Fourth, the

perception variables were examined using descriptive statistics and factor analysis. Then the factor scores were used in cluster analysis to establish the tourist taxonomies. The fifth step investigated whether there were statistically significant results between domestic and international tourists in relation to motivations, preferences and perceptions. The last stage focussed on summary of findings and chapter conclusion.

## 5.2 THE RESPONSE RATE

A total of 1200 questionnaires were administered, from which 869 usable questionnaires were obtained. Data was collected from six different tourist hot spots using convenience sampling (Table 5.1). Harare International Airport and Victoria Falls Airport were allocated 300 questionnaires because these are places where international tourists are found in large numbers. The other four tourist hot spots were allocated 150 questionnaires each. These areas receive more of domestic tourists.

**Table 5.1: Response rate**

Tourist	Collection spot	Administered	Returned	Valid	Response
Regions					Rate
Harare	Harare airport	300	290	249	83%
Bulawayo	ZITF	150	95	90	60.0%
Victoria Falls	Victoria falls airport	300	300	295	98.33%
Kariba	Hotels and activity sites	150	110	80	53.3%
Great Zimbabwe	Hotels and activity sites	150	89	79	50.7%
Eastern Highlands	Hotels and activity sites	150	150	76	52.7%
<b>Total</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>1200</b>	<b>1034</b>	<b>869</b>	<b>72.4%</b>

As shown in Table 5.1, the response rate was 72.4%, which is above the generally accepted threshold for statistical analysis. According to Rubin and Babbie (2007), a response rate of at least 70% is considered to be very good. When the usable questionnaires were split into domestic (n=316) and international tourists (n=543), the response rate was 52.6% and 90.5% respectively.

## 5.3 RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Cronbach's alpha was computed for each section of the study to test the reliability of the instrument used. An overall high Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) 0.933 was established with motivations scoring (0.849), preferences (0.855), and perceptions (0.915). A minimum alpha value of 0.70

is generally considered as the minimum threshold (Mohsen & Dennick, 2011:54) and the high Cronbach's alpha values obtained for all the three sections show that the research instrument was reliable.

## **5.4 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS**

The socio-demographic characteristics are presented for the global sample, although reference is also made to unique characteristics at regional (continental) level so as to illustrate the differences among tourists from different geographical locations. In this study, Zimbabwe was treated as a standalone region, in order to ascertain whether domestic tourist differed from foreign tourists. The Middle East was excluded because the sample size (n=4) was too small.

### **5.4.1 Sex/gender**

Table 5.2 illustrates that for the global sample, females comprised 50.7% and males constituted 49.3%, showing a slight difference in 'gender' distribution. This implies that the measures which were put in place to reduce biases associated with convenience sampling were quite effective. At regional level, females dominated the European and American markets with 58.9% and 61.0% respectively, whereas for the Asia-Pacific region, males (56.5%) outnumbered females (43.5%). Zimbabwe had more males (52.5%) than females (47.5%). Similarly, the 'other African' grouping also had more males (58.2%) than females (41.8%). Statistically significant differences  $\chi^2(5=17.672) = 0.03$  were found between regions in terms of gender. There may be need to conduct further research to establish why there is gender disparity between regions, particularly why females tend to dominate in the American and European market. This is in view of indications in anecdotal literature that some female tourists, especially from, Europe visit Victoria Falls in Zimbabwe for sex tourism.

### **5.4.2 Age**

With regards to age, most of the tourists, making up 79.6% of the total sample, were below the age of 50. The senior tourists (50 years and above) accounted for 20.4%. In this study the senior market is represented by those aged 50 years and above. The American and European regions had a relatively high proportion of the senior market as compared to the other regions, with 38.8% and 32.9% respectively. Zimbabwe and other African countries were dominated by the 18-30 and 31-40 age groups. In contrast, 13.4% of tourists from Zimbabwe were above the age of 50, while those from other African countries in that category comprised 12.7%.

Similarly, for the Asia-Pacific region (17.9%) were above 50 years of age. Europe and North America (developed countries) have older people (United Nations-WPA, 2015:10), while African countries have more young people (World Bank, 2015:144). Therefore, the differences between regions in relation to age is consistent with current demographic trends where 'developing' countries such as Zimbabwe have relatively younger populations as compared to 'developed' countries. The differences between regions in respect of age were statistically significant  $\chi^2 (20=84.254) = 0.00$ .

### **5.4.3 Education**

Concerning the level of education, 46.0% of the respondents possessed degrees, while only 2.2% had primary education. Most tourists from America (67%) and Europe (57.7%) had a minimum qualification of a degree. The higher levels of education of the respondents worked to the advantage of the researcher, as the respondents had capacity to understand the research instrument and respond to it from a more objective perspective. Statistically significant differences  $\chi^2 (20=49.869) = 0.00$  were found between regions in relation to educational levels.

**Table 5.2: Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents**

Socio-demographics	Total sample n=852	Zimbabwe n=315	Africa n=225	America n=105	Europe n=146	Asia/Pacific n=61	X	DF.	Sig.	Cram.
Gender							17.672	5	.003	.146
Females	49.3	47.5	41.8	61	58.9	43.5				
Males	50.7	52.5	58.2	31	41.1	56.5				
Age							84.254	20	.000	.162
18-30	29.3	30.7	31.2	28.3	25.2	26.8				
31-40	30.0	33.9	33.2	24.3	22.4	28.6				
41-50	20.3	21.8	22.2	8.7	19.6	26.8				
51-60	12.3	10.0	9.8	15.5	16.8	17.9				
60+	8.1	3.6	3.6	23.3	16.1	-				
Level of education							49.869	20	.000	.128
Primary	2.2	3.3	1.5	-	1.4	1.8				
Secondary	15.1	21.9	14.1	6.2	10.1	16.4				
Professional qualification	17.1	17.8	19.1	14.4	12.3	20.0				
Diploma	19.5	17.8	23.1	12.4	22.5	20.0				
Degree	46.0	39.2	42.2	67.0	53.7	41.8				
Other	0.1									
Income							141.173	25	.000	.199

Less than US1000	31.8	51.2	25.4	17.6	15.1	26.3				
US 1000-1999	15.8	17.8	21.4	7.6	7.9	17.6				
US2000-3999	20.0	14.3	24.9	18.7	25.4	21.1				
US4000-7999	15.8	8.9	14.1	18.7	28.6	17.5				
US8000-1599	11.2	4.7	10.2	26.4	14.3	14.0				
US16000+	5.4	3.1	4.0	11.0	8.7	3.5				

**\*Chi-square significant at  $p < 0.05$  \*\* Cramer's V significant at  $> 0.20$**

**\*Statistical significant differences with a Cramer's V value below 0.20 were considered practically insignificant.**

**\* Middle East was excluded because the number of respondents was too small.**

#### 5.4.4 Income

In terms of income, a relatively high number of tourists (31.8%) earned below 1000 USD. The American and European tourists earned relatively higher in comparison to tourists from other regions. Tourists from America (51.1%) and those from Europe (50.6%) earned 4000 USD and above. Zimbabwe had the highest number of tourists (51.2%) earning below 1000 USD, which is reflective of the actual situation in the country. (IMARA, 2011:6) noted that continued low economic performance is one of the reasons which has contributed to the poor performance of the tourism industry in Zimbabwe. In fact, Rusike and Chitambara (2012:6) stated that lack of disposable income, among other things, is inhibiting the development of domestic tourism in Zimbabwe. Differences in income between regions were statistically significant  $\chi^2 (20=141.173) =0.000$  and can be considered of practical value though the corresponding Cramer V value of 0.199 was slightly below 0.20. According to the World Bank (2015:1). According to Rea and Parker (1992), Cramer's V value which is above 0.10 but less than 0.20 as represents a weak association.

While, the differences in age, gender and education among the regions, were statistically significant, the strength of the association was weak since all the Cramer's V values were far below the minimum threshold of 0.20 (see table 5.2). This means that the differences were not practically important, and it may not be prudent to use the information to guide the development of the tourism products in the country.

#### 5.4.5 Nationality of respondents

Zimbabwe's tourism market is quite diverse. The study managed to include tourists from 53 different nations, with at least 14 countries recording 10 respondents and above. Table 5.3 illustrates the countries which contributed at least 10 out of a total of 869 respondents. Japan is one of the major markets but was underrepresented in this study because of a language barrier.

**Table 5.3: Countries with 10 respondents and above**

Rank	Country	Respondents	%
1	Zimbabwe	316	36.5
2	South Africa	110	12.7
3	United States of America	93	10.7
4	Britain & Ireland	71	8.2
5	Zambia	25	2.9

6	Germany	23	2.7
7	Australia	22	2.5
8	Botswana	16	1.6
9	Namibia	20	2.3
10	France	14	1.6
11	Mozambique	12	1.4
12	Malawi	13	1.5
13	Canada	10	1.4
14	China	10	1.9
15	*Japan	3	0.59

The proportion of the respondents by nationality closely resembled the actual market share. For example, South Africa, United States of America, Britain and Ireland were the leading markets for the country in 2015 (ZTA; 2015:7) and the same is reflected in the study. At regional level, Africa, excluding Zimbabwe, had (n=225), America (n=105), Europe (n=146), Asia and Pacific (n=61) and Middle East n= (n=4). According to ZTA (2015:7), Africa is the major tourist source market for Zimbabwe, followed by Europe, America, Asia and the Pacific and then the Middle East. As a result, the study sample, to a greater extent, reflected the actual situation in the market an indication that the sample was fairly representative.

## 5.5 TRIP CHARACTERISTICS

Trip characteristics included in the study were: type of accommodation used, trip purpose, sources of information consulted, travel company and whether the tourists were repeat or first-time visitors. Table 5.4 shows the trip characteristics of the respondents.

### 5.5.1 Types of accommodation

Tourists used a variety of accommodation with 4-5-star hotels being the most popular accommodation type (28.5%), followed by VFR (21.4%). The other forms of accommodation used by tourists were self-catering lodges (19.9%) and 1-3-star hotels (19.4%). Motels (4.3%) and camping (4.6%) were used less, with houseboats (1.9%) being the least popular. At regional level, tourists from Europe (42.2%) used 4-5-star hotels most, followed by those from America (34.0%), while Zimbabwe had the least number (21.0%). As for the 1-3-star category, tourists from America (29.9%) used this type of accommodation more than other regions. Self-catering accommodation was popular among tourists from Zimbabwe (29.6%), followed by other African countries (20.5%). The Americans had the lowest proportion of tourist using self-catering lodges (11.1%). Zimbabwe had the highest number of tourists who used VFR as a

type of accommodation (26.5%), followed by Europe (24.4%). The Visitor Exit Survey (VES) carried out in 2015-2016 in Zimbabwe VFR emerged as a major source of accommodation in the country (Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency (ZNSA), 2016:26). The relative importance of VFR as a type of accommodation means that the tourism industry is not getting optimal revenue from tourists. However, Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1055) noted that VFR segment of the travel market, though not very profitable, provides a firm foundation for building tourism within a destination. However, tourists from America (12.4%) used less of VFR as a type of accommodation in comparison with other regions.

### **5.5.2 Trip purpose**

The leisure and recreation market (53.6%), had the dominant share of the purpose of travel followed by business and professional (25.7%) and VFR (12.0%). A few tourists (6.3%) travelled for purposes of education and training and the least popular travel purpose was religion and pilgrimage (2.4 %). In respect of the sub-groups the American region, which was dominated by tourists from USA had 76% of the tourists visiting for leisure. This was followed by Europe (67.1%). A significant proportion of tourists from other African countries (34.3%) and Asia- Pacific (28.3%) were business tourists. Comparatively, Europe had a sizeable number of VFR (15.2%) and America had the least proportion of VFR (4.3%).

### **5.5.3 Source of information**

The internet dominated among the sources of information, with 53.5% of the total sample having used the internet at some stage in the trip planning process. VFR (35.7%) was the second most important source of information, followed by travel agents (26.8%), previous experience (20.2%) and brochures (12.1%). Newspapers and magazines (9.4%) were the least consulted. Comparatively, the greatest usage of internet for trip arrangements was made by Americans (72.7%), followed by European tourists (63.8%), while the least usage of internet was recorded for Zimbabweans (37.9%). At regional level, a significant number of Zimbabweans (22.8%) relied on previous experience as information sources, while Americans (11.3%) had the least number of tourists using such. Brochures were used by only 12.1% of the global sample. However, America (13.2%) had a slight edge over other regions in respect of use of brochures as sources of information, followed by Asia-Pacific (13.1%), Zimbabwe (12.7%) and Europe trailed behind (8.2%). Meanwhile, tourists from America (38.7%) made use of travel agents more than other regions, followed by those from Asia-Pacific (34.4%), Europe (32.0%), other African countries (29.3%) and Zimbabwe (12.7%). In relation to VFR as source of information, more Europeans (47.6%) had consulted VFR, followed by tourists

from Asia-Pacific (41.0%), America (40.6%), Zimbabwe (32.3%) and other African countries (29.3%). The significant use of VFR as source of information illustrates the importance of word of mouth recommendations in influencing tourist visitation to the destination.

#### **5.5.4 Travel company**

With regards to the global sample, the same proportion of tourists travelled in the company of spouses (24.1%) and family (24.1%), while those who travelled with friends (23.1%) trailed closely behind. Those who travelled alone comprised 18.0%, while those accompanied by business associates constituted 12.7%, partners 5.2% and tour groups 4.8%. At regional level, Europe (20.4%) had a relatively high number of tourists travelling in the company of spouses, followed by America (17%), Asia-Pacific (11.5%), Africa (7.8%) and Zimbabwe (7.0%). Tourists from other African countries (17.7%) had a relatively high proportion of tourists travelling in the company of business associates, followed by Asia-Pacific (14.8%) and Zimbabwe (13.0%). Europe (4.8%) had the least number of tourists who travelled in the company of business associates. Tour groups were used by a small proportion of the tourists, with America (14.2%) having the highest number, whilst Zimbabwe (1.6 %) had the least.

#### **5.5.5 Trip arrangements**

Regarding trip arrangements for the global sample, most tourists (48.3%) used tour operators to arrange the whole trip. This finding is consistent with findings of the recent VES (ZNSA, 2016:39), which established that slightly more tourists (53%) visiting Zimbabwe use inclusive tours. Consideration of regions shows that more American tourists (61.8%) used tour operators exclusively for trip arrangements as compared to other countries. Even in the VES America had the highest number of tourists using inclusive packages (ZNSA, 2016:42) among the country's western markets. Domestic tourists had the least usage of 42.2%. Probably the advantages associated with inclusive tourist such as 'certainty of prices, safety and value for money' (Moutinho *et al.*, 2014:620) could be some of the reasons why the majority of tourists especially foreign tourist prefer the tour operator to arrange everything for them. Personal booking for everything through the internet was the second most important (25.6%) method of trip arrangements.

#### **5.5.6 Repeat versus one-time visitors**

The global sample depicted more repeat visits (55.4%) than first time visits (44.6%). However, most of the repeat visits were from within Africa (69.9%), followed by Europe (43.2%), then

Asia (42.2%) and America (37.4%). Zimbabwe is a destination which receives a high number of repeat visitors and this trend was also established in the recent VES, where 75.2% of the visitors, including excursionists, were repeat visitors. The relatively high percentage of repeat visits is a key strength for the destination. Cooper *et al.* (2013:495) opined that repeat visits are an indication that consumer needs are being met and chances are high that repeat visitors will let others know about the tourism product. However, the high number of repeat visitors could also be an indication that the country is not generating many new visitors, which would be a cause of concern, given that the country's tourist arrivals are not at the optimal level. ZTA (2013:) reported that although tourist arrivals are on the upward trend, the country is still struggling to attract the huge numbers it used to attract before the land reform programme of 2000.

**Table 5.4: Trip characteristics of respondents**

<b>Trip characteristics</b>	<b>Global Sample</b>	<b>Domestic Tourists</b>	<b>Other Africa</b>	<b>America</b>	<b>Europe</b>	<b>Asia Pacific</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>D.F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Cram</b>
<b>SOURCE OF INFORMATION</b>										
Internet	53.5	38.3	54.3	72.6	63.3	72.1	59.214	5	.000*	.261**
Travel Agents	26.8	17.1	29.3	38.7	32.0	34.4	27.388	5	.000*	.178
Brochures	12.1	12.7	10.3	13.2	8.2	41.0	1.629	5	.898	.043
Newspapers/Magazines	9.4	8.5	12.1	3.8	8.2	16.4	10.344	5	.066	.109
Friends and Relatives	35.7	32.3	29.3	40.6	47.6	41.0	18.916	5	.002*	.148
Previous experience	20.2	22.8	21.6	11.3	20.7	13.1	9.786	5	.082	.106
							21.093	25	.687	.088
<b>TRIP ARRANGEMENTS</b>										
Tour operator did everything	48.3	42.2	44.6	61.8	51.8	51.0				
Booked everything personally through the internet	25.6	29.2	27.4	19.7	24.5	16.3				
Transport only through a travel agent	2.4	1.9	3.8	0.0	0.9	6.1				
I booked for accommodation only through a travel agent	0.2	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0				
I booked for activities only through the tour operator	7.7	8.4	8.3	6.6	6.6	8.2				
Nothing was booked in advance, except for the air ticket	15.9	17.5	15.9	11.8	11.8	18.4				
<b>TRAVEL COMPANY</b>										
Alone	18.0	17.0	20.0	14.2	18.4	27.9	12.472	15	.643	.069
Friends	23.1	21.5	22.0	31.1	19.0	27.9	8.250	5	.143	.098
Spouse	24.1	7.0	7.8	17.0	20.4	11.5	24.460	5	.000*	.168

Family	24.1	25.0	25.0	15.1	26.5	27.+9	7.14	5	.209	.091
Business Associates	12.7	13.0	17.7	10.4	4.8	14.8	14.842	5	.011*	.131
Partner	5.2	4.1	5.2	9.4	4.1	6.6	5.435	5	.365	.079
Tour Group	4.8	1.6	3.4	14.2	8.2	3.3	32.198	5	.000*	0193
TRIP PURPOSE							73.298	20	.000*	.157
Leisure and recreation	53.6	46.4	42.6	76.6	67.6	56.6				
Business and professional	25.7	30.6	34.5	8.5	13.7	28.3				
Visiting friends and relatives	12.0	13.8	13.3	4.3	15.1	6.7				
Education and training	6.3	5.0	7.6	10.6	2.9	6.0				
Religion and pilgrimage	2.4	4.2	2.0	0.0	0.7	2.4				
Repeat visits	51.9	-	65.4	37.4	43.2	42.9	35.511	5	.000*	.269**
TYPES OF ACCOMMODATION							22.952	12	.028*	.128
4-5-star hotel	28.5	20.9	23.4	34.0	42.2	32.1				
1-3 star	19.4	13.2	23.4	29.9	16.3	18.9				
Self-catering	19.9	30.0	20.5	11.3	10.6	15.1				
Motel	4.3	5.0	5.8	2.1	2.8	1.9				
Camping	4.6	3.2	4.4	10.3	3.7	3.8				
VFR	21.4	26.3	17.1	12.4	24.4	26.4				
Houseboat	1.9	1.4	4.4	0.0	0.0	1.9				

**\*Chi-square significant at  $p < 0.05$  \*\* Cramer's V significant at  $> 0.20$**

**\*Statistical significant differences with a Cramer's V value below 0.20 were considered practically insignificant.**

**For source of information, trip arrangements and travel company respondents were allowed to choose more than 1 option.**

At regional level statistically, significant differences (Chi-square test:  $p < 0.05$ ) were found in respect of sources of information (internet, travel agents and VFR), travel company (spouse, family and tour group) and repeat visitation, trip purpose. However, differences among regions in terms of the internet as a source of information and repeat visits were of practical significance, with Cramer's V being 0.261 and 0.269 respectively. The differences relating to sources of information imply that the destination managers should use different sources of information for promotional purposes. For example, the internet is most ideal for reaching out to tourists from the Western market, especially America, but the same does not apply to domestic tourists.

The examination of the socio-demographics and trip characteristic using descriptive statistics showed that there were some differences in respect of nationality as represented by regions. However, Hassan and Katsanis (1991:21) argued that use of geographic and socio-demographic variables to classify tourists have limitations in that they are not based on consumer behaviour patterns. Similarly, Keng and Cheng (1999:382) pointed out that people with similar demographics can have different travel interests. This explains why this study used tourist preferences as criteria for classifying tourists into homogeneous taxa which were then profiled in terms of demographics, motivations and perceptions. The section below focusses on tourist motivations.

## **5.6 TOURIST MOTIVATIONS**

The study included motivations because of the important role these play in influencing tourist behaviour (Foo *et al.*, 2004:425). Motivations also provide insights into the factors which drive the demand for tourism. Cooper *et al.* (2013:46) indicated that 'motivation is an essential concept in the explanation of tourism demand'. Similarly, Lickorish and Jenkins (1997:40) indicated that tourist motivations provide insight into why tourists visit destinations. Thus, motivations, to some extent, can be used to ascertain the factors which stimulate demand towards a certain destination. In addition, travel motivations play a critical role in marketing (Crompton 1979; Fodness, 1994; Sangeeta & Anandkumar, 2016). Kim and Prideaux (2005:355) indicated that 'once a destination manages to identify the primary motivations which underpin demand from specific nations, this facilitates the development of appropriate products for a given market'. In addition, respondents were also asked to provide reasons on what makes Zimbabwe a must visit destination. This was done to get more insights on what drives demand for Zimbabwe's tourism products.

This section is divided into three segments, with the first looking at the respondents' rating of motivation variables on a Likert scale. The second focusses on other motivations cited by tourists in response to an open-ended question, while the third segment highlights what reasons, from tourists' view, make Zimbabwe a must visit destination.

### **5.6.1 *Tourist motivations on Likert scale***

This section comprised 19 motivation variables. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with given statements on a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 denoting Strongly Disagree and 5 suggesting Strongly Agree. The neutral category was assigned the coding value 3.0. The summary of the results is presented in Table 5.5.

**Table 5.5: Descriptive statistics; tourist motivations**

MOTIVATION VARIABLES	N	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean	S.D
To explore new places and new experiences	854	1.9%	2.7%	9.7%	30.6%	55.2%	4.34	.899
To view wildlife and scenery	855	4.5%	6.0%	13.6%	26.4%	49.7%	4.11	1.122
To learn new things and increase knowledge	852	2.6%	7.0%	16.9%	33.8%	39.7%	4.01	1.040
To see cultural attractions	855	2.4%	10.4%	16.6%	33.9%	38.5%	3.98	1.046
To get closer to nature	851	3.9%	7.8%	33.5%	38.5%	33.5%	3.95	1.098
The need for adventure	846	4.1%	8.9%	17.8%	33.2%	35.9%	3.88	1.119
Opportunity to travel with friends and relatives	849	5.3%	8.1%	16.8%	35.5%	34.3%	3.85	1.137
To indulge in pleasurable activities	840	4.2%	9.8%	19.8%	36.8%	29.5%	3.78	1.100
To rest and relax	852	4.7%	9.2%	21.7%	37.2%	27.2%	3.73	1.099
Getting away from routine	848	6.0%	10.5%	20.2%	35.6%	27.7%	3.69	1.159
To experience the warm climate	853	7.4	10.9%	27.2%	29.4%	25.1%	3.54	1.189
To enjoy the local cuisine	846	6.1%	13.1%	28.8%	31.6%	20.3%	3.47	1.135
To get a sense of achievement	846	6.9%	12.3%	31.0%	27.7%	22.2%	3.46	1.163
To talk about the trip back home	848	9.6%	11.6%	27.2%	30.0%	21.7%	3.43	1.218
To meet people with similar interests	846	7.1%	18.2%	26.1%	31.7%	16.9%	3.33	1.162
To develop my skills and abilities	848	8.4%	15.1%	31.1%	26.5%	19.0%	3.33	1.183
To meet the local people	847	5.7%	36.5%	26.1%	19.2%	23.1%	3.18	1.126
To promote and enhance health and wellbeing	845	9.1%	16.7%	36.0%	24.7%	13.5%	3.17	1.136
Need for spiritual & emotional fulfilment	845	12.3%	19.4%	30.7%	23.0%	14.7%	3.08	1.224

Table 5.5 shows the top five and the bottom five motivations (highlighted in green). The top five motivations are in a way related to the destination environment. These include 'to explore new places and new experience; to view wildlife and scenery; to learn new things and increase knowledge; to see cultural attractions; and to get closer to nature'.

Noteworthy is that 'to explore new places and new experiences' emerged as the top most motivation with the highest mean score and the lowest standard deviation (M=4.4, S.D=.899). A total of 85.7% respondents agreed that they had visited to explore new places and new experiences. This is an indication that the desire for novelty is the major reason why tourists are visiting the destination.

The motivation 'to view wildlife' featured second highest (74.1%), with a mean score and standard deviation of M=4.11 and S.D=1.12 respectively. Zimbabwe's tourism is largely based on wildlife. Notably, the country has 11 national parks, 16 safari areas, 6 sanctuaries, 15 recreational parks and 15 botanical gardens (Golden *et al.*, 1997:5). The Victoria Falls National Park is on record for receiving the highest number of tourists at any given time (ZTA, 2013:12). Africa is seen as a wildlife paradise as the study by Slabbert and Du Plessis (2013) when they investigated the motives of visitors to South African National parks over 10 years commented that Africa is seen as a wildlife paradise.

The motivation 'to learn new things and increase knowledge' was the third most important motivation (M=4.0, S.D =1.04) constituting 73.5% of the respondents. Travel is historically understood to be an activity that provides opportunities for people to learn for example the Grand tour in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries. Tourism provides a medium for people to obtain knowledge and develop new ideas and get new visions for themselves (Falk, 2011:1). The fact that tourists visiting the attractions in Zimbabwe are motivated by the 'desire to learn and increase knowledge' is an indication that the destination is conducive for knowledge enhancement. According to Sangeeta and Anandkumar (2016:142), the choice of a destination is influenced by the needs and motives of the tourists.

The need 'to see cultural attractions' was among the key attributes that motivated tourists to visit Zimbabwe. This motivation was the fourth highest (M=3.98, S.D=1.046) with a total of 72.4% of the tourists agreeing that they had visited to see cultural attractions in the country. Similarly, culture is one of the key motivations in tourism (Akama, 2000:13) that motivates tourists regardless of their travel experience (Pearce, 2005:228). According to Silberberg (1995:363), cultural attractions appeal more to tourists with higher incomes and high levels of education. In particular, Cho (2010:317) noted that European tourists and Asian tourists tend

to prefer destinations with cultural heritage. Meanwhile, Europe as a region is the largest overseas source market for Zimbabwe. Siegriest *et al.* (2000:101) noted that culture is an important tourism product and is one of the factors which can enhance destination competitiveness. However, the cultural tourism product in Zimbabwe is regarded as not well developed (Manwa, 2003:471). In fact, the author noted that cultural tourism should be fully developed to complement wildlife tourism. This suggests that the tourist visiting Zimbabwe for cultural reasons may not be getting optimal satisfaction.

The need 'to get closer to nature' emerged as the top fifth motivation (72%). Zimbabwe's abundant flora and fauna resources provide opportunities for tourists to interact with nature. At one time the destination was being promoted as a 'nature destination' and the slogan used 'Zimbabwe Africa's paradise'.

Three of the five motivation factors which make up the top most motivations are pull factors. Ultimately, these three factors (wildlife and scenery, cultural attractions and nature) can arguably be regarded as the major demand drivers for tourism in Zimbabwe. Yu-wen and Hui-lin (2015:46) noted that cultural and natural attractions lead to increased tourism demand. Worth noting is that motivation items on novelty and education are linked to destination (Crompton, 1979:408).

The motivation 'to meet people with similar interest' formed part of the bottom five motivations (M=3.33, S.D=1.162). This motivation was on position 25, with 48.5% of the tourists visiting the country to fulfil this motivation. The motivation 'to develop skills and abilities' (M=3.33, S.D=1.183) motivating 45.5% of the tourists to visit the destination and was on position 26. The motivation 'to meet the local people' (M=3.18, S.D=1.183) was on position 27 with 42.3% of the tourists visiting the destination to fulfil this motivation. The motivation 'to enhance health and wellness' was second from the bottom (M=3.17, S.D=1.136) with 38.2% travelling to fulfil this motivation. This is quite striking, in view of the increased desire for health life styles among tourists. For example, Ambroz and Ovsenik (2011:71) indicated that 'Nowadays, everybody that travels has a need to improve his or her health and identity'. Apparently, anecdotal literature always indicates that most prominent people in the country seek medical services outside the country. As a result, the tendency by Zimbabwe's prominent people, who matter in terms of influencing public opinion, to seek medical attention from outside the country somehow downgrades the health and wellness sector in terms of perceptions. According to Crouch and Ritchie (1999:4), high domestic demand for products is a springboard for attracting international demand. The 'need for spiritual and emotional fulfilment' emerged as the least among the bottom five motivations (M=3.08, S.D=1.224), with only 37.7% agreeing that they

had visited for that reason. Thus, the low scores on these motivations maybe an indication that the destination is seen as unsuitable for achieving such motives.

### 5.6.2 Other motivations

Respondents were asked to indicate other motivations, if the Likert scale-based variables had not fully captured their major reasons for visiting the country. Table 5.6 shows the additional motivations extracted from open ended responses.

**Table 5.6: Other motivations based on qualitative comments**

Other Motivations	Frequency
Business related motivations	16
Specifically Visiting Victoria falls	10
Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR)	6
Honey moon	3
Religion and pilgrimage related issues	3
Specifically visiting for cultural reasons	3
Having fun and getting wasted	2
Reconnecting with a country once lived in	2

It emerged that business-related reasons, the desire to visit the Victoria Falls and VFR were the frequently stated reasons for visiting the country. The popularity of the Victoria Falls works to the advantage of the country, because it is a unique resource which cannot be replicated. Buhalis (2000:108) noted that consumers appreciate special attributes and are inclined to visit places with such more regularly.

### 5.6.3 Demand drivers for tourism in Zimbabwe

To clearly identify the factors that drive the demand for Zimbabwe’s tourism, respondents were asked to state what makes Zimbabwe a ‘must visit destination’. Table 5.7 summarises the responses and their frequencies. The question attracted 217 respondents, with most of the comments being positive, though some also pointed out some negative aspects of the destination. Table 5.7 summarises the reasons that were cited by at least two tourists.

**Table 5.7: Demand drivers for tourism in Zimbabwe based on qualitative comments**

<b>Tourist comments on what makes Zimbabwe a 'must visit destination'</b>	<b>Frequency of similar comments</b>
The country is peaceful and safe	40
Friendly, lovely, hospitable, helpful and courteous people	34
Victoria Falls is a wonderful site	28
Good national and game parks/wilderness experience	22
Amazing landscapes/ beautiful scenery	13
Visiting friends and relatives	8
Unique culture, its diversity, crafts and different cuisines	7
Good climate	6
Natural features/nature	6
Revisiting my home country	5
My former resident country	3
Gives a great feel of Africa	3
Church prophets/ wonderful prophets	3
Fishing	3
Interesting historical monuments/Great Zimbabwe	3
Slower pace of life than my country	2
Accommodation is good	2
Kariba is good	2
Knowledgeable and exciting tour guides	2
Business conferences	2
Participating in safari activities	2
Good country, second best from south Africa	2

The safety of the country, the friendliness of the people, Victoria Falls, game parks, beautiful/amazing scenery and VFR were the most frequently stated reasons which make Zimbabwe 'a must visit destination'. These reasons provide insights on the demand drivers for tourism in Zimbabwe. However, some tourists expressed distastes over the destination. For example, one of the tourist observed that 'it is a good destination, though dilapidated infrastructure, unreliable transport and collapsing economy makes the country less attractive'. The negative observations highlight the aspects that may compromise the quality of the tourism product thereby reducing demand. One of the comments indicated that 'very bad infrastructure makes mobility difficult and dangerous'. The issue of dirty streets and markets places and the fact the country was considered expensive by some tourists shed light on some of the issues which have the potential of reducing demand for tourism in Zimbabwe.

### 5.6.4 Top five motivations of tourists according nationality classified by regions

Figure 5.2 shows the motivations of tourists according to their nationality classified by regions. Zimbabwe was analysed separately so as to have an appreciation of the motivations of the domestic tourists. Motivations for Americans and Asia-Pacific closely resembled the motivations for the global sample, however, for Europe, ‘indulging in pleasurable activities’ featured among the top five motivations, while ‘to rest and relax’ was unique to Zimbabweans. As for tourists from other African countries, the ‘opportunity to travel with friends and relatives’ featured among the top five motivations. Tourists from the Americas region were highly motivated, with the highest mean score 4.75 and the lowest 4.21, as compared to tourists from other regions. Tourists from the US are important because they represent the world’s top spenders (Tran & Ralston, 2006:424). According to UNTWO (2015:5), the US was the leading source in 2015.

<p><b>AMERICA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*To explore new places and experiences (M=4.75, S.D=.645)</li> <li>*To view wildlife and scenery (M=4.48, S.D=.968)</li> <li>*Learn new things and increase knowledge (M=4.44, S.D=.895)</li> <li>*To see cultural attractions (M=4.22, S.D=.951)</li> <li>*To get closer to nature (M=4.21, S.D=.963)</li> </ul>	<p><b>EUROPE</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*To explore new places and experiences (M=4.52, S.D=.790)</li> <li>*To view wildlife and scenery (M=4.38, S.D=.994)</li> <li>*To get closer to nature (M=4.30, S.D=.921)</li> <li>*To see cultural attractions (M=4.14, S.D=.951)</li> <li>*To indulge in pleasurable activities (M=4.01, S.D=.865)</li> </ul>	
<p>Top five travel Motivations</p>	<p><b>ZIMBABWE</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*To explore new places and experiences(M=4.21,S.D=.989)</li> <li>*To view wildlife (M=4.09,S.D=1.067)</li> <li>*To rest and relax (M=3.94,S.D=1.023)</li> <li>*To see cultural attractions (M=3.91,S.D=1.128)</li> <li>*To get closer to nature (M=3.89,S.D=1.120)</li> </ul>	<p>Regional level (including Zimbabwe)</p>
	<p><b>ASIA-PACIFIC</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*To explore new places (M=4.23,S.D=.679)</li> <li>*To view wildlife and scenery(M=4.23,S.D=1.079)</li> <li>*Learn new things and increase knowledge (M=4.02, S.D=1.066)</li> <li>*To see cultural attractions (M=4.02,S.D=1.122)</li> <li>*To get closer to nature (M=4.03,S.D=1.000)</li> </ul>	

The pattern of motivations shown in Figure 5.2 shows that, to some extent, there are some differences among tourists from different cultural backgrounds. According to Baumüller (2007:229), nationality or regions are used as a proxy for cultural similarity. Kozak (2002:221) in his study on motivations that discovered there were differences in motivations between tourists from different countries.

## **5.7 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF MOTIVATION DIMENSIONS**

The 19 motivation variables were analysed using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). To ensure the applicability of this approach, the variables were subjected to the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity. The KMO statistic was established to be 0.891. The acceptable minimum thresholds for the KMO and Bartlett's test of significance is 0.60 and above and 95% confidence level respectively (IBM 2016; Field, 2013). Thus, the use of EFA for the motivations dimensions was appropriate.

**Table 5.8: Factor analysis of motivation variables**

Variables	Factor 1 Novelty/ knowledge seeking	Factor 2 Ego enhancement	Factor 3 Escape and relaxation	Factor 4 Social interaction	Factor 5 Destination environment
To learn new things and increase knowledge	.823				
To explore new places and experiences	.759				
To see cultural attractions	.658				
To view wildlife	.422				
To develop skills and abilities		.806			
To talk about the trip back home		.659			
To get a sense of achievement		.651			
To promote and enhance health and wellbeing		.638			
To rest and relax			.760		
To get away from routine			.712		
Opportunity to travel with friends and relatives			.664		
To meet the local people				.627	
To meet people with similar interests				.624	
The need for spiritual fulfilment				.491	
To enjoy the local cuisine					.739
To experience the local climate					.706
To get closer to nature					.577
The need for adventure					.450
To indulge in pleasurable activities					.361
Cronbach's alpha	0.759	0.698	0.605	0.558	0.739
MIC	0.440	0.360	0.338	0.296	0.362
Mean	4.10	3.01	3.76	3.19	3.72
Standard deviation	0.027	0.296	0.505	0.031	0.027

Explained variance		56%
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EFA was conducted, using the oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalisation on the 19 motivation variables. Factors with Eigen values larger than one were extracted. All the variables with factor loadings above 0.3 were incorporated as they were considered to be correlating with the factor under which they were falling. A variable that cross loaded on two factors and having factor loadings greater than 0.3 were incorporated in the factor where it fitted best in terms of interpretation. The extracted components are shown in Table 5.8.

Five factors explaining 56% of the variance were extracted. These were *novelty and knowledge seeking, self-development, ego enhancement, escape and relaxation, social interaction and destination environment* as illustrated in Table 5.8. These dimensions are closely related to what is found in motivation literature. Kim and Prideaux (2005) commented that the commonly cited motivations in literature are escape from everyday environment, novelty, cultural experience, social interaction. The most important factor was 'novelty and knowledge seeking' (M=4.10, S.D=.027), followed by 'escape and relaxation' (M=3.76, S.D=.505), 'destination environment' (M=3.72, S.D=.028), 'social interaction' (M=3.20, S.D=0.31) and 'egoism' (M=3.03, S.D=.296). The relatively low standard deviation for all the factors shows that there was consensus among the respondents about their motivations for visiting Zimbabwe.

### **5.7.1 Factor 1: Novelty and knowledge seeking**

The *novelty/knowledge* seeking factor scored highly in this study, with a mean score of 4.1 and the standard deviation was very low (0.27) implying there was a high level of agreement among the tourists in respect to this dimension. The Cronbach's alpha score was 0.759, an indication that the factors loaded together quite well and the Mean Inter-Item Correlation (MIIC) was 0.44, further confirming that the factors were correlated. MIIC values above 0.15 are statistically acceptable (Clark & Watson, 1995).

The dimension comprised of the following variables: '*to learn and increase knowledge; to explore new places and new experiences; and to view wildlife and to see cultural attractions*'. Many previous studies have identified novelty as one of the major reason for engaging in travel and tourism (for example, Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Huang, 2010; Jang *et al.*, 2009; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Sangpikul, 2009). Knowledge enhancement is also a common motivation that influences tourists to travel (Yousefi & Marzu, 2015). In fact, Yousefi and Marzu (2015:40), in their study, established that *novelty* and *learning* related factors loaded together and they labelled the factor '*novelty and knowledge seeking*'.

The motivations, relating to culture and wildlife, are pull factors, while *'to learn and increase knowledge, to explore new places and new experiences'* are push related factors (Kim *et al.*, 2003:171). However, Crompton (1979) indicated that *novelty* and *education*, which he labelled cultural factors, are partially aroused by the attributes of a destination. This explains why these factors loaded together with destination related attributes. The fact that *'to view wildlife and scenery'* and *'to see cultural attractions'* loaded together with *'novelty and knowledge'* variables implies that *'viewing wild life and scenery'* and *'seeing cultural attractions'* fulfil these push related motivations. According to Kim *et al.* (2007:75), tourists are initially pushed by internal desires or emotional factors and then pulled by external or tangible resources that the destination possesses. One can argue that *'to see wildlife and scenery'* and *'to see cultural attractions'* are the major pull factors which drive the demand for tourism in Zimbabwe.

### **5.7.2 Factor 2: Ego enhancement**

Egoism was the least important factor (M=3.0, S.D=.296) and comprised of the variables *'to develop my skills and abilities; to talk about the trip back home; to get a sense of achievement; to enhance health and health and wellbeing'*. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.698 very close to the minimum acceptable limit of 0.7 (IBM, 2016; Field, 2013). The MIC coefficient of 0.336 confirms the internal consistency of the factor items. *Self-development and ego enhancement* are factors which have been found in many past research (Assiouras *et al.*, 2015; Pearce, 1988). However, in the case of Zimbabwe, *egoism* is not a significant factor which influences tourists to visit Zimbabwe. Crompton (1979:417) commented that, as travellers become more experienced, they do not regard prestige related reasons important for engaging in travel.

### **5.7.3 Factor 3: Escape and relaxation**

*Escape and relaxation* factors influence tourists to participate in travel (Crompton 1979:416; Pearce 2005). It was the second most important factor (M=3.76, S.D=.276) with Cronbach's alpha value of 0.605 and a MIIC value of 0.34, showing fair reliability. *'Escape'* is a common motivation found in many studies (for example Crompton 1979: 408; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Slabbert and Du Plessis 2013:4; Yuan & McDonald, 1990:42) as one of the most important push factors which influences tourists to travel to overseas destinations. Kassean (2013:1), in his study on tourist motivations of international tourists to Mauritius also identified *'escape and relaxation'* as one of the most important factors which influences tourists to visit the country. Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1055) asserted that destinations which can provide environments that enable tourists to experience lifestyles outside of their day-to-day routine are likely to have competitive advantage. To some extent, the desire to escape from routine reflects the desire

for novelty. Given, the importance of the *'escape and relaxation factor'*, Zimbabwe should come up with innovative tourism products and experiences which reflect the local character. This will enable tourists to escape from the usual experiences and environments they are accustomed to in their home countries. Sharma (2007:60) highlighted the need for destinations to express the local character of a place in order to provide a meaningful experience to the tourists. He argued that restaurants and lodges do not need to be ethnic for them to express the character of a place but can show connection to the destination through the use of local photographs, collection of historical artefacts and choice of décor.

#### **5.7.4 Factor 4: Social interaction**

The *'social interaction'* dimension was the fourth most important ( $M=3.20$ ,  $S.D=0.031$ ) factor out of the five factors extracted. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.558 and the MIIC coefficient was 0.30. While the alpha value may be lower than the recommended 0.7, Kline (1999) cited in Field (2005:668) argues that values below 0.7 can realistically, be accepted because of the diversity of the constructs being measured. Based on that argument, the 0.558 value was considered acceptable.

This factor comprised of the variables: *'to meet the local people; the opportunity to travel with friends and relatives; and the need for spiritual fulfilment'*. Regarding the latter, Ambrož and Ovsenik (2011:71) noted that an increasing number of tourists are finding travel as an effective means to discover their true self. It appears that the *'need for spiritual fulfilment'* was being achieved through travelling with friends and meeting local people. *Social interaction* is a key motivation which influences tourist to undertake tourism (Beard & Ragheb, 1980; Hsu *et al.*, 2010:13). However, the tourists visiting Zimbabwe are less motivated by this factor.

#### **5.7.5 Factor 5: Destination environment**

The *destination environment* ( $M=3.7$ ,  $S.D=.276$ ) was the third most important motivation factor which influenced tourist to visit the country. It had a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.739 and a MIIC coefficient of 0.362, showing moderate internal consistency among the items. This factor is illustrating the pulling effect of the destination through climate, cuisine, nature and adventure. Nature oriented dimensions have been found in many studies on motivation, for example, Pearce (2005). The competitive strength of Zimbabwe's tourism seems to be associated with the nature of its physical environment. Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1054) pointed out that the "physical resources of a destination, the physiography and climate" are destination related factors which contribute significantly to the competitiveness of destinations.

They further pointed out these factors define much of the aesthetics and visual appeal of a destination. The fact that the desire *'to indulge in pleasurable activities'* loaded together with the destination related factors is an indication that tourists regard the country's setting as providing suitable conditions for engaging in experiential activities associated with the destination.

## 5.8 TOURIST PREFERENCES

This section sought to ascertain the preferences of tourists visiting Zimbabwe. Dwyer and Kim (2003:379) opined that destinations should develop products which match the changing preferences of tourists to enhance and maintain competitiveness. Similarly, Voicu (2013:133) argued that the identification of customer preferences provides strategic information that allows managers to take decisions that would allow 'fructification' of preferences, thereby ensuring success of an organisation in the market place.

Tourists were asked to rate, on five-point Likert scale, the extent to which they agreed with each of the 29 preferences, with 1 denoting strongly disagree and representing the minimum rating, while strongly agree corresponded to the maximum rating of 5 and 3 was the median value representing the neutral category. The preference items sought to establish the degree to which tourists prefer novelty and familiarity when they visit. Most of these items were borrowed from Mo, Howard and Havitz (1993) International Tourist Role Scale. Items which sought to ascertain tourists' attitudes towards the environment and activities were also included.

Table 5.9 shows the preferences ranked according to order of importance in terms of mean scores and frequencies. The five top most and the bottom five preferences are highlighted. Preference for 'service staff that is consistently courteous and friendly' (M=4.18, S.D=.921) was the top most preference item with a total of 82.9% either agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement. This shows that the service quality is one of the critical factors which contribute to tourist satisfaction. Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1062) indicated that the service experience is one such important aspect of destination management, which has a bearing on destination competitiveness.

Preference for activities which provide *'opportunities to engage in new things'* (M = 4.12, S.D =.899) had a total of 81.5% either agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement. The third most important preference was *'visiting new places with'* (M = 3.99, S.D = 1.11) with 73.1% either agreeing or strongly agreeing that the desire to visit new places is one of their

preferences. Preference for activities which provide opportunities to '*engage in new things and visiting new places*' shows that tourists visiting the country have preference new experiences.

**Table 5.9: Descriptive Statistics on tourist preferences**

Preference variables	N	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	agree	Strongly Agree	MEAN	S.D
I prefer service staff that is consistently courteous and friendly	840	1.9	4.2	11.0	39.6	43.3	4.18	.921
I prefer activities with opportunities to engage in new things	830	1.6	4.3	12.7	43.3	38.2	4.12	.899
I prefer visiting new places	858	4.2	7.1	15.6	31.7	41.4	3.99	1.111
I prefer environmentally friendly destinations	843	2.3	5.0	19.1	41.9	31.8	3.96	.954
I prefer to associate with local people	840	2.5	4.0	20.8	44.0	28.6	3.92	.936
Environmental quality is a key factor when selecting places	841	1.9	5.9	23.2	40.7	28.3	3.88	.954
I prefer activities where I can participate actively	839	1.8	6.1	21.1	44.9	26.2	3.87	.928
I prefer places with a high degree of political safety	851	5.9	10.1	16.6	32.4	35.0	3.81	1.189
I prefer to make friends with locals	837	1.9	6.6	27.5	39.2	24.9	3.78	.956
I prefer excitement of complete novelty	833	2.5	12.1	27.8	37.5	20.2	3.72	.955
I prefer activities which challenge my mental abilities	838	5.5	11.5	28.6	35.4	18.1	3.65	1.064
If I find a place that interests me I can stay for social involvement	838	2.5	4.1	27.8	37.5	20.2	3.61	1.017
I prefer the services of tour guides	838	5.3	14.1	24.4	33.7	21.6	3.52	1.131
I prefer activities which challenge my physical abilities	837	5.5	11.5	28.6	35.4	19.1	3.51	1.092
I prefer places where you can engage in wilderness experience	826	6.5	13.1	26.5	31.2	22.6	3.50	1.165
I prefer authentic places and exhibits	827	3.6	12.2	31.6	36.0	16.6	3.50	1.022
I prefer to live the way people I visit live	849	4.7	16.3	26.9	32.5	19.7	3.46	1.119
I prefer places with cheap tourism services	841	5.2	14.1	30.6	30.0	20.1	3.46	1.117
I prefer popular tourist destinations	858	7.8	16.0	26.0	29.4	20.9	3.40	1.202
I prefer to travel to places with well-developed travel & tourism facilities	847	7.8	13.4	25.5	28.7	19.6	3.34	1.206
I prefer travel agents to take complete care of me	843	14.0	19.7	25.5	24.2	16.6	3.10	1.287
I prefer to stay in luxury hotels	856	2.6	25.2	25.9	22.7	13.6	2.99	1.236
I put high priority on familiarity	849	15.8	27.1	25.3	18.5	13.3	2.86	1.266

I prefer visiting countries with the same facilities as those of my home	859	12.9	28.4	30.4	19.2	9.0	2.83	1.151
I prefer to start my trip with pre-planned/definite routes	834	18.6	27.0	21.2	21.8	11.4	2.80	1.285
I prefer restaurants which provide food like what I eat at home	858	18.6	26.9	24.1	18.2	12.1	2.78	1.279
I prefer places where forms of transport are like those in my home	853	17.6	27.8	27.2	17.0	10.4	2.75	1.228
I prefer places where language is the same as mine	850	18.2	27.8	26.0	17.8	9.2	2.73	1.221
I prefer places where culture is like mine	857	16.3	32.2	26.1	15.4	9.9	2.70	1.200

This is consistent with the tourist motivations identified above where the novelty and education dimension scored the highest mean scores (M=4.10).

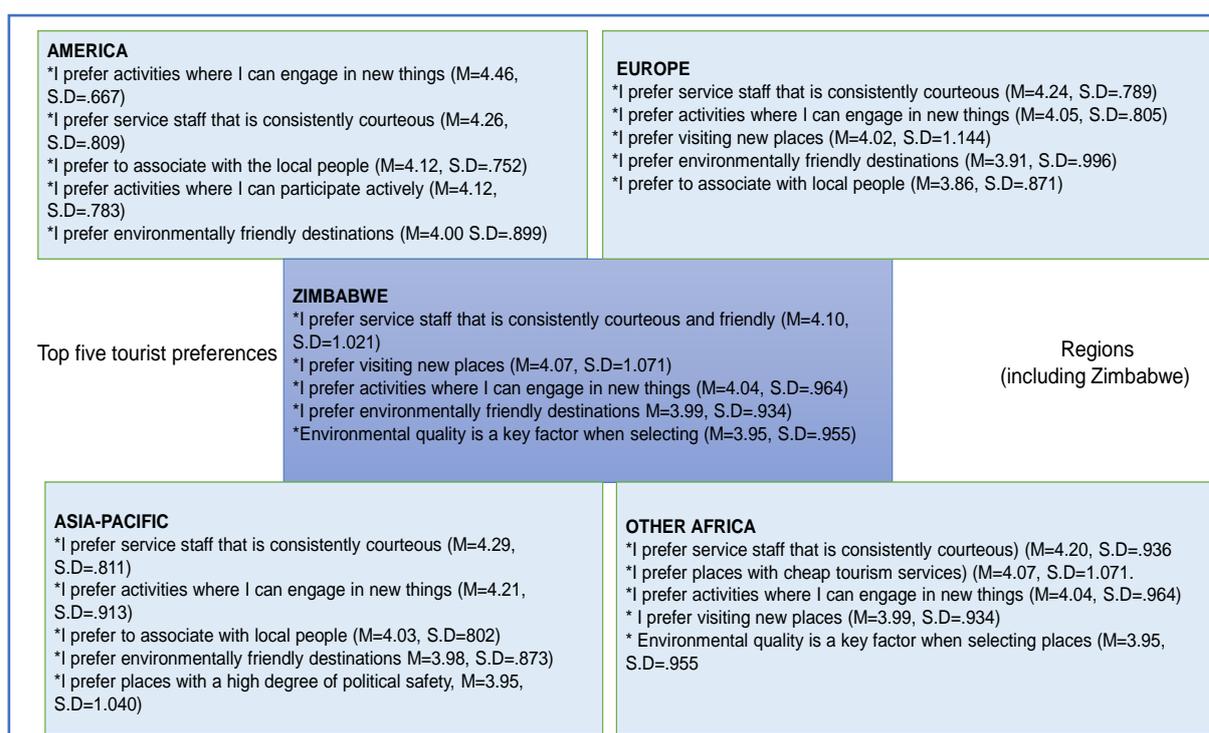
Preference for '*environmentally friendly destinations*' (M = 3.96, S.D = .954) was the fourth most important variable with 73.7% respondents affirming the variable as one of their important preferences. This shows that tourists were increasingly showing interest in environmental friendly destinations. Mihalic (2000:65) noted that environmental quality is a significant issue which influences travel decisions. The fifth most important preference was the '*desire to associate with the local people*' (M= 3.92, S.D = .936) with 68.6% of the respondents. Wood and House (1991) devised the term good tourist to represent the contemporary tourist who shows respect for the environment and the host community. In summary, the top most preferences were: '*the desire for service staff that provides efficient and friendly services, to engage in activities, desire for novelty, environmental friendly destinations and the desire to associate with the host community*'. These characteristics, to a greater extent, are associated with contemporary tourist who Poon (1992) described as the new tourist. The top five variables to a greater extent reflect the typical characteristics of the contemporary tourist who is described as a participator rather than a spectator, environmental sound and socially responsible.

Among the bottom five preferences were: '*I prefer to start my trip with pre-planned and definite routes*' (M=2.80, S.D=1.285) which was on position 25, with only 33.2% indicating preference for starting trips with predetermined itinerary. This shows that most tourists prefer flexible trips. On position 26 was the variable, '*I prefer restaurants which provide food similar to what I eat at home*', (M=2.78, S.D=1.279), with only 30.1% agreeing or strongly agreeing that they prefer familiar cuisine. '*I prefer transport facilities which are similar to those of my home country*' (M=2.75, S.D=1.221) was the variable on position 27, with only 27.4% either agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement. Most respondents did not agree with the statement, '*I prefer to visit places where language is the same as mine*' (M=2.73, S.D=1.221), as this attribute was on position 28 with only 27%. On last position was the variable: '*I prefer to visit places where culture is similar to mine*' (M=2.70, S.D=1.200), with only 24.3% either agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement.

The last five variables represent the mass tourist tendencies according to Mo *et al.* (1993), who designed the International Tourist Role Scale for testing Cohen's typology. The fact that mass tourist traits were the least favoured is an indication that the contemporary tourist is moving away from mass tourist tendencies.

### 5.8.1 Tourist preferences according to regions

Figure 5.3 shows the top five preferences in relation to source region. (Zimbabwe in this study was regarded as a standalone region). Preference for 'courteous service staff, activities which allow one to engage in new things and environmental friendly destinations' were the most common preferences among the regions. However, there were slight variations, for example, tourists from Asia-Pacific prefer to visit destinations which are safe, while international tourist from Africa have preference for affordable tourism services and goods.



**Figure 5. 3: Top five preferences according to source regions**

Preferences for 'friendly and courteous service staff' is on prime position in all regions, implying that destinations need to pay more attention on the service quality. Dwyer and Kim (2003:383) pointed out that the service dimension is an important component of the tourism experience, which contributes to destination competitiveness. They further recommended that destinations should provide quality services to ensure tourist satisfaction. This becomes even more important given that tourist indicated in this study highly value the service quality. The preferences of the domestic market are not uniquely different from those of other regions.

### **5.8.2 Factor analysis of preference variables**

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was performed on the preference items. To validate the appropriateness of this method, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity were initially computed and the results are presented in Table 5.10. The KMO statistic was 0.869, while the corresponding Bartlett's test was significant at  $p < 0.001$ . Basing on the thresholds of 0.5 for the KMO and  $p \leq 0.05$  for the Bartlett's (IBM 2016; Field 2013) the data was sufficient for the use of EFA. The EFA was computed, using the oblimin method with Kaiser normalisation as the component rotation technique.

Five factors with Eigen values greater than one were extracted and the variance explained was 50%. An initial solution yielded 7 factors with a variance of 56%, this was not adopted because some of the factors had low alpha values and the variable combinations were not in sync. Thus, the researcher opted for a five-factor solution which explained 50% of the total variance and the Cronbach's alpha values for the factors ranged 0.668 to 0.853. The average mean inter-item co-relation coefficients of the five factors ranged from 0.268 to 0.566, further showing that that the factors were internally consistent.

#### **5.8.2.1 Factor 1: Familiarity**

The *familiarity* dimension was the least preferred factor ( $M=2.90$ ,  $S.D=0.788$ ). All factors falling under this dimension define the characteristics of the mass tourists according to Cohen's (1972) tourist typology model. The factor comprised the following items '*I prefer places where restaurant provide food similar to what I eat at home; I prefer visiting countries with the same facilities as those of my home country; I prefer places where language is the same as mine; I put high priority on familiarity; I prefer to travel to places with well-developed travel and tourism facilities; I prefer to stay in luxury hotels; I prefer to start my trip with pre-planned and definite routes; I prefer popular tourist destinations*'

The internal consistency of the familiarity dimension was very high with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.853 and MIIC of 0.433. High factor loading of a factor and its individual items is an indication of high correlations (Srihadi *et al.*, 2016:34). However, the low mean score 2.90 is an indication that today's tourist is moving away from mass tourist tendencies by shunning familiarity. Swarbrooke (2007:89) commented that Cohen's typology theory may no longer be applicable for conceptualising the contemporary tourist because it was proposed long back in the 1970s and many changes have taken place influencing tourist's consumption patterns.

**Table 5.10: Factor analysis of preference variables**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Factor 1 Familiarity</b>	<b>Factor 2 Social Involvement</b>	<b>Factor 3 Environmentalism</b>	<b>Factor 4 Activity/ adventure orientation</b>	<b>Factor 5 Travel services</b>
<b>Factor 1: Familiarity</b>					
I prefer places where forms of transport are like those in my home	.761				
I prefer restaurants which provide food similar to what I eat at home	.738				
I prefer visiting countries with the same facilities as those of my home	.723				
I prefer places where language is the same as mine	.712				
I prefer places where culture is similar to mine	.703				
I put high priority on familiarity	.567				
I prefer to travel to places with well-developed travel & tourism facilities	.563				
I prefer to stay in luxury hotels	.546				
I prefer to start my trip with pre-planned and definite routes	.543				
I prefer popular tourist destinations	.343				
<b>Factor 2: Social involvement</b>					
I prefer to live the way people I visit live		.713			
I prefer to make friends with locals		.709			
I prefer to associate with local people		.691			
I prefer excitement of complete novelty		.681			
If find a place that interests me I can stay for social involvement		.655			
<b>Factor 3: Environmentalism</b>					
I prefer service staff that is consistently courteous and friendly			.317		
Environmental quality is a key factor when selecting places			.793		
I prefer environmental friendly destinations			.728		
I prefer places with affordable tourism services			.474		
I prefer places which a high degree of political safety			.367		
<b>Factor 4: Activity/adventure</b>					
I prefer activities which challenge my physical abilities				.853	
I prefer activities which challenge my mental abilities				.706	
I prefer activities where I can participate actively				.687	
I prefer activities which offer opportunities to engage in new things				.630	
I prefer authentic places and exhibits				.405	
I prefer places where you can engage in wilderness experiences				.363	
<b>Factor 5: Travel service orientation</b>					
I prefer travel agents to take complete care of me					.689
I prefer the services of tour guides					.686
<b>Variance explained</b>	<b>50%</b>				
<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>	.853	.778	.638	.724	.723
<b>MIC</b>	.433	.422	.268	.305	.566
<b>Mean</b>	2.90	3.69	3.87	3.68	3.36
<b>SD</b>	.788	.727	.625	1.076	.050

### 5.8.2.2 Factor 2: Social involvement

The *social involvement* dimension was the second most important factor ( $M=3.69$ ,  $S.D=0.727$ ) with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.778 and a MIIC of 0.422. The relatively high mean scores indicate that the social involvement factor is important for contemporary tourists. Variables making up this factor were: '*I prefer to live the way people I visit live; I prefer to make friends with locals; I prefer to associate with local people; I prefer complete excitement of complete novelty; If I find a place that interests me I can stay for social involvement*'. The desire for social involvement implies that the destination managers should create opportunities and relevant experiences which allow tourists to interact with the Host community. Apparently, most tourist packages on offer have been criticised for excluding opportunities to interact with the local people (Mutana & Zinyemba, 2013:97). In the case of Zimbabwe, this task may not be very challenging because there is a general consensus that the people are friendly to visitors (Muzapu & Sibanda, 2016:55; ZNSA, 2016:iv), more so, this study has further proved this point (c.f. 5.6.3). Culture based packages, as Township tourism as well as house stays are examples of products which create opportunities for social involvement as they allow tourists to interact with the host community (Mutana & Zinyema, 2013:100, 101). For example, hoteliers can get in partnerships with locals so that they provide alternative live-in accommodation. However, there is need to put in place proper policies on the part of policy makers so that these kinds of activities are bring mutual benefits to communities as well as the tourists. On the part of hoteliers, may need to come up with appropriate operating procedures for selected host families to ensure the safety and health of the tourists.

Preference for social involvement represent the typical characteristic for the non-institutionalised tourists, who, according to Cohen (1972), prefer complete immersion into the social life of the locals. Gibson and Yannakis (1992) named tourist having such attributes 'the anthropologist'. The relatively high mean score for this dimension is an indication that in relation to Cohen (1972) the conceptualisation of the tourist using the social involvement dimension has stood the test of time. In addition, variables falling under this dimension maintained the pattern that was established by Mo *et al.* (1993), thereby validating this component of the ITR scale in the context of a destination in Africa. Mo *et al.* (1993) recommended that their scale should be validated in other settings with tourists from different cultural backgrounds. This study comprised tourists from various geographical locations.

### 5.8.2.3 Factor 3: Environmentalism

*Environmentalism* was the most important dimension with the highest mean score ( $M=3.87$ ,  $S.D=0.625$ ), a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.638 and the MIIC was 0.268, indicating fair reliability. The dimension incorporates the following variables: '*preference for service staff that is consistently courteous and friendly; consideration of environmental quality when selecting destinations; environmentally friendly destinations; and affordable tourism services and high degree of political safety*'. This dimension is representing the traits of a tourist who is concerned about the goodness of the physical as well as the social, economic and political environment. Broadly speaking, the term environment encompasses the social and cultural environments (Inskeep, 1999:339).

The issue of service staff that is consistently courteous and friendly relates to the social environment, while, '*I prefer environmentally friendly destinations represents the physical environment*'. The issues of '*affordable services*' and '*political safety*' relate to the economic and political environment respectively. The importance attached to this dimension by tourists visiting Zimbabwe is an indication that tourists are cautious and would want to consume tourism experiences in conducive environments which are free from threats of any kind, be they social, political, physical or economic.

The fact that tourists visiting Zimbabwe place emphasis on the *environmental* dimension, is an indication that any form of improvement in the social, political, economic and physical environment is likely to boost the competitive strength of the country. Heath (1990:7) commented that tourist arrivals in Zimbabwe, are determined more by the social, economic and political environment in the destination, rather than conditions in the source markets. An examination of the historical overview of tourism development in Zimbabwe in chapter 3 showed that the deterioration of political and economic conditions in the country has continued to affect tourism performance ever since the colonial times. This shows that the environmental dimension is a critical factor that management should pay attention to. However, some of the environmental issues such as '*political safety*' are beyond the control of destination managers.

### 5.8.2.4 Factor 4: Activity and adventure orientation

The *activity and adventure* factor ( $M=3.67$ ,  $S.D=1.076$ ) was the third most important factor with a Chronbach's alpha score of 0.724 and the MIIC value was 0.305, an indication that the internal consistency was adequate. The following variable items loaded under this factor: '*I prefer activities which challenge my abilities; I prefer activities which challenge my mental*

*abilities; I prefer activities where I can participate actively; I prefer activities which offer opportunities to engage in new things; I prefer authentic exhibits; and I prefer places where you can engage in wilderness experiences'.*

This factor illustrates that the contemporary tourist is a participant and not a spectator (Cecilia *et al.*, 2011:1). Similarly, Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1055) pointed out that activities are growing in importance as an integral component of destination attractiveness as tourists are now seeking experiences that go beyond the more passive visitation practices. According to ZTA (2007:4), Zimbabwe does not offer a wide range of activities, yet they represent one of the 'most critical aspects of destination appeal' (Ritchie & Crouch 2010:1055). This calls for destination managers in the country to develop innovative tourist activities in order to effectively meet the needs of activity-oriented tourists. The fact that the variable '*I prefer to engage in wilderness experiences*' loaded together with the activity-oriented factors shows that tourists visiting Zimbabwe, to some extent, have adventure tendencies. In fact, Tran and Ralston (2006:429), asserted that tourist who are adventure oriented have preferences for unusual, exotic or wilderness destinations and that such tourists prefer a high-level involvement and activity.

#### **5.8.2.5 Factor 5: Travel services**

This was the fourth most important factor (M=3.36, S.D=0.49) with a Cronbach's alpha score of 0.723 and MIIC value of 0.566. It comprised of variables, '*I prefer travel agents to take complete care of me and I prefer the services of tour guides*'. The mean rating of 3.36 shows that tourists are becoming more independent in planning their trips and are moving away from mass tourist tendencies. The role of intermediaries is diminishing as the internet now provides travellers with an opportunity to deal directly with travel suppliers (Lubbe, 2000:280).

### **5.9 TOURIST COMPETITIVENESS PERCEPTIONS**

This section sought to establish tourists' perceptions on selected destination attributes. The performance of a destination can be measured through establishing the perceptions of the tourists (Ragavana *et al.*, 2014:405). To some extent tourist perceptions on destination attributes provide insights on the competitiveness of destinations from the perspective of the demand side (Meng, 2006:172). The section comprised 29 perception attributes on a five-point Likert scale, with 1 representing strongly disagree and 5 representing strongly agree.

The section comprises of 4 segments such that the first, focusses on the overall ranking of tourist perception attributes based on descriptive statistics. The second segment illustrates the top five perceptions for each tourism region, while the third segment factor analyses the perception variables. Meanwhile, the fourth section focusses on tourists' responses to an open-ended question which required them to describe Zimbabwe as a destination.

### **5.9.1 Descriptive statistics: tourist perceptions**

The tourists generally had positive perceptions about the country, with 21 destination attributes registering a mean of at least 3.5. In addition, the top ten destination attributes had mean a score of 4 and above, while 18 perceptions attributes had a standard deviation below 1.000.

This section focusses on the top five perceptions i.e. those which were evaluated positively as well as the bottom five perception variables i.e. the destination attributes which were perceived in an unfavourable manner by most respondents. The host population was considered friendly with 83% either agreeing or strongly agreeing that *Zimbabweans are friendly* (M=4.37, S.D=.867) and this was the top most positively rated attribute. The hospitality of the locals can provide a sense of safety and belonging to tourists, which enhances the appeal of the destination.

The second rated destination attribute was on whether the destination *provides a conducive environment to rest and relax* (M=4.19, S.D=.890), 80.9% of the respondents affirming that the country was conducive for rest and relaxation. The *service staff* in the country were considered *courteous* (M=4.16, S.D=.960) with at least 79.5% either agreeing or strongly agreeing. The country's *attractions were perceived* to be varied (M=4.14, S.D=.900) and 79.2% of the tourists agreed. The country's climate (M=4.11, S.D=.911) was considered *pleasant*, with 79% agreeing.

**Table 5.11: Perceptions of tourists visiting Zimbabwe**

<b>Competitiveness perceptions</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D</b>	
Zimbabweans are friendly	840	1.8	2.0	9.2	31.8	55.2	4.37	.867
The country offers opportunities to rest and relax	844	1.8	2.0	15.2	37.9	43.0	4.19	.890
The service staff treat people with respect	842	2.1	4.2	14.1	35.0	44.5	4.16	.960
The country has a variety of attractions	835	1.4	4.4	15.0	39.2	40.0	4.14	.900
The country has a pleasant climate	834	1.3	4.8	14.8	40.0	39.0	4.11	.911
I have a lot to talk about Zimbabwe to friends and relatives	825	1.8	3.6	16.0	41.9	36.6	4.08	.911
The country offers opportunities to experience new things	830	1.4	3.0	16.0	45.4	34.1	4.08	.864
Country offers opportunities to interact with locals	845	2.4	2.5	17.6	43.0	34.4	4.05	.913
Zimbabwe has a variety of flora and fauna	827	1.6	6.0	18.4	38.3	35.7	4.00	.962
Zimbabwe is a safe country for tourists	847	2.2	5.3	18.7	37.4	36.4	4.00	.983
Zimbabwe's wildlife resources are unique	846	2.7	4.4	19.0	39.1	34.8	3.99	.979
Zimbabwe's culture is unique	839	2.0	5.0	17.8	43.3	31.9	3.98	.938
Zimbabwe offers varied activities for tourists	840	1.8	5.6	18.7	42.0	31.9	3.97	.944
The accommodation in Zimbabwe suits my needs	839	2.1	5.5	20.7	38.8	33.6	3.95	.977
The country has a variety of accommodation establishments	841	1.8	5.9	22.6	36.3	33.4	3.94	.977
The country has facilities and activities for the entire family	832	1.3	5.2	24.5	39.1	29.9	3.91	.929
The country is best suited for adventure tourism	822	1.5	4.7	25.3	40.9	27.6	3.88	.915
Zimbabwe's tourism facilities are good	840	1.3	5.2	24.5	39.1	29.9	3.80	1.005
The local cuisine is good	832	2.2	7.8	22.8	44.2	22.8	3.79	1.009
Zimbabwe's environment is in a good state	818	5.3	14.4	26.4	30.9	23.0	3.52	1.147

The country offers good conference and exhibition facilities	811	3.2	9.2	39.6	31.2	16.8	3.49	.982
Transport services are good	825	7.8	4.4	25.8	33.7	20.4	3.47	1.171
	825						3.47	1.171
It is easy to connect from one point to the other	817	6.0	14.2	30.1	33.8	15.9	3.39	1.097
The price of tourism goods and services offer value for money	839	11.9	14.4	25.6	28.8	18.2	3.29	1.263
The country offers a unique night life	819	7.2	15.5	39.9	24.9	12.5	3.20	1.073
The prices of tourism goods and services are affordable	822	12.9	19.7	30.5	23.5	13.4	3.05	1.218
Most of the activities require skills that I don't have	814	17.2	34.6	24.8	13.9	9.5	2.64	1.192
Most of the activities are frightening	820	23.5	32.9	27.1	10.0	6.5	2.43	1.142
	642							

Regarding the 'value for money' tourists had mixed perceptions (M=3.29, S.D=1.263), only 47.0% of the respondents at least agreed that the products and services offer value for money. The country does not provide varied night activities (M=3.20, S.D=1.073), only 41.4% strongly agreed that the country offers a unique night life. Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1056) regard entertainment as part of core resources offered by destination. In this regard, destination policy makers should develop policies which encourage investment in the entertainment industry.

The country's tourism goods and services were considered to be somehow expensive with only 36.1% either agreeing or strongly agree that the prices are affordable (M=3.05, S.D=1.218). Only 23.4% agreed that they lack the prerequisite skills for undertaking the activities in Zimbabwe. The country's activities (M=2.64, S.D=1.192) were considered user friendly and appropriate as most tourist did not agree with the fact they are frightening (M=2.43, S.D=1.142) and only 16.5% affirmed.

### 5.9.2 Tourists perceptions according to region of origin

Figure 5.4 shows the top five destinations attributes which were positively evaluated, in respect of each of the five.

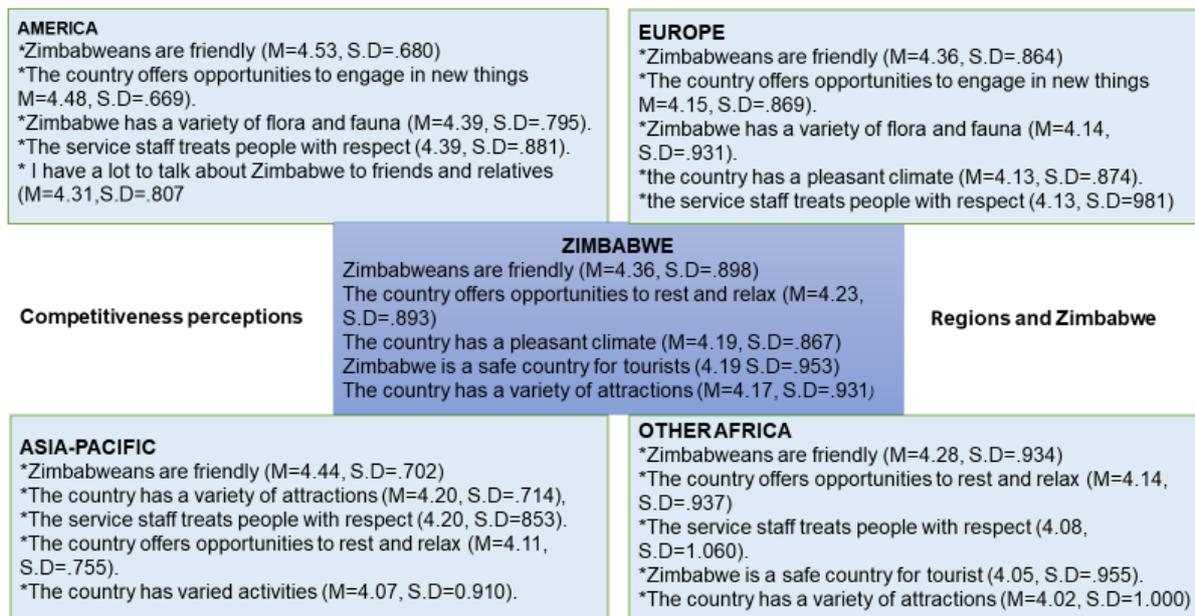


Figure 5. 4: Competitiveness perceptions

There was unanimity among tourists from different nationalities that *Zimbabweans were friendly*, as this variable was the top most positively evaluated perception attribute. There was also consensus among tourist from different geographical locations in terms of the attitude of the *service staff that they treat tourists with respect*. There were no major differences among the different regions, although Americans appear to be more positive than other regions as evidenced by higher mean scores as compared to those of other regions. The fact that the variable *'I have a lot to talk about Zimbabwe to friends and relatives back home* was unique to the Americans was a sign that American tourists found the destination quite interesting. The variable on the safety of the country did not feature among the top five perceptions attributes of the Americas, Europe and Asia-Pacific regions, but on Zimbabwe and other African countries, which shows elements of patriotism of the African market, it could also be a sign that the western market is not only focussing on political safety but on other issues such as health. However, worth noting is that the safety issue though not featuring among the top five competitiveness perceptions in the western market, they rate that country as a safe destination.

### **5.9.3 Factor analysis of tourist competitiveness perceptions**

The KMO and Bartlett's tests were carried out on the perception attributes yielding 0.939 and  $p < 0.001$  respectively, implying that the perception variables were suitable for factor analysis. Six factors were extracted explaining 56 %. Variable items with a loading of 0.30 and above were considered as correlating with the factor. The most important dimensions which rated highly were: *Safety/relaxation opportunities* (M=4.00, S.D=0.996); *core resources* (M=3.98, S.D=0.629); and *hospitality* (M=3.88, S.D=0.686). Respondents had mixed perceptions on *facilities/accessibility* as well as *pricing and accommodation*, which scored (M=3.39, S.D=0.686) and (M=3.47, S.D=0.814). The least was *Activities* with a mean (M=3.39, S.D=0.686) as shown Table 5.12.

**Table 5.12: Factor analysis of perceptions on competitiveness**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Factor1</b>	<b>Factor 2</b>	<b>Factor 3</b>	<b>Factor 4</b>	<b>Factor 5</b>	<b>Factor 6</b>
	<b>Core resources</b>	<b>Activities</b>	<b>Pricing&amp; Accommodation</b>	<b>Hospitality</b>	<b>Facilities/Accessibility</b>	<b>Safety/Relaxation opportunities</b>
To talk about Zimbabwe to friends and relatives	.843					
Destination suited for adventure tourism	.652					
Opportunities to experience new things	.644					
Facilities and activities for the entire family	.640					
To engage in pleasurable activities	.611					
Has a pleasant climate	.561					
The local cuisine is good	.542					
Variety flora and fauna	.472					
Variety of attractions	.328					
Wildlife resources are unique	.427					
Activities require skills that I don't have		.850				
Activities are frightening		.756				
Goods and services are affordable			.723			
Goods and services offer value for money			.650			
Accommodation in Zimbabwe suits my needs			.508			
Variety of accommodation establishments			.485			
Varied activities for tourists			.434			
Staff treat people with respect				.763		
Zimbabweans are friendly				.735		
Country offers opportunities to interact with locals				.705		
Zimbabwe's culture is unique				.378		
It easy to connect from one point to the other					-.746	



### 5.9.3.1 Factor 1: Core resources

The *core resources* factor was positively evaluated by tourists ( $M=3.98$ ,  $S.D=0.626$ ), the Cronbach's alpha score of 0.854 and a MIIC of 0.369 shows that the level of internal consistency between the variable items was very high. This factor had nine variables relating to core resources such as climate, flora and fauna, attractions wildlife resources and cuisine. Dwyer and Kim (2003:380) indicated that core resources are an important determinant of destination competitiveness as they make the destinations attractive to visit. Similarly, Ritchie and Crouch (2003:4) regard the core resources as the primary elements of destination appeal. The positive perceptions on this dimension means that destination Zimbabwe is competitive in this regard. This implies that, the depressed tourist visits to the country could be due to some other factors and not linked to issues to do with the core resources. In fact, consideration of the motivations showed that most tourists are motivated to visit the destination by the desire to see *wildlife*, *scenery* and *culture* and these are the key natural resources of the destination.

This factor also had variables linked more to destination *experiences*. The following variables were part of this factor as well, '*I have a lot to talk about Zimbabwe to friends and relatives, the country offers opportunities to experience new things, the destination has facilities and activities for the entire family and the destination provides opportunities to engage in pleasurable activities*'. Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1054) argued that much of the tourism experience is associated with the physical resources of a destination such as the physiography and climate. This is confirmed by the is study since the experience variable in this study loaded together with physical assets of the destination. There is need for management to enhance and even produce more tourist experiences associated with the primary elements (Physical resources) in order to improve the competitive advantage of destinations. According to King (2001:501), is becoming more experience oriented.

### 5.9.3.2 Factor 2: Activities

This factor had the least mean score ( $M=2.54$ ,  $S.D=0.852$ ), while the Cronbach's alpha of 0.587 is relatively low, the MIIC value of 0.394 shows that the reliability of the factors is within acceptable range. Variables falling under this dimension were '*activities are frightening*', '*activities require skills that I don't have*' and '*the country offers a unique night life*'. The low mean score on this factor indicate that tourists found the activities to be appropriate and user friendly, while night life was limited. The fact that tourist possessed the relevant skills and considered most activities to be appropriate means they were able to maximise their enjoyment out of them (activities). This to some extent shows that most of the tourist are

oriented towards adventure. Lack of the necessary skills may diminish the enjoyment of activities and even access. Consumers may also be required to have particular skills and competencies to participate in the consumption experience (Lugosi & Walls, 2012:1)

### **5.9.3.3 Factor 3:- Pricing and accommodation**

Tourists had mixed perceptions ( $M=3.39$ ,  $S.D=0.754$ ) in relation to the '*pricing and accommodation* factor'. The relatively low mean score in comparison to other dimensions is an indication that the destination is less competitive in this regard. The factor included items on the affordability of tourism goods and services and whether they offer value for money. The items on accommodation sought to establish tourist's perceptions on whether the country has a variety of accommodation establishments and whether the accommodation suits tourists' needs. In respect of pricing, Zimbabwe has generally been regarded as an expensive destination for tourists (Chigora, 2015:27). The declining value of the rand against the US dollar, which is the major currency in use in Zimbabwe, means that the destination is becoming increasingly expensive to the South African market which traditionally provides more than 70% of tourists to the country (Chinamasa, 2015:88). The development of the accommodation sector has been, to a greater extent, affected by the country's poor economic performance as no new lodgings have been constructed for quite some time and the existing ones are poorly maintained (IMARA, 2011:5).

Tourists also had mixed feelings regarding the activities offered in the country. There is also a need to come up with a variety of tourist activities in order to boost the competitive position of the destination. The length of stay for tourists in Zimbabwe tends to be reduced partly due to limited activities in the country (ZTA, 2007:32).

### **5.9.3.4 Factor 4: Hospitality**

The hospitality factor ( $M3.88$ ,  $S.D=0.686$ ) was the third most important factor with a Cronbach's alpha value was 0.765 and a MIIC score .250. Both values show that the factors were internally consistent. The items falling under this dimension were: '*the service staff treats people with respect; Zimbabweans are friendly; the country offers opportunities to interact with locals; and Zimbabwe's culture is unique*'. The positive evaluation of this factor implies that the destination is attractive to tourists who prefer social involvement. Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1059) underscored the need for service providers to deliver tourism experiences in a warm spirit of hospitality as this contributes to destination competitiveness. Similarly, Morgan, Lugosis and Ritchie (2010) averred that the attitude of residents to some extent influences the

quality of tourist experiences. In the case of Zimbabwe, the country has a tradition of being a friendly nation (ZTA, 2007:27; Abel *et al.*, 2013:23) and this empirical survey has further confirmed this virtue. Thus, the country has what Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1059) referred to as the 'built-in' advantage which, if complimented with training, will enable the destination to provide high quality memorable experiences. However, Abel *et al.* (2013:23) argued that, friendliness should be complimented with professional service skills in order for it to be effective.

#### **5.9.3.5 Factor 5: Accessibility and facilities**

This was the fourth factor in terms of importance. Tourists had mixed perception in relation to this factor (M=3.47, S.D=0.814), the Cronbach's mean score was 0.722 and the MIIC value was 0.396. Items under this factor were: *'it is easy to connect from one point to the other; transport services are good; the country has good conference facilities; Zimbabwe's environment is in a good state; and Zimbabwe's tourism facilities are good'*. Accessibility is a key factor in tourism (Divisekera, 2000:32), the fact that the tourists had mixed perceptions on this factor shows that the destination is not performing well in this dimension. Accessibility issues were pointed out as one of the major challenges facing the tourism industry and this harmonises with what is stated in literature (Abel *et al.*, 2013:12; ZTA, 2007:23). This shows that this dimension requires urgent attention. Accessibility issues require the intervention of policy makers. The country's poor economic performance; to some extent; is impacting on the provision of transport infrastructure. In respect of tourism facilities in general, including provision of conference and exhibition facilities, the policy makers need to create a conducive environment for direct foreign investment among other strategies. However, some of the national policies such as the indigenisation policy seem to scare away investors (Zhou & Zvoushe, 2012:106).

#### **5.9.3.6 Factor: 6 Safety/relaxation opportunities**

This factor was evaluated highly, scoring the highest mean score (M=4.00, S.D=0.394), and the Cronbach's alpha score was relatively low 0.566. The fact that the factor had only two variables falling under it could have contributed towards the low alpha value. However, the MIIC value of 0.394 shows that the items were fairly correlated. The variables under this factor were: *'the country offers opportunities to rest and relax; and Zimbabwe is a safe country for tourists'*. Positive perceptions on the destination ambience factor, which includes the safety variable, is a competitive strength for Zimbabwe since the country has generally been perceived as an unsafe destination. ZTA (2007a:46) noted that Zimbabwe is a generally safe

and secure country but is perceived as unsafe and unsecure by most international tourists. The fact that most international tourists, who have experience with Zimbabwe, rated the destination favourably in relation to safety and relaxation opportunities is likely to improve the image of the country over the years, through word of mouth recommendations. This aspect could be a unique selling point for destinations in Southern Africa, given that they have not recorded any major terrorist attack. According to Dwyer and Kim (2003:398), awareness is one of the tripartite determinants of destination competitiveness together with preferences and image. Consequently, marketers need to focus on the active promotion of the unique attributes of a destination (Vilić & Dujaković, 2016:60).

On another note, the depressed tourist arrivals the country is experiencing, yet there is a general consensus among tourists that the country is safe, could be an indication that the withdrawal of some international tourists is just but a question of attitude and not necessarily that the country is unsafe. Ndoda (2010:83) noted that, on comparative terms, Zimbabwe is much better than South Africa in terms of crime and personal security, yet the later receives more tourists than the former. Lumsdon and Page (2007:17) commented that Zimbabwe lost considerable goodwill from the international community because of intense media scrutiny regarding human rights issues. It is therefore necessary for the country to improve its policy environment so as to dispel the impression of an insecure destination. It also appears that tourist who have been to the country tend to be more positive as regards the safety of the country because of their first-hand experience. This is unlike tourists who have not yet visited but tend to rely on media coverage about the country.

**5.9.4 Tourists’ description of Zimbabwe as destination: qualitative comments**

In order to gain more insights on the perceptions that tourist have about Zimbabwe, they were asked the question ‘How best can you describe Zimbabwe as a tourist destination?’ The question attracted responses from 217 respondents and comments made by at least two respondents are shown in Table 5.13.

**Table 5.13: Tourist description of Zimbabwe as a tourist destination: Qualitative comments**

Comments	Frequency of similar comment
Safe and is peaceful / proper security for foreigners/non-violent/ people/free from terrorist attacks/lower crime rate/no civil war	51
Variety of flora and fauna, /Good national and game parks/wilderness experience	39

Amazing landscapes/ beautiful scenery such as Nyanga, Matopos, magnificent, exotic, a nation of wonders, awesome/African paradise	37
Friendly, lovely, hospitable, helpful, courteous people,	32
Expensive destination/ in comparison to South Africa/high cost of activities/ high exchange rate	19
Victoria falls should be in every one's basket list, a must visit	17
Calm and relaxing, exciting	10
Offers both adventure and relaxation	9
One stop destination/distinction never to miss/world class	8
Good climate	9
Beautiful women/people/attractive people	5
Nature at its best	7
Variety of attractions natural attractions	6
Good destination for business	6
Interesting historical monuments/great Zimbabwe	6
Unique culture, its diversity, crafts and delicious food	5
A country with a lot of potential but some places are dirty	5
Poor infrastructure	5
Organised, good destination/best African country	5
Variety of activities	4
Kariba is good/lovely/ Mana pools, / Gonarezhou	4
Some places are nice but other are not pleasant/ not properly maintained	4
Place with great potential	3
Excellent environment for hunting and safari	3
Annoying sewers	3
The country has powerful pastors	2
Participating in safari activities	2
Transit destination in southern Africa	2
Beautiful country which is not properly marketed	2

According to the above comments, Zimbabwe was described by tourists as a safe and peaceful destination, with friendly, helpful and welcoming people, good national parks and amazing landscapes. This is contrary to the negative image that the country has earned over the years. According to Chiutsi *et al.* (2011:14), Zimbabwe since the fast track land reform programme has been perceived as an unsafe destination. Some tourists even stated the issue that Zimbabwe has never experienced terrorist attacks (Table 5.13). The Victoria Falls was singled by a significant number of tourists as a unique attraction. However, the country should improve on its infrastructure and revise its pricing structure, which is making the destination expensive in the sub region. Despite the negative comments, the tourists' descriptions of Zimbabwe were generally positive.

## **5.10 CLUSTER ANALYSIS**

The five factors that were extracted from the factor analysis of preferences variables were subjected to cluster analysis to determine tourist taxonomies. Cluster analysis is a method which attempts to group the most similar cases together (Bailey, 1994:35). The Ward's method in combination with Euclidean distance were used to come up with the clusters. The data yielded a 3 and 4 cluster solution. The latter was found to be more representative. The clusters results are presented at two levels, firstly the clusters are named by considering the mean values of each of the preference factors extracted from cluster analysis. Secondly, the socio demographic characteristic, the motivations and perceptions of each tourist taxon are analysed and evaluated using effect sizes to ascertain whether the observed differences among the clusters were of any practical significance.

### **5.10.1 Naming of clusters**

The examination of the mean scores for each cluster was used to come up with the labels for the four taxa. According to Kim and Ritchie (2012:276) and Srihadi *et al.* (2016:34), mean scores are used to name clusters. Cluster analysis was based on the preference factors.

**Table 5.14: Clusters based on preference dimensions**

Factors	Mean					ANOVA p-value	Effect sizes					
	Clus1 CNT	Clus2 PT	Clus3 IT	Clus4 IDT	MSE		CNT with PT	CNT with IT	CNT with IDT	PT with IT	PT with IDT	IT with IDT
Familiarity	2.74	3.78	2.10	2.82	0,336	<0.001	1.69	1.03	.14	2.75	1.56	1.30
Social involvement	3.68	4.14	3.84	3.24	.427	<0.001	.67	.22	.64	.42	1.83	.83
Environmentalism	3.61	4.38	3.75	3.49	.286	<0.001	1.13	.21	.90	.05	.91	.96
Activity/adventure	3.83	3.84	3.87	2.15	.381	<0.001	.02	.07	.90	.05	.91	.96
Travel services	3.79	4.35	1.81	2.59	.352	<0.001	.85	3.30	2.05	3.82	2.65	1.30

\*Small effect  $d=0.2$  Medium effect  $d= 0.5$  Large effect  $d=0.8$ .

\* CNT- Cautious New Tourist PT- Patriotic Tourist IT- Independent Tourist IDT- Indifferent Tourist

An analysis of how the five dimensions were combining in each cluster, was used to come up with the following labels. Cluster 1: the *Cautious New Tourist* (CNT), cluster 2: *Patriotic Tourists* (PT), cluster 3: *the Independent Tourist* (IT) and cluster 4: *the Indifferent Tourist* (IDT). The one-way ANOVA test showed that the clusters were statistically different from each other in relation to all the five dimensions with all the taxa having a p value of <0.001 (Table 5.14). Effect sizes were also calculated to ascertain whether these observed statistically significant differences were of practical value. The reason being that, huge samples tend to yield statistically significant results, which do not have practical significance (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:53; Pallant, 2010:210).

Cohen cited in (Ellis & Styen, 2003:4) gives the following guidelines for the interpretation of the effect sizes: small effect  $d=0.2$ , medium effect  $d= 0.5$ , large effect  $d=0.8$ . The portions in Table 5.14 highlighted in green indicate the dimensions where there were practical significant differences between the taxa. Where effect sizes are very large between two clusters it means that the clusters are unique and distinctly different from each other.

#### **5.10.1.1 Cluster 1: The Cautious New Tourist (CNT)**

Cluster 1 was made up of  $n=299$ , which translates to 34.4% of the total sample. This cluster was the largest and unique in that the tourists preferred travel arrangements to be handled by travel services ( $M=3.79$ ,  $S.D=.0542$ ). Cluster 1 tourist was labelled the *Cautious New Tourist* (CNT) because tourists in this cluster were not interested in familiarity ( $M=2.73$ ,  $S.D=0.617$ ) but preferred *environmentalism* ( $M=3.88$ ,  $S.D=0.444$ ) and were *activity/adventure* oriented ( $M=3.84$ ,  $S.D=0.630$ ). *social involvement* ( $M=3.68$ ,  $S.D=0.664$ ), The preferences of the CNT reflect some of the characteristics of the new tourist. These findings concur with the observations made by (Poon, 1993) that the new tourist tends to be environmentally sound, shows more consideration of the host environment and is not a spectator but a participant (Cecilia *et al.*, 2011:1). However, it must be noted that the CNT is also concerned about the state of the social, economic and political environment, since the environmentalism factor in this study also encompasses variables related to such.

An analysis of the effect sizes on *travel services* shows this dimension was a unique characteristic to the CNT as there were notable practical significant differences on this dimension with cluster 3 ( $d = 3.30$ ) and cluster 4 ( $d = 2.05$ ). Cluster 2, was the only cluster which had a higher score than that of the CNT and the differences (though high for both clusters) between these two clusters were practically significant ( $d = .85$ ).

The fact that the CNT has a distaste for familiarity, is an indication that this tourist is moving away from the typical mass organised tourist tendencies. However, this type of tourist reflects mass tourist tendencies when it comes to trip arrangements which are mostly done through travel services. However, these partial mass tourist tendencies displayed by the CNT could just be a way of avoiding unexpected discomforts when visiting foreign destinations. One can also argue that Zimbabwe is a destination which is recovering from an 'an unsafe image tag' triggered by the events associated with the fast track land reform programme of 2000, so some tourists may feel safer being handled by the travel trade. However, to some extent the tourists may also be taking advantage of comparatively low prices of services which are usually offered by intermediaries. Cooper and Hall (2016:95) indicated that today's tourist is demanding, knowledgeable and understand the industry and knows how to take advantage of ticketing and pricing flexibility.

On the three dimensions of *social involvement*, *environmentalism* and *activity/adventure*, the CNT had similar preferences with Cluster 3. The effect sizes between these clusters on *social involvement* ( $d=.22$ ), *environmentalism* ( $d=.21$ ) and *activity/adventure* ( $d=.07$ ) means that the differences between the clusters were of small practical significance i.e. they share similar characteristics. This is common in typology/taxonomy literature, for example Cohen's (1972) mass tourist and individual mass organised tourist share many things in common but are different in that the latter prefers a flexible itinerary. Similarly, Johns and Gyimóthy (2002:326), in their study on market segmentation of visitors to Bornholm, discovered that some of the clusters were fuzzy, with some detectable overlaps on certain dimensions.

The desire to rely on tour guides implies that the CNT is motivated to learn as much as he/she can from the destination. Skilled and resourceful tour guides play a critical role in the facilitation of memorable experiences (Arsenault & Gale, 2004:ii). The implication, is that there is need to invest in the training of tour guides so that they gain key competences which enables them to confidently execute their duties in their interactions with tourists. According to Spring (2016:2), tour guides apart from giving facts, they should be able to interpret and give meaning to objects or phenomena under consideration be it heritage or otherwise to facilitate meaningful learning on the part of their audiences.

#### **5.10.1.2 Cluster 2: The Patriotic Tourist (PT)**

This cluster was the third largest group ( $n=199$ ) comprising of 23.5% of the total sample. The cluster scored very high on all the preference dimensions in the following order: *environmentalism* ( $M=4.38$ ,  $S.D=0.407$ ); *travel services* ( $M=4.35$ ,  $S.D=0.666$ ); *social*

*involvement* (M=4.14, S.D=0.534); *activity/adventure* (M=3.84, S.D=0.614); and *familiarity* (M= 3.78, S.D=0.610). Apart from the high scores on all the dimensions, the taxon is unique in that it is the only cluster which showed preference for familiarity. Preference for *familiarity* when visiting destinations is an indication that some tourist visiting the country still display mass tourist (Cohen 1972) tendencies.

Consideration of the effect sizes shows that there were significant practical differences on this dimension (familiarity) with Cluster 3 ( $d=2.75$ ) cluster 4 ( $d=1.56$ ). The cluster also had high mean scores on *travel services* (M=4.35) and had significant practical differences with Cluster 1 labelled the CNT ( $d=.85$ ), cluster 3 ( $d=3.82$ ) and cluster 4 ( $d=2.65$ ). This type of a tourist prefers everything and has been named the *Patriotic Tourist* (PT). The concept of a '*want it all tourist*' was found in previous studies for example (Kim & Ritchie, 2012; Park & Yoon, 2009; Srihadi *et al.*, 2016), though these were based on motivations.

### 5.10.1.3 Cluster 3: The Independent Tourist (IT)

Cluster constituted 14. 9% (n=126) of the total sample and was the smallest among the four taxa obtained in this study. This cluster showed more preference for *activity/adventure* (M=3.87, S.D=0.524), followed by *social involvement* (M=3.84, S.D=0.714) and then *environmentalism* (M=3.75, S.D=0.622). The cluster is unique in that the tourists had the least mean scores on *familiarity* (M=2.10, S.D=0.455) and the *travel services dimension* (M=1.8, S.D=0.599) in comparison with other clusters. On the *familiarity dimension*, cluster 3 showed practical significant differences with all the other clusters, i.e. cluster 2-PT ( $d=2.75$ ), cluster 4 ( $d=1.30$ ), and cluster 1-CNT ( $d=1.03$ ). In addition, cluster 3 on the *travel services dimension* had large practical significant differences with cluster 1 (CNT) ( $d=3.30$ ), cluster 2-PT ( $d=3.82$ ) and cluster 4 ( $d=1.30$ ).

Cluster 3 was named the Independent Tourist (IT), which name was found appropriate because this tourist does not rely on the *travel services* and has no preference for *familiarity*. According to Hyde and Lawson (2003:13), the term independent traveller should be applied to those tourists who have flexible itinerary and some degree of freedom when travelling within a destination. This tourist resembles the contemporary tourist, who has moved away from mass tourist tendencies of seeking familiarity and use of travel trade for trip arrangements. This IT is the opposite of Cohen's (1972) institutionalised tourist, who shows preference for familiarity. This IT, in terms of the desire for social involvement and non-reliance on the tourism institution for travel arrangements, is similar to Cohen (1972)'s non-institutionalised tourist

especially, the drifter and Plog (1974)'s allocentric. One can argue that this tourist is the modern-day drifter tourist. According to Cohen (1972), the drifter arranges own trip, prefers a flexible itinerary, attempts to get off the beaten track, but delights in comfortable accommodation and reliable transport.

#### **5.10.1.4 Cluster 4: The Indifferent Tourist (IDT)**

This cluster is the second largest taxon making 25.2% of the sample. The cluster had low preferences in all the dimensions though with an inclination towards the *environmentalism* dimension (M=3.49, S.D=0.673) followed by *social involvement* (M=3.23, S.D.=0.652), *familiarity* (M=2.82, S.D=0.599), travel service (M=2.59, S.D=0.584), *activity /adventure* (M=2.25, S.D. 0.674). This taxon has characteristics that are in sharp contrast with those of the Patriotic Tourists (PT) because in comparison it scored lowly, on all the dimensions.

The Cluster was labelled the Indifferent Tourist (IDT) because of subdued mean scores on most of the dimensions. One can argue that this cluster represents the unenthusiastic tourist. The concept of a low-profile tourist is common in the literature for example by Kim and Ritchie (2012), in their study on motivation-based typologies, identified the low-profile tourist. The IDT cluster was significantly different from the other clusters in all the dimensions. However, the IDT was similar to the CNT on the *familiarity dimension*, CNT (M=2.73) and Cluster 4 (M=2.82) because the difference between these clusters was of small practical significance, with a small effect size ( $d=14$ ).

#### **5.10.2 Socio-demographic/Trip characteristics of the taxa**

This section sought to establish the socio-demographic characteristics of each taxon and to establish whether there were significant differences between them (see Table 5.15).

**Table 5.15: The socio-demographic and trip characteristics of the tourist taxa**

Socio-demographics/Trip characteristics	Cautious Tourist (CNT)	Patriotic Tourist (PT)	Independent Tourist (IT)	Indifferent Tourist (IDT)	X	DF.	Sign. <0.05	Cramer's V
Gender					8.942	3	.030*	.105
Females	51.6	41.1	57.3	50.2				
Males	48.4	58.9	42.7	49.8				
Age					22.024	12	.037*	.097
18-30	29.8	31.3	30.0	26.8				
31-40	29.8	36.8	27.5	25.8				
41-50	20.7	21.4	15.0	22.5				
51-60	11.6	6.6	15.0	15.3				
60+	8.0	3.8	12.5	9.6				
Level of education					22.372	12	.034*	.100
Primary	2.6	1.8	0.0	2.6				
Secondary	14.6	20.4	10.0	14.5				
Professional qualification	19.9	16.2	13.3	16.1				
Diploma	19.1	22.2	14.2	21.2				
Degree	43.8	39.5	62.5	45.6				
Other								
Income					66.875	15	.000*	.178
Less than US1000	25.8	49.7	27.5	26.4				
US 1000-1999	16.8	17.6	11.0	17.0				

US2000-3999	20.9	18.8	19.3	19.8				
US4000-7999	17.2	9.7	27.5	11.5				
US8000-15999	12.3	4.2	11.0	15.9				
US16000+	7.0	0.0	3.7	9.3				
Have you ever visited the country before	46.8	62.6	48.9	53.4	6.44	3	.092	.115
Sources of information								
Internet	55.9	45.7	66.7	52.3	14.306	3	.003*	.130
Travel Agents	30.1	29.6	23.0	22.5	5.44	3	.142	.080
Brochures	13.1	8.0	15.1	11.7	4.469	3	.215	.073
Newspapers/Magazines	11.7	8.0	12.0	5.0	8.596	3	.035*	.101
Friends and Relatives	24.9	34.7	53.2	36.5	21.890	3	.000*	.161
Previous experience	18.2	24.6	21.4	19.0	3.432	3	.330	.064
Trip arrangements					26.865	15	.030*	.129
Tour operator everything	57.8	49.6	35.2	38.8				
Booked everything personally through the internet	20.8	25.9	31.0	29.1				
Transport only through a travel agent	2.1	1.4	0.0	5.2				
I booked for accommodation only through a travel agent	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0				
I booked for activities only through the tour operator	5.7	7.9	12.7	7.5				
Nothing was booked in advance, except for the air ticket	13.0	15.1	21.1	19.4				
Travel company					Q			
Alone	17.7	15.6	17.5	21.2	7.043	9	.633	.053
Friends	25.8	21.6	18.3	23.4	3.116	3	.374	.061
Spouse	8.0	8.0	22.2	12.6	20.647	3	.000*	.156
Family	23.1	21.1	27.8	27.0	3.068	3	.381	.060

Business Associates	11.4	19.1	11.1	10.4	9.063	3	.028	.144
Partner	5.4	6.0	4.8	4.5	.559	3	.906	.026
Tour Group	5.7	6.0	4.0	3.2	2.652	3	.448	.056
Trip purpose					43.201	12	.000*	.140
Leisure and recreation	60.3	51.2	60.0	52.2				
Business and professional	23.7	36.5	15.0	24.2				
Visiting friends and relatives	8.8	7.8	14.2	15.1				
Education and training	7.3	4.7	8.8	5.4				
Religion and pilgrimage	0.0	5.9	1.8	3.2				
Type of accommodation					34.879	18	.010	.129
4-5-star hotel	33.9	21.4	20.5	33.3				
1-3 star	19.6	13.2	26.8	19.9				
Self-catering	15.9	29.6	20.5	17.7				
Motel	4.9	5.0	2.7	3.8				
Camping	5.3	5.7	7.1	1.6				
VFR	19.2	22.6	21.4	21.0				
Tourism regions					85.559	15	.000*	.184
Domestic Vs International					29.916	3	.000*	.188
Domestic	34.8	48.7	19.0	36				
International	65.2	51.3	81.0	74				

\*Chi-square significant at  $p < 0.05$  \*\* Cramer's V significant at  $> 0.20$

\*Statistical significant differences with a Cramer's V value below 0.20 were considered practically insignificant.

\*For source of information, trip arrangements and travel company respondents were allowed to choose more than 1 option

### **5.10.2.1 Gender**

CNT had slightly more females (51.6%) than males (48.4%), whereas the IT had a significant proportion of females (57.3%) as compared to males (42.7%). The PT was dominated by males (58.9%) in comparison to females (41.1%), while the IDT had a fairly balanced proportion of males (49.8%) to females (50.2%). Statistically significant differences using the Chi square tests:  $\chi^2 (3=8.449) =0.030$  were found among clusters in relation to the gender of the respondents.

### **5.10.2.2 Age**

The taxa were compared in terms of age. The PT was dominated by young tourists with 89.6% below the age of 50. The CNT had 79.4% respondents below the age of 50, the IDT had 75.1% below the age of 50, while the IT had 62.7% below the age of 50. The IT taxon had a significant proportion of the senior market (37.3%) followed by the IDT with 24.9%, then CNT with 19.6% and lastly the PT (10.4%). (In this study, those aged 50 and above were regarded as the senior market). The IDT and CNT had similar proportions of age distribution. Statistical significant differences among the clusters were found in relation to age  $\chi^2 (12=22.024) =0.037$ , however, the differences were not of practical value.

### **5.10.2.3 Education**

Using a university degree as the yardstick, the IT emerged as the most educated taxon with 62.5%, followed by the IDT with 45.6%, then the CNT with 43.8%, the PT was the least educated taxon with 39.5% having at least a degree. The CNT and IDT had similar educational levels. Statistical significant differences  $\chi^2 (12=22.372) =.034$  were observed between clusters.

### **5.10.2.4 Income**

The IT taxon was more affluent than other taxa, with 43.2% tourists earning US4000 per month and above. The IDT and the CNT were similar with 36.5% and 36.7% of the tourists earning US4000 and plus per month. The PT was the least affluent taxon with only 13.7% earning at least US4000 per month. Statistical significant differences existed between clusters in relation to income,  $\chi^2 (16=66.875) =.000$ .

### **5.10.2.5 Accommodation**

The CNT (33.9%) and IDT (33.3%) used 4-5-star hotels more than other taxa. The PT used more of the self-catering lodges (29.9%) as compared to other tourist types while the IT used more of the 1-3-star hotels (28.8%) as compared to the other taxa. VFR was used by all taxa in more or less similar proportions, though the PT had slightly more usage (22.6%) than the other taxa, followed by the IT (21.4%), the IDT (21.0) and the CNT (19.2%). Statistical significant differences were found between the taxa,  $\chi^2 (18=34.879) = .010$ .

### **5.10.2.6 Purpose of visit**

Leisure and recreation tourists dominated in the CNT (60.3%) and IT (60.0%) taxa. The PT and the IDT taxa had the least proportion of leisure tourist as compared to the other taxa (51.2%) and 52.2% respectively. PT had a significant proportion of the business tourists (36.5%) followed by the IDT (24.2%). The IDT had a slightly high proportion of the VFR segment (15.1%). The religion and pilgrimage market had a very small representation among all the taxa, with the PT having only 5.9%, which was the highest, the CNT had no tourists who had visited for religion and pilgrimage, while the IT had 1.8% and the IDT had 3.2%. The differences between the taxa were statistically significant  $\chi^2 (12=43.201)=0.00$ .

### **5.10.2.7 Trip arrangements**

The CNT had the highest number (57.8%) of tourists booking everything through the tour operator, (this is in keeping with their preference for the use of travel services (c.f.5.10.1.1) followed by the PT (49.6%), and the IDT (38.8%). The IT had the least number (35.2%) of tourists arranging the trips through tour operators, signifying the desire for independent trip arrangements. As a result, the IT had the highest number (31.0%) booking personally through the internet as compared to the other taxa. Meanwhile, the IT had a relatively high number (21.1%) booking for the ticket only, while, the CNT had the least number of tourists booking the ticket only in advance (13.0%). Thus, in order to effectively cater for the IT taxon's needs on trip arrangement, there is need for tourism service providers to embrace electronic technology in order to make it easy for tourist purchase services online, for example, tickets and accommodation reservations. Statistical significant differences between trip arrangements were found,  $\chi^2 (15=26.865) = .030$ .

### 5.10.2.8 Sources of information

The IT (66.7%) relied more on the internet than other taxa while PT (45.7%) had the lowest number of tourists using the internet for trip arrangements. The differences between taxa in relation to the use of the internet as a source of information were statistically significant  $\chi^2(3=14.306)=0.003$ . The IT in relation to VFR as sources of information had the highest proportion (53.2%) and the CNT had the least number of tourists using VFR and differences between the taxa were statistically significant  $\chi^2(21.890)=0.000$ . In relation to newspapers and magazines though not a popular source of information the IT used them more than others (12.0%) and there were statistically significant differences between the taxa  $\chi^2(3=8.596)=0.000$ .

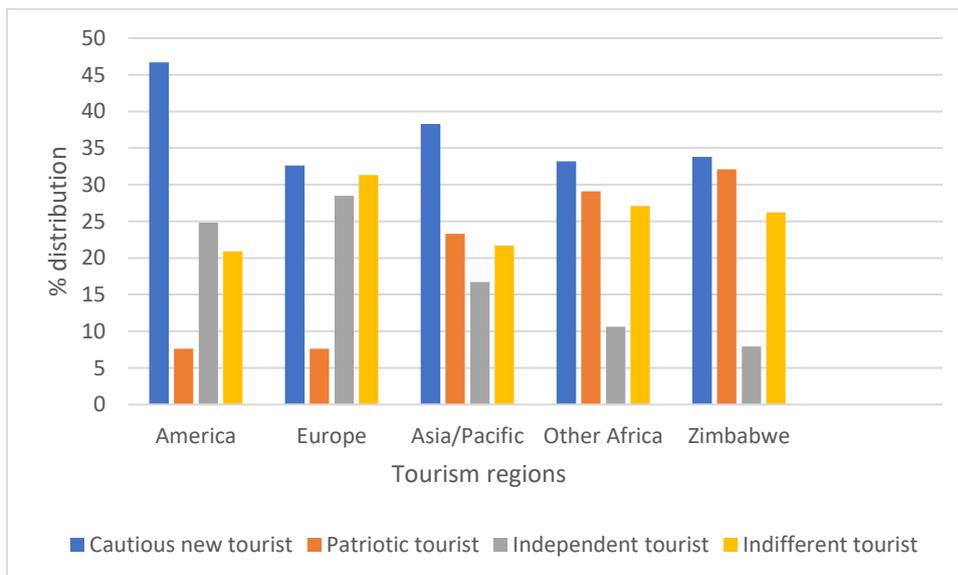
### 5.10.2.9 Travel companion

With respect to travel Company, IDT had a slightly higher number of those who travelled alone (21.2%), while the IT taxon had the least proportion of those who travelled alone (15.6%). There were no statistically significant differences between the taxa  $\chi^2(3=7.043)=0.063$ . The CNT had a higher proportion of tourist travelling in the company of friends (25.8%), while the IT had the least (18.35%), however, the differences were not statistically significant  $\chi^2(3=3.116)=0.374$ . In relation to spouse as travel companion, the CNT and the PT had the same proportions of 8.0%, while the IDT had 12.6% who travelled in the company of spouses. The IT had the largest proportion travelling with spouses (22.2%) and the differences between the clusters were statistically significant  $\chi^2(3=20.647)=0.000$ .

The proportion of those who travelled as families was high in the IT taxon (27.8%) and the IDT (27.5%) respectively, and was the least in the PT taxon (21.1%). The differences in relation to family as travel company were not statistically significant  $\chi^2(3=3.063)=0.381$ . The PT had the highest proportion of tourist travelling with business associates (19.1%) in comparison with other taxa. The CNT (11.4%) the IT (11.1%) and the IDT (10.4%) had similar proportions of those who travelled in the company of business associates. The differences noted between the PT and other taxa were statistically significant  $\chi^2(3=9.063)=0.028$ . Very few tourists travelled in the company of partners, with the PT having 6.0% being the highest, while the taxon with the least proportion was the IDT with 4.5%. The differences between the clusters were not statistically significant  $\chi^2(3=0.559)=0.506$ .

### 5.10.2.10 Region of origin

Taxa were compared to establish whether there were differences in relation to geographical location. Figure 5.5 shows that the majority (46.7%) of tourists from the Americas region were in the CNT cluster, while the IT taxon had 24.8% of tourists from that region, while the IDT had 20.9%. The PT had the least proportion (7.6%) of tourists from the Americas and Europe (8.1%) region. Tourists from Europe had fairly similar proportions of tourists in three of the four taxa, though the CNT had a slightly higher number (32.6%), followed by the IDT with 31.3%, while the IT had 28.5% from this region. A relatively high number of tourists from Asia - Pacific were found in the CNT taxon (38.3%), followed by the PT (23.3%), the IDT (21.7%) and the IT had lowest (16.7%) proportion of tourists from Asia-Pacific. Other African countries (Zimbabwe excluded) had 33.2% of tourist in the CNT taxon, 29.1% were in the PT taxon, while 27.1% were found in the IDT taxon. The IT had the least number (10.6%) of tourist from 'other Africa'. Zimbabweans were found more in the CNT taxon (33.8%), and the PT (32.1%), followed by the IDT (26.2%) with the IT taxon (7.9%) had the least proportion of tourists from Zimbabwe. Statistically significant differences existed between the taxa  $\chi^2(15 = 85.559) = 0.000$ .



**Figure 5.5: Distribution of Respondents across Taxa by Region of Origin**

The graphical representation in Figure 5.5 shows the dominance of certain nationalities in particular taxa. For example, most of the Americans and Europeans were under represented in PT taxon with 8.6% and 7.6%, whereas, tourists from Zimbabwe and other African countries were found in small proportions in the IT taxon with 7.9% and 10.7% respectively. The highest proportion of Europeans were in the IDT taxon, While the majority of CNT were from the

Americas region. The differences between clusters in relation to region of origin is an indication that to some extent people with similar cultural backgrounds tend to have similar characteristics especially in terms of needs and wants. According to Crotty (2004:88), argued that the influence of culture on tourist behaviour must not be underestimated.

### **5.10.3 Proportion of Domestic and international tourists according to taxa**

The CNT had more international tourists (65.2%) and most were from the Americas and Europe. The PT had slightly more international (51.3%) than domestic tourists (48.7%). However, comparatively the PT had the least number of international tourists, and the highest proportion of domestic tourists. In addition, most of the international tourists in the PT taxa were from Africa. The IT was dominated by international tourists (81%) and less domestic tourists (19%). The majority of international tourists in the IT taxa were from Europe, America and Asia-Pacific, the latter was dominated more by tourists from Australia. The IDT also had a fairly high number of international tourists (63.9%) as compared to domestic tourists (36.1%). More of the international tourists in the IDT taxa were from Europe. Statistically significant differences were found among the taxa  $\chi^2(3=29.916) = 0.000$ .

### **5.10.4 Effect sizes: socio demographics and trip characteristics**

Statistically significant differences were found among clusters in relation to most of the socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics among the taxa as shown in Table 5.15. However, the effect sizes were small, in terms of Cramer's V. Rea and Parker cited in (Kotlik & Parker, 2011:138) consider Cramer V value which is above .10 but less than .20 as representing a weak association. In this study, differences in relation to regions and between domestic and international tourists are considered as practically significant because the Cramer's V values of 0.184 and 0.188 are closer the minimum threshold of 0.20.

Some studies have found statistically significant differences among clusters in relation to some demographic characteristics (Kim & Ritchie, 2012; Park & Yoon, 2009), others have not, for example, Cheng and Keng (1996). However, it must be noted that some of the studies where significant differences were found between taxa, only reported on statistical significance and not on effect sizes.

The weak association between socio demographics and trip characteristics in this study serves to illustrate that socio demographic characteristics are not very effective as a criterion for classifying the tourists into homogenous taxa, which are of practical value. Hassan and

Katsanis (1991:21) argued that using geographic and socio-demographic variables to classify tourists have limitations in that they are not based on consumer behaviour patterns. Similarly, King and Cheng (1999:382) pointed out that people with similar demographics can have different travel interests.

## 5.11 TOURIST MOTIVATIONS OF TAXA

The taxa were compared against each other in respect of the motivation dimensions. Knowledge of motivations of tourists in different segments enables tourism managers to develop products and services which reflect what the target markets are looking for (Srihadi *et al.*, 2016:33). As such, the researcher also sought to establish the motivations of the different tourist sub-groups and this sheds light on the demand drivers for each taxon.

Firstly, the top five motivations were examined using descriptive statistics. Secondly the taxa are compared against the motivation dimensions extracted from factor analysis and effect sizes were used to establish if the differences were practically significant.

### 5.11.1 Top five motivations for each taxon

Consideration of the information below shows that in respect of the top five motivations, taxa tend to share similar motivations, though with varying levels of importance. It is only the IT whose top five motivations vary from other taxa in that the desire for adventure featured among its top five motivations, whereas this motivation is not featuring in other taxa (see Table 5:16). This is consistent with literature where the Independent tourist is understood to have venturesome traits (Poon, 1992). The similarity on motivations could be an indication that the destination is filtering tourists, only attracting those who have similar motives. This could also be linked to the fact that the country is a long-haul destination in relation to most international markets.

**Table 5.16: Top five motivations according to taxa**

Taxa	Motivations	Mean	S.D
<b>Cautious New</b>	To explore new places and new experiences	4.42	.790
	To view wildlife and scenery	4.17	1.068
<b>Tourist</b>	To see cultural attractions	4.08	.967
	To learn new things and increase knowledge	4.06	1.070
	To get closer to nature	3.91	1.139
	To explore new places and new experiences	4.42	.873

<b>The Patriotic</b>	To learn new things and increase knowledge	4.23	.845
	To view wildlife and scenery	4.18	1.083
<b>Tourist</b>	To see cultural attractions	4.16	.963
	To get closer to nature	4.12	.985
<b>The independent</b>	To explore new places and new experiences	4.59	.684
<b>Tourist</b>	To view wildlife and scenery	4.38	1.003
	To learn new things and increase knowledge	4.22	1.036
	To get closer to nature	4.20	.959
	To have an adventure	4.04	.983
<b>The indifferent</b>	To explore new places and new experiences	4.06	1.094
<b>Tourist</b>	To view wildlife and scenery	3.79	1.262
	To get closer to nature	3.71	1.173
	To see cultural attractions	3.64	1.156
	To learn new things and increase knowledge	3.60	1.071

Consideration of the mean scores shows that the IT was highly motivated than others, followed by the PT, then the CNT and lastly the IDT. The desire *to explore new places and new experiences* was the major motivation variable influencing tourists to visit the destination. The dominance of this variable shows that tourists associate the destination with opportunities for fulfilling their novelty needs. According to Muchapondwa and Pamhidzai (2011:71), Zimbabwe has been long regarded as a wanderlust destination. This is consistent with the fact, that *novelty and education* was identified as the prime motivation factor for visiting the destination. As a result, one can argue that the current marketing slogan used by the DMO '*Zimbabwe the world of wonders*' seems to be an appropriate marketing slogan with potential to appeal novelty seekers.

### **5.11.2 Tourist motivations of tourist taxa according to factor dimensions**

This section compares the taxa on the basis of the motivation dimensions derived from exploratory factor analysis, which are novelty and knowledge seeking, escape and relaxation, egoism, socialisation and destination environment.

**Table 5.17: Tourist Motivations of Taxa and effect sizes**

Variables	N	Mean	S. Deviation	ANOVA ≤0.05	Effect Sizes		
					CNT with PT, IT, IDT	PT with IT, IDT	IT with IDT
<b>Novelty</b>				.000			
Cautious tourist	299	4.18	.732				
Patriotic tourist	199	4.24	.699		.08		
Independent tourist	126	4.30	.676		.16	.08	
Indifferent tourist	222	3.76	.913		.46	.53	.59
<b>Total</b>	<b>846</b>	<b>4.41</b>	<b>.799</b>				
<b>Egoism</b>				.000			
Cautious tourist	299	3.33	.822				
Patriotic tourist	199	3.88	.694		.66		
Independent tourist	126	3.07	.832		.32	.96	
Indifferent tourist	222	3.03	.821		.37	1.03	.005
<b>Total</b>	<b>846</b>	<b>3.34</b>	<b>.8568</b>				
<b>Escape</b>				.000			
Cautious tourist	299	3.74	.839				
Patriotic tourist	199	3.94	.750		.26		
Independent tourist	126	3.89	.773		.18	.09	
Indifferent tourist	222	3.54	.993		.22	.45	.38
<b>Total</b>	<b>846</b>	<b>3.76</b>	<b>.864</b>				
<b>Socialisation</b>				.000			
Cautious tourist	299	3.10	.877				
Patriotic tourist	199	3.70	.822		.69		
Independent tourist	126	3.09	.948		.00		
Indifferent tourist	222	2.94	.810		.17	.93	.16
<b>Total</b>	<b>846</b>	<b>3.20</b>	<b>.903</b>				
<b>Destination environment</b>				.000			
Cautious tourist	299	3.71	.762				
Patriotic tourist	199	4.00	.764		.39		
Independent tourist	126	3.77	.751		.09		
Indifferent tourist	222	3.46	.822		.30	.66	.38
<b>Total</b>	<b>846</b>	<b>3.98</b>					

\*Small effect  $d=0.2$  Medium effect  $d= 0.5$  Large effect  $d=0.8$ .

### 5.11.2.1 Factor 1: Novelty and knowledge seeking

*Novelty and knowledge* seeking was the most important motivation factor for tourists visiting the destination ( $M=4.41$ ,  $S.D=.799$ ). This shows that, tourists engage in travel mainly because of intrinsic psychological reasons and is consistent with Crompton (1979) study where he identified seven socio-psychological factors and only two destination related motivation factors. All the four types of tourist were motivated by *novelty and knowledge seeking*, though the IDT ( $M=3.76$ ,  $S.D=.913$ ) was less motivated by that dimension in comparison to others. The effect sizes between the IDT and CNT is ( $d= 0.46$ ), between IDT and the PT is ( $d=0.53$ ) and between the IDT and the IT is ( $d=0.59$ ), implying that the IDT taxon is practically different from the other taxa. The use of interpreters and provision of informative signage can go a long way in the creation of tourism experiences which appeal to knowledge seeking tourists. Products such as heritage, dark, archaeological and genealogy tourism are some of the specific products that can developed for such tourists. In addition, the creation of unique service encounters can also go a long way towards fulfilling the needs of novelty seekers.

### 5.11.2.2 Factor 2: Egoism

Egoism is the fourth most important out of the five motivation factors ( $M=3.34$ ,  $S.D:=0.856$ ). The PT is highly motivated by egoism ( $M=3.88$ ,  $S.D=0.694$ ) as compared to other tourist taxa. All the other taxa had subdued mean scores, the CNT ( $M=3.33$ ,  $S.D=0.822$ ), the IT ( $M=3.07$ ,  $S.D=0.833$ ) and the IDT ( $M=3.02$ ,  $S.D=0.821$ ), though the CNT, to some extent, showed some inclination towards egoism. The fact that the CNT had some inclination towards egoism and also had preference for travel services shows that this type of a tourist has some mass tourist tendencies. On the basis of these attributes, one can argue that the CNT are in the transition stage, moving from mass tourist traits towards independent travel characteristics.

The PT was motivated more by egoism than the IT and IDT and the effect sizes of  $d=0.96$  and  $d=1.03$  respectively, show that the differences had large practical significance. The CNT was motivated more by egoism than the IT and IDT and the effect sizes of 0.32 and 0.37 showed that the differences were of small practical significance. The IDT was less motivated by egoism than the CNT and the effect size of 0.37 shows that the differences had small practical significance. According to Crompton (1979:417), as travel experience increases, undertaking a tourist trip becomes less prestigious. The PT, which was motivated more by egoism largely comprised of tourist from Africa and Zimbabwe. Most tourists from Africa have less experience in travel and tourism (UNWTO, 2007:36). The implication for management is that they need to develop products which appeal to ego of the PT and to some extent the CNT.

### 5.11.2.3 Factor 3: Escape and relaxation

*Escape and relaxation* factor was the third most important motivation dimension (M=3.76, S.D=0.86) for tourist visiting the country. This motivation dimension is important across all the four taxa, though the IDT had a lower mean score as compared to other taxa. The PT (M=3.95, S.D=0.839) was motivated more by escape as compared to the IDT (M=3.54, S.D=0.993) and the effect size (d=0.45) shows that the differences were of medium practical significance. The IT (M=3.09, S.D=0.733) was motivated more by escape and relaxation than the IDT and the differences were of small practical significance (d=0.38).

### 5.11.2.4 Factor 4: Social interaction

The *social interaction* motivation factor (M=3.20, S.D=0.903) was the least important in influencing tourists visiting the destination. However, the PT was motivated by *social interaction* (M=3.76, S.D=0.822) more than the other taxa. The CNT (M=3.10, S.D=0.877) was less motivated by the socialisation factor as compared to the PT and the differences between these two taxa had a medium practical significance (d=0.69). The IDT was the taxon least motivated by socialisation and the differences between the IDT and PT had large practical significance (d=0.93). What is interesting is that in terms of preferences, the IT and the CNT indicated preference *for social involvement*, yet they scored lowly on the *social interaction* motivation. This suggests that socialisation is not a primary reason for visiting Zimbabwe.

### 5. 11.2.5 Factor 5: Destination environment

This dimension, was the second most important among the set of motivations influencing visitation to the destination (M=3.9, S.D=0.739). All the taxa, except for the IDT taxon registered relatively high mean scores on this dimension. The PT was motivated more by *destination environment* (M=4.0, S.D=0.760) as compared to the CNT (M=3.71, S.D=0.765) and the differences between these taxa had small practical significance (d=0.39). The IDT (M=3.45, S.D=0.822), with its relatively low motivation for the *destination environment*, was different from the PT and the effect sizes of 0.66 shows that the differences were of medium practical significance. The IT was motivated more by the destination environment than the IDT and the differences between the two had practical significance (d=0.38).

**Table 5.18: Summary of motivations by taxon**

Taxon	Motivation variables
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<b>CNT</b>	Social interaction 3.10	Egoism 3.33	Destination environment 3.71	Escape 3.74	Novelty & knowledge 4.18
<b>PT</b>	Social interaction 3.70	Egoism 3.89	Escape 3.95	Destination environment 4.00	Novelty & knowledge 4.24
<b>IT</b>	Egoism 3.07	Social interaction 3.10	Destination environment 3.78	Escape 3.90	Novelty/ knowledge 4.30
<b>IDT</b>	Social interaction 2.94	Egoism 3.03	Destination environment 3.46	Escape 3.54	Novelty & knowledge 3.76

**Cautious New Tourist (CNT) Patriotic Tourist (PT) Independent Tourist (IT) Indifferent Tourist (IDT)**

As shown in Table 5.18, *novelty and knowledge seeking* was the most common motive influencing tourists visiting the destination, with the IT showing more enthusiasm for the destination than others. Meanwhile, *escape* was the second most important motive for the CNT, IT and the IDT, whereas *destination environment* was the second most important for the PT taxon. Destination environment was the third most important motive factor for the PT. *Egoism* was the fourth most important for the CNT, the PT and the IT. The PT was motivated by all the factors. In terms of motivations the PT is similar to Kim and Ritchie (2012) *want it all tourist*.

## 5.12 TOURIST COMPETITIVENESS PERCEPTIONS ACCORDING TO TAXA

The section below analyses the perceptions of tourists by taxa. Firstly, the top five positively evaluated perceptions are presented for each taxon. Secondly, the taxa are compared on the basis of the factors extracted from factor analysis.

### 5.12.1 The top five perceptions attributes for each taxon

Table 5.19 shows the top five perception attributes for each cluster

**Table 5.19: Top five perceptions for taxa**

Taxa	Perceptions	Mean	S.D
<b>Cautious</b>	Zimbabweans are friendly	4.34	.839
	The country offers opportunities to rest and relax	4.18	.863
<b>New Tourist</b>	The service staff great people with respect	4.16	.922

	The country has a variety of attractions	4.14	.848
	The country has a pleasant climate	4.14	.850
<b>Patriotic</b>	Zimbabweans are friendly	4.51	.766
<b>Tourist</b>	The service staff treat people with respect	4.45	.748
	Zimbabwe is a safe country for tourists	4.42	.764
	The country has a variety of attractions	4.41	.822
	The country offers opportunities to rest and relax	4.41	.763
<b>Independent</b>	Zimbabweans are friendly	4.65	.614
<b>Tourist</b>	The country has a variety of attractions	4.27	.818
	The country offers opportunities to rest and relax	4.26	.888
	The service staff treat people with respect	4.19	.931
	The country offers opportunities to experience new things	4.19	.833
<b>The Indifferent</b>	Zimbabweans are friendly	4.11	1.037
	The country offers opportunities to rest and relax	3.98	.995
	The country has a pleasant climate	3.97	.995
	The service staff treat people with respect	3.89	1.099
	The country has a variety of attractions	3.82	.976

The mean scores for the perception variables were generally high as compared to those of the preferences and motivations. This indicates that from the point of view of tourists, the destination is performing extremely well in most dimensions as indicated by the fact that most competitiveness variables scored mean scores of 4 and above. Generally, the PT was more positive than other tourist types. An interesting observation is that while the safety variable was positively evaluated by all taxa, it is only appearing among the top five perceptions for the PT, which happens to have more of tourists from Zimbabwe and Africa. These extremely favourable perceptions from this taxon further shows why the PT taxa was given the label Patriotic Tourist (PT).

### 5.12.2 Tourist perceptions according to factor analysis dimensions

This section compares the taxa in relation to the dimensions which emerged from the exploratory factor analysis.

**Table 5.20: Taxonomies and perception attributes: effect sizes**

Variables	N	Mean	S. Deviation	ANOVA	Effect Sizes		
					1 with	2 with	3 with
<b>Core Resources</b>				<b>.000</b>			
Cautions new tourist	299	3.99	.543				
Patriotic tourist	198	4.24	.543		<b>.45</b>		
Independent tourist	125	4.05	.550		<b>.11</b>	<b>.34</b>	
Indifferent tourist	221	3.71	.732		<b>.38</b>	<b>.71</b>	<b>.46</b>
<b>Total</b>		<b>3.98</b>	<b>.626</b>				

<b>Activities</b>				<b>.000</b>			
Cautions new tourist	299	2.73	.794				
Patriotic tourist	198	3.20	.965		.49		
Independent tourist	125	2.35	.776		.47	.88	
Indifferent tourist	221	2.56	.670		.21	.66	.27
<b>Total</b>		<b>1.73</b>	<b>.852</b>				
<b>Pricing &amp; Accommodation</b>				<b>.000</b>			
Cautions new tourist	299	3.65	.739				
Patriotic tourist	198	3.95	.681		.40		
Independent tourist	125	3.54	.796		.14	.51	
Indifferent tourist	221	3.39	.781		.34	.72	.20
<b>Total</b>		<b>3.6368</b>	<b>.772</b>				
<b>Hospitality</b>				<b>.000</b>			
Cautions new tourist	299	4.13	.643				
Patriotic tourist	198	4.39	.546		.42		
Independent tourist	125	4.23	.614		.14		
Indifferent tourist	221	3.88	.798		.32	.65	.43
<b>Total</b>		<b>4.14</b>	<b>.687</b>				
<b>Facilities/accessibility</b>				<b>.000</b>			
Cautions New tourist	299	3.48	.762				
Patriotic tourist	198	3.89	.787		.53		
Independent tourist	125	3.15	.808		.40	.91	
Indifferent tourist	221	3.24	.756		.31	.82	.11
<b>Total</b>		<b>3.47</b>	<b>.817</b>				
<b>Safety/relaxation opportunities</b>				<b>.000</b>			
Cautions New tourist	299	4.09	.756				
Patriotic tourist	198	4.40	.637		.42		
Independent tourist	125	4.04	.792		.06	.47	
Indifferent tourist	221	3.81	.883		.31	.67	.25
<b>Total</b>		<b>4.09</b>	<b>0.798</b>				

### 5.12.2.1 Core resources

Core resources were positively evaluated by all tourist taxa, (M=3.98, S.D=0.626)

The core *resources* dimension was rated positively by all the taxa, though the IDT was less positive (M=3.71, S.D=0.731). The PT (M=4.24, S.D=0.542) was more positive than the other tourist types and significant practical differences exist between the CNT (M= 3.65, S.D =0.54) and the PT, with the Cohen *d* value of 0.45 showing that the differences are of medium effect. However, the CNT is more positive than the IDT and these differences are practically significant, though the effect size is small (d=.38). The PT was more positive than the IDT and the differences were practically significant (d=.46).

### 5.12.2.2 Pricing and accommodation

Tourist perceptions on *pricing and accommodation* of this attribute were fairly, with the PT being more positive (M=3.95, S.D=0.739) and the IDT being less positive (M=3.40, S.D=0.670) in comparison to other taxa. The PT was more positive about the pricing and accommodation than the CNT (M=3.64, S.D=0.39) as shown by the effect size of 0.40. The IT (M=3.54, S.D=0.796) had mixed perceptions on pricing and accommodation. The PT was more positive

than the IT and the difference had medium practical significance ( $d=0.51$ ). The perceptions of IDT were less positive compared to those of the PT and the Cohen  $d$  value of 0.72 showed that there were large practical significant differences between the two taxa.

### **5.12.2.3 Facilities/accessibility**

The *Facilities/accessibility dimension* was rated poorly by most taxa ( $M=3.4$ ,  $S.D=0.817$ ) with the IT ( $M=3.15$ ,  $S.D=0.808$ ) rating it most lowly. The PT ( $M=3.89$ ,  $S.D=0.780$ ), as usual in this study, was more positive than tourists from other taxa. The CNT ( $M=3.5$ ,  $S.D=0.762$ ) had mixed perceptions and was less positive when compared with the PT and the differences in perceptions are of practical significance ( $d=0.53$ ). The CNT was more positive when compared to the IT and the differences between the two were of practical significance as shown by the effect size of  $d=0.4$ . The IT's rating on the facilities dimension was the least as stated earlier. There were significant practical differences between the IT's perceptions and those of the PT as shown by a huge effect size ( $d=0.91$ ). A large effect size ( $d=0.82$ ) also existed between the PT and the IDT with the latter being less positive. The fact that the IT rated the facilities dimension poorly is an indication that the country is less competitive to this type of tourist who, unlike the CNT, is not cushioned from some of the negative destination attributes especially those which relate to infrastructure. For example, poor transport facilities will impact more on the IT than the CNT whose movements within the destination are largely provided by intermediaries such as Tour operators who at least have access to reliable forms of transport since they are private operators. Given the current state of the supporting factors, one can argue that the country's is best suited to cater for the Cautious New Tourists (CNT) rather the Independent Tourist (IT).

### **5.12.2.4 Hospitality**

Generally, all the different tourist types had high perceptions with respect to the *hospitality* factor. However, the PT was more positive ( $M=4.4$ ,  $S.D=0.55$ ) when compared to the CNT tourist ( $M=4.1$ ,  $S.D=0.64$ ) and the differences were of practical significance ( $d=0.42$ ). The IDT perceptions, though relatively high, were less positive ( $M=3.8$ ,  $S.D=0.80$ ) than those of other tourists. Practical significant differences on this dimension exist between the IDT and the IT, with a  $d$  value of 0.65. The differences between the IT and IDT were of practical significance as shown by the  $d$  value of 0.43. There is need for destination managers to take advantage of this positive destination attribute and design experiential products which are people centred. For example, tourism activities which include homestays are likely to appeal to tourists since the host population is largely welcoming.

### **5.12.2.5 Safety/relaxation opportunities**

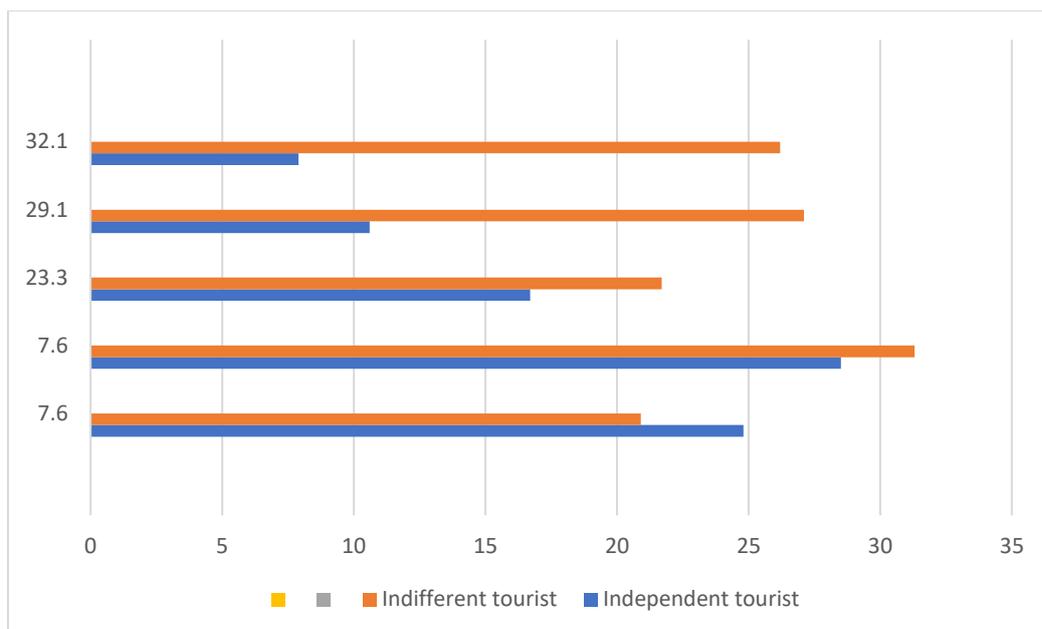
*Safety/relaxation opportunities* (M=4.08, S.D. =0.798) was positively evaluated by all the tourist taxa. However, the PT (M=4.4, S.D=.750) was more positive than others, followed by CNT (M= 4.09, S.D=0.756) and then the IT (M=4.04, S.D=0.792). The IDT had slightly lower ratings IDT (M=3.82, S.D=0.883), however, they positive as well. Practically significant differences existed between the PT and the CNT (M=4.09, S.D=0.756), between the IT and IDT and between the PT and IDT, as shown by the Cohen d values of  $d=0.42$ ,  $d=0.47$  and  $d=0.67$  respectively. Zimbabwe for a long time has been regarded as an unsafe destination (ZTA 2007:33), however, these positive perceptions across all tourist taxa even from the low-profile IDT is an indication that the country is fairly safe and this allows the tourist to relax comfortably without fear of physical threats.

### **5.12.2.6 Activities**

This dimension was the least rated (M=2.48, S.D=0.852), showing that tourists considered the destination activities appropriate and user friendly. The variables making up this factor were '*activities require skills that I don't have*' and '*the country offers a unique night life*'. The mean scores for all the taxa were low except for the PT, which was slightly above the median value (M=3.20, S.D=0.965), followed by the CNT (M=2.73, S.D=0.793) and then the IDT (M=2.56, S.D=0.667). The IT had the least mean scores (M=2.35, S.D=0.659). To some extent this is consistent with the fact the IT is adventure oriented since type of tourist was the least affirmative in relation to the statements.

### **5.12.3 Summary of perceptions by taxa**

Figure 5.6 displays the perception of each taxon.



**Figure 5. 6: Summary of perceptions by taxon**

The PT was more positive on all the dimensions except for the pricing dimension, while the IDT.

### 5.13 T-TEST RESULTS

A t-test was carried to establish whether there were statistically significant differences between domestic and international tourists in terms of the motivation, preferences and perceptions. Variables with p values of <0.05 were considered statistically significant. Effect sizes using Cohen *d* values were also calculated to ascertain if the observed statistical significant differences were of practical value. Effect sizes of  $d=0.2$  were considered small,  $d=0.5$  medium and  $d=0.8$  large.

As illustrated in Table 5.20, there were statistically significant differences between domestic and international tourists on all motivation dimensions, except for the *destination environment*. As for preferences, statistical significant differences were found on all the dimensions except on *social involvement*. In respect of perceptions, domestic tourists and international tourists were different in respect of activity appropriateness and destination ambience. However, calculation of effect sizes showed that only the differences on familiarity of practical value as shown by the Cohen *d* value of 0.44, which is skewed towards 0.5 representing medium practical difference. Desire for familiarity (a characteristic of mass tourists) is consistent with the fact that tourists from developing countries such as Zimbabwe are not well travelled.

**Table 5.21: T-test results**

Domestic/ international tourists		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	p-value ≤0.05	Effect sizes
<b>Motivations</b>						
Novelty and knowledge seeking	Domestic Tourists	312	4.0171	0.79354	0.011*	0.18
	International Tourists	551	4.1593	0.78265	0.011*	
Egoism	Domestic Tourists	311	3.4228	0.87510	0.045*	0.14
	International Tourists	548	3.3014	0.84103	0.048*	
Escape and relaxation	Domestic Tourists	312	3.8339	0.83312	0.050*	0.14
	International Tourists	547	3.7166	0.84926	0.049*	
Socialisation	Domestic Tourists	311	3.2347	0.94106	0.045*	0.06
	International Tourists	549	3.1825	0.87965	0.423	
Destination environment	Domestic Tourists	312	3.6736	0.82026	0.200	0.09
	International Tourists	550	3.7458	0.78128	0.423	
<b>Preferences</b>						
Familiarity	Domestic Tourists	315	3.1498	0.80834	0.000*	0.44**
	International Tourists	553	2.7952	0.75737	0.000*	
Social involvement	Domestic Tourists	306	3.7117	0.72514	0.628	0.03
	International Tourists	547	3.6914	0.73597	0.629	
Environmentalism	Domestic Tourists	314	3.9500	0.64093	0.010*	0.18
	International Tourists	552	3.8364	0.61120	0.011*	
Activity and adventure	Domestic Tourists	307	3.6856	0.71413	0.011	0.02
	International Tourists	544	3.6976	0.64829	0.011*	
Travel services	Domestic Tourists	306	3.4886	0.99542	0.000*	0.25
	International Tourists	545	3.2138	1.10509	0.000*	
<b>Perceptions</b>						
Resources	Domestic Tourists	314	4.0242	0.63544	0.171	0.10
	International Tourists	551	3.9633	0.62530	0.173	
Activity appropriateness	Domestic Tourists	306	2.9107	0.82527	0.000*	0.29
	International Tourists	532	2.6585	0.86008	0.000*	
Pricing and accommodation	Domestic Tourists	313	3.6581	0.78613	0.634	0.03
	International Tourists	547	3.6319	0.75800	0.631	
Hospitality	Domestic Tourists	310	4.1427	0.71594	0.787	0.02
	International Tourists	545	4.1295	0.66965	0.790	
Facilities	Domestic Tourists	308	3.5087	0.87825	0.244	0.08

	International Tourists	532	3.4406	0.77494	0.260	
Safety/relaxation opportunities	Domestic Tourists	310	4.2032	0.76046	0.001*	0.22
	International Tourists	545	4.0229	0.80948	0.001*	

**\*Chi-square significant at  $p < 0.05$  \*\* Cohen d value significant at  $> .30$**

The t-test results in Table 5.21 imply that there appears to be a convergence of tastes among contemporary tourists. Both domestic and international tourists tend to have similar characteristics in this study. Heath (1990:), in her study on the preferences of domestic and international tourists visiting Victoria Falls, Hwange and Kariba did not find significant differences between the preferences of these two groups. This gives credence to the practice of identifying tourist characteristics and group together those showing similar characteristics as this enables management to effectively meet the needs of tourists.

## **5.14 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS**

The summary of findings is presented primarily in relation to objectives of the study. However, socio-demographic and trip characteristics were included because of the importance that they play in defining characteristics of tourists.

### **5.14.1 Demographic and trip characteristics**

The global sample was balanced in relation to gender, however, variations were noticed when source regions were compared against each other. Tourists from Africa comprised of more males than females, while the Western market had more females than males. All tourists were well educated although those from the European and American markets were more educated than others. Similarly, the tourists from the American and European markets had higher monthly income than those from Africa where the GDP is generally low. Zimbabwe had the majority of tourists earning the lowest income.

The internet was the major source of information consulted by most tourists, with those from America, European and the Asia-Pacific showing more use than others, while those from Zimbabwe showing the least usage. VFR and previous experience were also important sources of information. Luxury 4-5-star hotels, 1-3 star, VFR, and self-catering lodges were the major types of accommodation used by most tourists. With respect to international tourists, the country received more repeat visitors than new ones, though most of the repeat visits were from within Africa. Slightly above half of the tourists had visited for leisure and recreation,

however, VFR and business were some the notable reasons for visiting the destination. A significant number of tourists preferred to make travel arrangements with tour operators. The Americans showed more preference for the use of the travel services as compared to other source regions.

#### **5.14.2 Demand drivers for Zimbabwe's tourism**

*Novelty and knowledge seeking, escape* as well as the *destination environment* were the major factors influencing the demand for the country's tourism products. Wildlife/scenery, the Victoria Falls, business travel, climate, nature and opportunities for adventure as well friendliness and safety were some of the specific factors indicated by tourists which influence them to visit the country. However, the intrinsic motivations of novelty and the desire to escape were the primary triggers. The Americans were more enthusiastic about the destination as they registered high scores on the motivation attributes.

#### **5.14.3 Competitiveness perceptions of tourists visiting Zimbabwe**

Six perception factors emerged from the study, whereby the destination ambience was the most positive, followed by core resources, hospitality, perceptions on pricing and accommodation and the facilities dimension were less positive. Activities were considered suitable and user friendly, though the entertainment component was rated negatively. At item level (variable), *Friendliness of the local people, opportunities to rest and relax, respectful and friendly staff, diversity of attractions* and the *climate* were the most positively rated attributes of the destination. In addition, the tourists described the destination as, peaceful, safe, hospitable and endowed with amazing scenery and wildlife resources.

#### **5.14.4 Preferences of tourist visiting Zimbabwe**

Five preference factors emerged from the study (for the global sample), whereupon *environmental sensitivity* (environmentalism), which encompassed social, political and physical variables, emerged as the most preferred dimension. This was followed by *social involvement, activity and adventure, travel services* and lastly *familiarity*. In terms of individual preference variables, *service staff that is consistently courteous and friendly, activities which provide opportunities to engage in new things, visiting new places, environmental friendly destinations* emerged as the top most preferences for tourists visiting Zimbabwe.

### **5.14.5 The tourist taxonomies**

The study sample yielded four different types of tourist, namely the *cautious new tourist* (CNT), the *patriotic tourist* (PT), the *independent tourist* (IT) and the *indifferent tourist* (IDT). The CNT was the largest group, followed by the IDT, then the PT and lastly the IT. Below is a summary of the unique features of each taxon.

#### **5.14.5.1 The Cautious New Tourist (CNT)**

The CNT used more of luxury hotels. The main purpose of visit was leisure and recreation, with the majority preferring to book everything through tour operators. It had the least number of tourist whose trip purpose was VFR, with the highest number of tourist travelling in company of friends. The majority were from America. The CNT displayed preference for *activities/adventure* and use of *travel services*. In terms of motivations, *novelty/knowledge* and *escape* were the top two. *Hospitality* and *safety/relaxation* opportunities were the key destination strengths. *Pricing/accommodation* and *activities* were poorly rated. Regarding preferences, the top two were activity/adventure and travel services.

#### **5.14.5.2. The Indifferent Tourist (IDT)**

The IDT taxon had preference for luxury hotels. The taxon had the highest number of tourists whose trip purpose was VFR and had a significant proportion of tourists coming from Europe. In relation to preferences, *environmentalism* and *social involvement* were the top two preferences though the scores were subdued in comparative terms. This taxon was lowly motivated, *novelty/ knowledge* was the only outstanding motivation for the taxon. Regarding perceptions, the taxon rated the attributes poorly as compared to others. *Hospitality* and *safety/relaxation* opportunities were the major destination strengths, while *activities* and *facilities/accessibility* were poorly rated. Environmentalism and social involvement were the two prime preferences.

#### **5.14.5.3 The Independent Tourist (IT)**

The unique socio demographic characteristics of the independent tourist were in relation to gender, where females outnumbered males. The taxon had a significant proportion of the senior market in comparison to other taxa. This taxon was made up of highly educated tourists, who earned high income. *Activity/adventure* and *social involvement* were the top most preference dimensions for this segment. With regards to motivation, *novelty/knowledge* and

escape were the top most. In this taxon, hospitality and core resources were highly rated as the keys strengths of the destination. The least rated competitiveness attributes were activities and facilities/accessibility. In relation to preferences activity/adventure and social were the key preferences.

#### **5.14.5.4 The Patriotic Tourists (PT)**

The PT was unique in that the group was comprised of more males than females and was dominated by young tourists. The taxon was the least educated, with the least income per capita and a had slightly high preference for self-catering accommodation. Comparatively, this taxon had the least tourists visiting for purposes of leisure and recreation and the highest number of those visiting for business. Most tourists in this taxon were from Africa and Zimbabwe and had the lowest number of tourist who used the internet for making trip arrangements. The PT was the most motivated taxon, with *novelty/ knowledge* and *destination environment* as the top most motivations. In relation to competitiveness perceptions, hospitality and safety/relaxation opportunities were the key destination strengths, while activity and accessibility were rated the least. The top two preferences for the PT was *environmentalism* and *travel services*. This taxon can best be described as the 'want it all' and showed a lot of enthusiasm for most of the attributes included in this study.

### **5.15 CONCLUSIONS**

Zimbabwe's tourism market is diverse and attracts different types of tourists with different demands on the destination, though they do share some common characteristics. Four different types of tourists were identified and profiled. Each taxon had some unique sociodemographic characteristics, though the differences were not practically significant. Environmental considerations (social, political economic and physical), social involvement and activities emerged as the common preferences though with varying levels of importance attached to them by each taxon. The desire for novelty/knowledge which seemed to be fulfilled by the availability of wildlife, scenery and culture in the destination emerged as the major demand drivers for Zimbabwe's tourism products for all the clusters. The escape motivation was also important especially to the IT and CNT which were dominated by tourists from Europe and America. Based on perception results, the destination is competitive to tourists in many respects especially in terms of, hospitality, core resources and safety/relaxation opportunities however, facilities/accessibility were poorly rated especially by the independent tourist.

The identification of tourist taxa and further analysis of their unique characteristics provides useful demand-based information which destination managers could use to effectively cater for the target markets. The ability to provide tailor made products will enhance the competitiveness of the destination from a tourist point of view. The examination of the tourist taxa shows that the CNT is the most viable taxa which to a greater extent, is matched by the available resources. However, the IT represents the most ideal market, although the country is not capacitated to fully cater for this taxon because the poor tourism infrastructure.

## **CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The main focus of the study was to establish the tourist taxonomies and illustrate how they can be used as a tool for enhancing destination competitiveness. The research was guided by seven objectives. The first objective sought to analyse literature on destination competitiveness and tourist taxonomies and this objective was achieved in Chapter 2. The second objective sought to critically review literature on the Zimbabwe's situation (which was the setting for this study) regarding tourism markets and destination products and chapter 3 catered for this objective. The third objective intended to establish the demand drivers for tourism in Zimbabwe in the context of motivation factors and was catered for in chapter 5. Information on the demand drivers can guide management and service providers in as far as marketing and product development is concerned. The fourth objective was achieved in chapter 5 and it attempted to evaluate how competitive the destination was from a tourist perspective. The fifth objective established the preferences of tourists visiting Zimbabwe as a destination. The sixth objective, using the preference dimensions sought to identify the taxonomies of tourist visiting the country. However, the tourists were also profiled in relation to motivations, competitiveness perceptions as well as demographic characteristics. Objectives 5 and 6 were achieved in Chapter 5. The seventh objective aimed at developing a Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF) and drawing conclusions on how tourist taxonomies can be used as a management tool for enhancing destination competitiveness.

This chapter highlights the major contributions of the study, gives conclusions on literature review, draws conclusions on the empirical survey, gives recommendations based on the findings and suggests areas for future research.

### **6.2 PERSONAL JOURNEY**

My journey in pursuit of the PhD started in 2013, motivated by both the desire for professional advancement and the expectations at my work place. My initial interest was in the field of health tourism, which I discovered was not being promoted in Zimbabwe. Therefore, my desire was to undertake a PhD study, on 'Designing a Framework for health tourism development'. I proceeded to submit a brief proposal to my Supervisors at North West University.

However, it emerged that it would be problematic to come up with a substantive thesis out of this area, given the fact that the health tourism industry was almost non-existent in Zimbabwe. This necessitated looking for another topic. Resultantly, I selected 'Tourist Typologies', an area I was also passionate about. Of particular interest was the fact that literature on tourist typologies has a bias towards destinations in Europe and America. I struggled to come up with a topic out of this new theme that would provide a unique contribution. However, I was assisted by my Supervisor to come up with a topic in which the competitiveness dimension was included. The topic was reshaped again by replacing the term typology with taxonomy, since the classification was going to be based on empirical information.

The development of this thesis was recognised by various personal highlights as well as challenges. I enjoyed the process, but it was temporarily hindered by some health challenges that prevented me from spending the necessary time in front of the computer. This was aggravated by the fact that I temporarily relocated from Zimbabwe to Germany, which complicated the data collection process. Meanwhile, the stage of compilation of the research findings faced a number of setbacks, to an extent, I almost gave up. However, I got a lot of moral, academic and professional support and encouragement from my Supervisors as well as from my family. A notable achievement that also encouraged me was that, I managed to present a conference paper at the ISCONTOUR in Austria in May 2017 based on part of the research findings.

### **6.3 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY**

The contribution of the study is based on two frameworks that could be regarded as both having a literature and practical implication. The first framework relates to the identification of the **Tourist Taxonomies for Zimbabwe** and the second framework answers the goal of the study through the development of the **Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF)**.

#### **6.3.1 *Tourist taxonomies for Zimbabwe***

The major literature contribution of the study was the development of a tourists' taxonomy framework in the context of a destination in Africa. This comes against the background of criticism of the existing tourist typologies/taxonomies for being biased towards destinations in Europe and America. Hence, this study is unique in that the taxonomies were based on a multi-cultural sample of tourists. The tourist taxonomy shown in Figure 6.1 was developed using tourists from different continents namely Africa, Europe, North America and Asia-Pacific.

South America and the Middle East were poorly represented. The study identified four different types of tourists: The Cautious New Tourist (CNT), the Patriotic Tourist (PT), the Independent Tourist (IT) and the Indifferent Tourist (IDT).

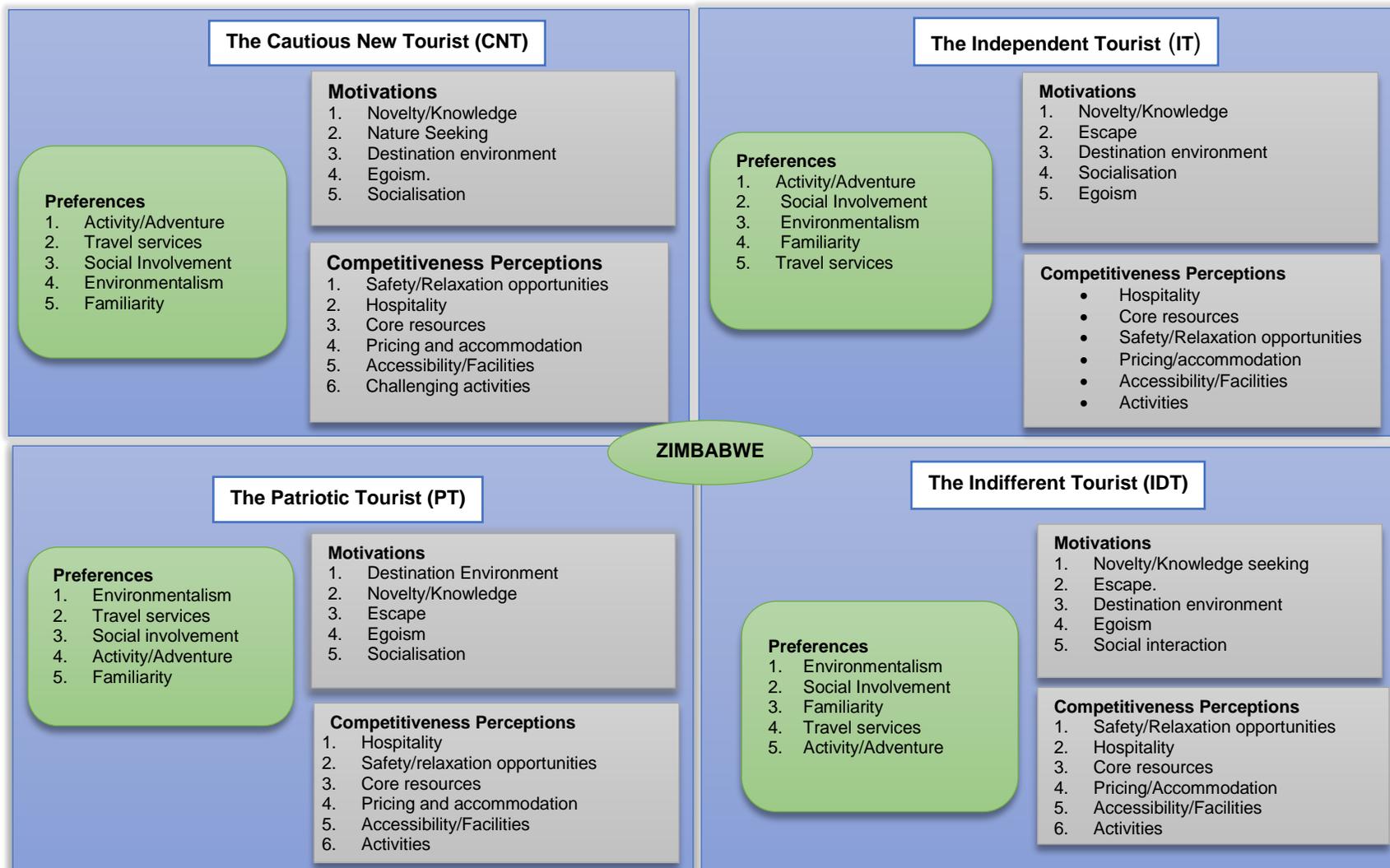


Figure 6. 1: The tourist taxonomies of Zimbabwe (Author's own compilation) \* 1. Signifies the most important attribute

The tourist taxonomies were developed using tourists' preferences for novelty/familiarity, activities, social involvement and environmental related attributes. The resultant tourist taxa were then profiled in relation to motivations and competitiveness perceptions. This enables management to have adequate appreciation of customer needs and wants. In addition, the use of multiple constructs (motivation, competitiveness perceptions) to some extent makes this framework unique, since most tourist taxonomies in literature were only profiled in relation to socio-demographics.

#### **6.3.1.1 Patriotic Tourist. (PT)**

The PT was not selective, embracing all the preference dimensions namely, *environmentalism, social involvement, activity/adventure, familiarity and travel services*. *Environmentalism*, which included preference for affordable products and services, was the top most preference for this market. This means that, to some extent, this segment is price sensitive. Apparently, the taxon had the least average monthly income per head. As a result, there is a need to offer value for money (Products and services) to enhance destination competitiveness from the perspective of this market. Value for money (VFM) can be achieved by increasing quality or lowering the prices and the latter seem to be the most appropriate strategy for this market (Weiermair, 2004:6). However, management should be innovative so that price reductions do not compromise essential and fulfilling aspects of the products. The provision of affordable, tailor made, and all-inclusive packages is likely to be one such strategy for providing VFM to patriotic tourists. The fact that a significant proportion of these tourists prefer the use of travel services makes it easier to provide the inclusive packages to such tourists. The PT taxon was unique because it had preference for both familiarity and novelty. In terms of motivations, the PT was also multi-motivated and unique, being the only taxa motivated by egoism and socialisation. In respect of perceptions the PT had positive perceptions on all the dimensions.

The PT is likely to give positive word of mouth recommendations to potential tourists falling within their reference groups, however, it may be difficult for PT to reach out to other tourist types as they appear to be less objective in their evaluation of the destination. The PT has the potential to hang on to the destination, because of their loyal nature, even during difficult periods when other tourists may not be willing to visit.

### 6.3.1.2 The Cautious New Tourist (CNT)

The CNT was the largest segment visiting the country. This market is unique in that it possesses most of the attributes of the new tourists but prefers the use of *travel services* when arranging trips. This means that the efficiency of distribution channels has a bearing on the competitiveness of the destination for this market segment. According to Dwyer and Kim (2003:384), there is need to upgrade the distribution channels to promote ease of access of tourism products.

Preference for *activities/adventure* by the CNT implies that there is need to develop recreational and sporting facilities in order to diversify the destination's activity/adventure portfolio in the country. According to Du Plessis *et al.* (2015:12) and Ritchie and Crouch, (2010:1056), product diversification through sports and recreation contributes to destination competitiveness. When designing activity-based products, there is need to be guided by the motivations of this group, namely novelty and knowledge as well as the destination environment. The diversification of tourism products and services, which takes into consideration the needs of different tourist types as reflected by their motivations, is likely to enhance destination competitiveness. Since the destination environment is of particular interest to this taxon, it is necessary to create activities based on the core resources of the destination.

Reliance on the tourism institution is an indication that this type of tourist is safety conscious and attempts to reduce risk and uncertainty when travelling to foreign destinations. Most tourists from this taxon were from the America in particular the USA and Europe. The use of *travel services* for trip arrangements makes this type of tourist vulnerable to the influence of the travel intermediaries. According to Vicol and Zait (2014:48), intermediaries have the ability to influence visiting intentions of potential tourists by forming opinions about destinations. For example, some intermediaries removed Zimbabwe from their catalogue during the time the country faced intense negative media onslaught, triggered by the land reform programme of 2000 (ZTA, 2000:34). There is need to create partnerships with international intermediaries and to create incentives for them to sell products which they are familiar with. Such initiatives will lessen the tendency to form perceptions of a destination based on sensationalised media reports. Now that the destination was evaluated as generally peaceful by most tourists there is need for the destination management authorities to embark on an aggressive marketing campaign to allay the perceived security concerns among potential tourists especially those whose characteristics resemble those of the CNT. It may be necessary for the destination

managers to provide Physical evidence or cues which portray the destination as safe for the purpose of assuring peace of mind to 'would be tourist'.

### **6.3.1.3 The Independent Tourist (IT)**

The independent tourist preferred *activity and adventure, social involvement, environmentalism*, but shuns *familiarity and travel services*. The IT is motivated by novelty and culture, escape and relaxation and destination environment. The IT had positive perceptions on *hospitality, core resources, safety and relaxation opportunities* had mixed perceptions on *pricing and accommodation* and negative perceptions on the *facilities/accessibility* dimension. The IT is affluent and a significant proportion of these tourists are from the USA and Europe. The IT market has potential for growth and the country should make deliberate efforts to cater for it. This could be achieved through the provision of unique products which offer novel and education related experiences. The development of the general infrastructure, tourism specific infrastructure, information and communication technologies (ICTs), will make it easy for the IT to have access to tourism products and services in the destination.

Independent tourists tend to make personal decisions on which destinations to visit and are likely to be influenced less by the opinions and actions of the travel service trade. As a result, this type of tourists is likely to be more resilient and more objective, even in the face of bad publicity. Therefore, one can argue that the IT represents the most stable market segment for the destination. However, the country is not sufficiently resourced to fully cater for this market, because of numerous infrastructure and service related challenges. In fact, the IT rated the country's tourism facilities as uncompetitive. This is in line with earlier findings that infrastructure provides a competitive advantage to destinations (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2015:9; Ritchie & Crouch, 2010:1057; Dwyer & Kim, 2003:282).

### **6.3.1.4 The Indifferent Tourists (IDT)**

The indifferent tourist (IDT) showed mixed preference for *environmentalism*, mild inclination towards *social Involvement*, had low drive for *familiarity, travel services, activity and adventure*. This taxon represented the second largest group visiting the country. Europe followed by other African countries had the highest number of IDT, while the Americas region had the least proportion.

The IDT taxon being the second largest is one of the country's key market. Consideration of the IDT's socio demographic features shows that the taxon had the highest proportion of VFR

and business tourists. The dominance of non-leisure tourist in this taxon could be one of the reasons why tourists in this group were indifferent to most of the attributes relating to leisure. The IDT was also lowly motivated in all dimensions when compared to other tourists and is less positive about the destination. The IDT is likely to be difficult to cater for and impress and is likely to give negative word of mouth recommendations about the destination. The best is to try and understand the concerns of tourists in this taxon, using qualitative methods, which allow then to single out their needs. Their motivations for visiting the destination can also be used to guide product development.

### **6.3.2 *Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF)***

The major practical contribution of this study relates to the development of the tourist taxonomy competitiveness framework (TTCF) as indicated in Figure 6.2. The framework illustrates how tourist taxonomies can be used as tool for enhancing destination competitiveness in the case of Zimbabwe. The TTCF is a multi-purpose tool (Conceptual model), which can aid management to develop appropriate strategies for enhancing destination competitiveness from a consumer perspective. In addition, the framework can be used as a valuable academic tool for teaching the concept of taxonomies including its related benefits. Further, the TTCF provides a unique contribution to typology/taxonomy and destination competitiveness literature as it illustrates the relationship between tourist taxonomies and destination competitiveness.

#### **6.3.2.1 Exposition of the TTCF framework**

Figure 6.2 illustrates how tourist taxonomies can be used to promote destination competitiveness from a tourist (demand) perspective. Meeting visitor needs and achieving business goals are increasingly inseparable, (Go & Govers, 2000:80). Similarly, Crouch and Ritchie (1999) from their definition, indicate that the provision of goods and services that meet the taste of consumers enhances destination competitiveness. The TTCF by identifying different types of tourists provides opportunities to provide tailor made products which have the potential to meet the tastes of tourists.

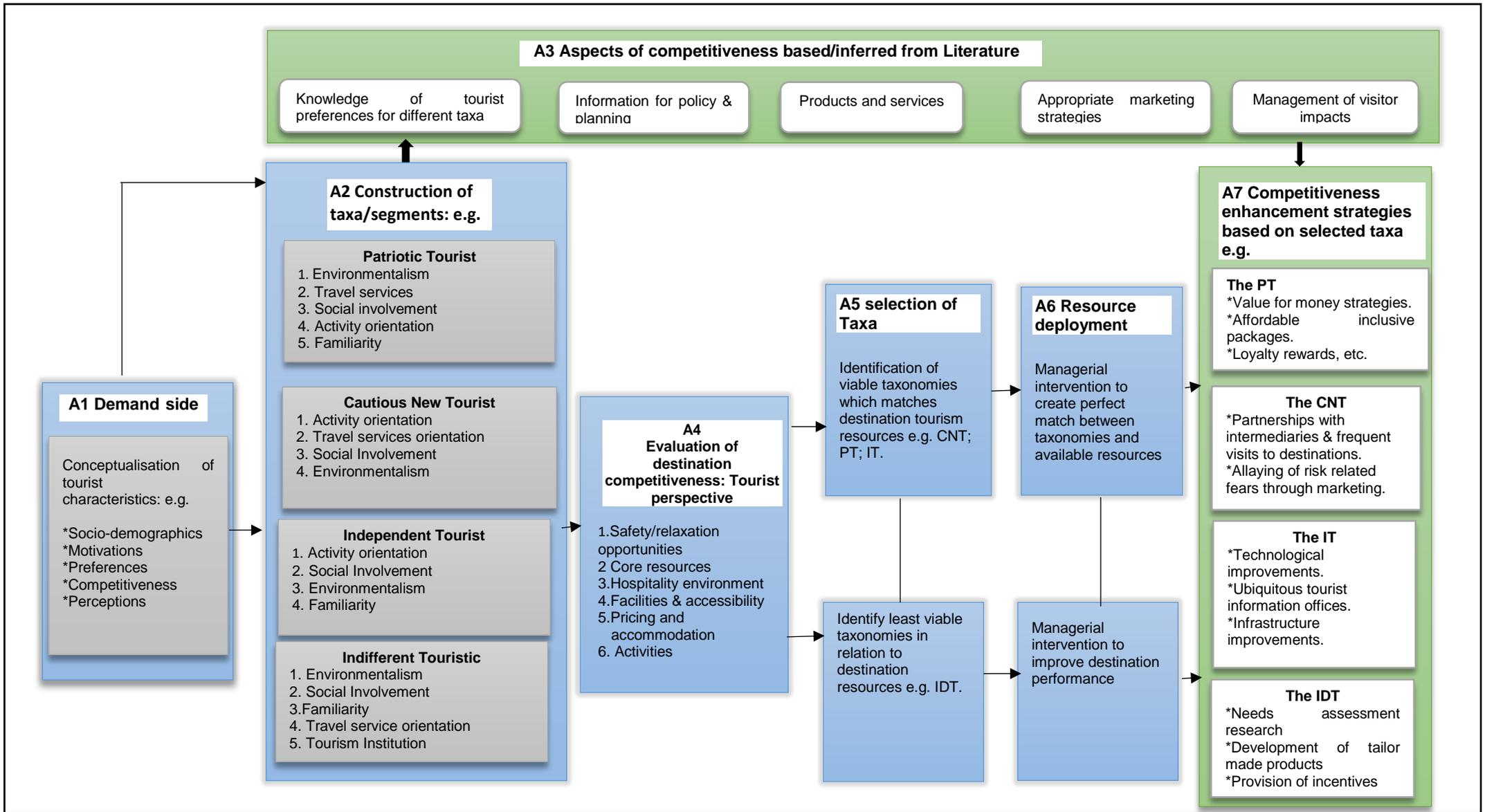


Figure 6. 2: Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF) (Author's own compilation) CNT-Cautious New Tourist PT-Patriotic Tourist IT-Independent tourist IDT-Indifferent Tourist

The success of tourism destinations in world markets is influenced by their relative competitiveness. A destination is competitive if it can 'attract and satisfy potential tourists' (Enright & Newton, 2004:777-778). The above framework (Figure 6.2) can be a valuable tool for destination managers to effectively address the needs of target markets. According to Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1052), competitive advantages in destinations can be created through deploying destination resources effectively and efficiently. It is the researcher's argument that TTCF, which was constructed using ideas from tourist typologies, market segmentation and destination competitiveness literature, is a valuable tool which can be used by management in their efforts to enhance the competitiveness of destinations from a tourist perspective. Identification of consumer types or market segment provides opportunities for tourism practitioners to identify sources of competitive advantages in the market place (Dolnicar, 2008:1).

The customer is the starting point and the main focus in the TTCF. The basic argument is that he/she is the ultimate factor in the evaluation of destination competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2011). Similarly, Meng (2012:1) averred that the 'overall competitiveness of a destination is dependent upon the perceived quality of their tourism experience with a particular destination. The sections below explain the different components of the TTCF.

#### **6.3.2.1.1 Demand side (A1)**

Stage A1, is the starting point, which involves the identification of relevant constructs on which to base the taxonomies. Dolnicar (2008:4) noted that foundational to any segmentation solution is the quality of the information that is used to group tourists. According to Dwyer and Kim (2003:380), preferences, perceptions and awareness are the key tourists' attributes which have a bearing on destination competitiveness from a demand perspective. Further, they pointed out that tourist preferences and motivations for travel influence the types of products and services developed within a destination. In this study, the taxonomies were based on tourist preferences in relation to product and services in destinations. The resultant tourist types were then profiled in relation to socio-demographics, motivations and competitiveness perceptions. The inclusion of multiple constructs to gain insights into the needs of the tourists will enable management to have a better understanding of the nature of their market.

#### **6.3.2.1.2 Construction of the taxonomies (A2)**

Stage A2, deals with the construction of tourist taxonomies. As indicated earlier on, a destination cannot be competitive to all types of tourists (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:398). Similarly,

Buhalis (2000:99), noted that each destination can only match certain types of demands. The realisation that it is not possible to satisfy all the customers effectively and efficiently necessitates subdividing the market into homogenous segments. The identification of the distinct types of tourists and their characteristics, enables management to select the most appropriate taxon or taxa to target. The construct used for the determination of the tourists' taxa can be any one of the three constructs (preferences, motivations, perceptions) or any other. In this study, preferences were used as the base for the taxonomies. In the case of Zimbabwe, four tourist types with different demands on the destination were obtained, namely the Patriotic Tourist (PT), Cautious New Tourist (CNT), the independent Tourist (IT) and the Indifferent Tourist (IDT).

#### **6.3.2.1.3 Aspects of competitiveness derived from tourist taxonomies (A3)**

Stage A3, illustrates aspects of competitiveness which can be realised through the identification of different types of tourists visiting a particular destination. These are: knowledge of tourist preferences, the ability to produce tailor-made products and services, use of appropriate marketing strategies and messages, ability to access information which is vital for policy and planning as well as the management of visitor impacts for example, (Jafari, 1989; Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Masip, 2006; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2006; Ritchie & Crouch, 2000). These aspects of competitiveness which are unlocked by the creation of taxonomies will guide management in designing appropriate strategies for enhancing destination competitiveness for the benefit of different tourist segments. This explains why A3 is linked to A7. The section below, analyses how each outcome can contribute towards the competitiveness of destinations.

- *Knowledge of tourist preferences*

Tourist taxonomies provide insights into tourist preferences (Jafari, 1989:23). Through the identification of tourist preferences, managers can establish the key destination resources and supporting factors appropriate for each tourist taxa, thereby enabling them to effectively deploy destination resources to appropriate tourist segments. According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003), destination competitiveness can best be achieved if management effectively deploys the destination's resources. The ability by management to provide a perfect match between tourist preferences and perceived destination product offerings influences visitation to destinations. Kim (2012: 52) noted that core resources are critical factors in creating tourism products. Therefore, knowledge of tourist preferences provides insights on the appropriate core resources which need to be used in the development of products and services. For

example, the IT prefers novelty, which implies that culture, wildlife and scenery may be the most appropriate resources for creating products which best match their preferences.

- *Tailor made product and services*

The creation of products has to be oriented toward specific markets and targets (Masip, 2006:13). According to Buhalis (2000:100), 'approaching the right market and providing the most appropriate combination of products and services is the secret for successful destinations'. Information derived from tourist taxonomies can be used to guide product development. Tourists visiting the country may require different product offerings because they are not homogenous. In this study, four different types of tourist were identified, each with unique preferences, motivations and perceptions. In order to appeal to tourists, there is need to develop products which match the needs of the selected segments. For example, the IT enjoys social involvement, this necessitates the development of products based on community based tourism or township tourism, which allow interaction with the host community. As such the provision of tailor made products is likely to enhance the competitive position of destinations from a tourist perspective. According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2), provision of satisfying, memorable experiences is an indication of competitiveness. According to Vengesai (2003:637), the more a destination 'is able to meet the needs of the tourists, the more it is perceived to be attractive and the more the destination is likely to be chosen'. The ability, to gain market share, to deliver quality, innovative, and attractive tourism services to consumers are attributes associated with competitive destinations (Dupeyras & MacCallum, 2013:14).

- *Development of appropriate marketing strategies*

The tourist typologies (taxonomies) are relevant in marketing (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). Identification of distinct groups of tourists provides some actionable guidelines for product development and appropriate communication strategies (Plog, 1974:209). In the destination competitiveness literature, marketing falls under 'destination management', which is one of the determinants of destination competitiveness. Marketing creates destination awareness through promotional activities. Destination awareness is a demand side related attribute, which affect destination competitiveness (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:384). Notably, marketing is a destination management activity (Ritchie & Crouch, 2010:106). Therefore, the use of relevant marketing messages to specific groups of tourists is likely to enhance the appeal of a destination resulting in increased tourist arrivals.

- *Managing of visitor impacts*

Tourist taxonomies, by providing information on the different types of tourists, provide clues on the nature of environmental impacts which are associated with each taxon. Ritchie and Crouch (2003:7) opined that destination competitiveness is illusory, without ecological, social, cultural, economic sustainability. Similarly, Hassan (200:239), indicated that environmental commitment is one of the key determinants of destination competitiveness. Tourist taxonomies provide management with information useful for managing visitor impacts which resultantly creates environmental sustainability for tourism. For example, tourists with mass tourism characteristics tend to cause more negative impacts on destinations than independent travellers (Ghimire, 2013). The IDT, in this study is a tourist who is wary about the issues in the destination environment be they physical, social political or economic. As such there is need to manage the destination environment so that it is conducive to this type of tourist.

Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1059) pointed out that planning and policy are essential determinants of destination competitiveness. The authors added that, for planning to be effective, there is need for management to make an audit of the destination attributes and visitor's expectations. According to Ranjbarian *et al.* (2011:1404), a tourism development plan should include information on the target markets, especially on 'who they are and their needs and wants'. A tourists' taxonomy framework can be used to come up with an inventory of the characteristics of tourists visiting the destination, information which can be used for policy and planning at various levels. Destination managers can then design policies and plans which encourage the development of products, services, and infrastructure most relevant to the identified taxa. In addition, the tourist taxonomy provides information on the types of tourism which destinations should promote and develop.

#### **6.3.2.1.4 Evaluation of destination competitiveness: tourist perspective (A4)**

Stage A4, involves the identification of the specific destination competitiveness factors. Since no set of competitiveness factors is universally applicable to all destinations, it is necessary to explore the different types of indicators that are relevant to different contexts (Azzopardi & Nash, 2015:253). For example, in this study, six destination competitiveness factors were obtained, and the highly rated factor was safety/relaxation opportunities, followed by core resources and hospitality. Pricing/ accommodation and the facilities/accessibility received low perception scores.

### **6.3.2.1.5 Selection of the most appropriate segments (A5)**

Stage A5, involves the selection of the most viable taxa or high yield segments. This is done by establishing the taxa or taxon which rates the destination as more competitive than the others. The taxa or taxon whose profile best match the destination's competitive strength are/is selected. Dwyer and Kim (2003: 379) noted that destination product must be developed in a way that 'matches' the evolving consumer preferences, if the destination is to enhance or even maintain competitiveness. Similarly, Dolnicar (2008:3), recommends that when selecting subgroups to target, there is need to select the one that matches destination strength and also of suitable size, especially the largest, though this is not always the best. For example, in the case of Zimbabwe, the CNT appears to be the most viable taxa given the prevailing conditions in the country in relation to the state of the infrastructure. Tourist attractions are not very accessible because of poor transport network, especially within the destination. Reliance on tour companies ensures that the tourist will rely less on public transport which is still under developed. The IT is the ideal market likely to bring more revenue because it does not depend on the services of intermediaries, most which operate outside the country. The current state of the general infrastructure is not adequate for this taxon as they require a well-developed transport network. For example, the railway network in Zimbabwe for passengers is non-existent at the moment.

### **6.3.2.1.6 Resource deployment (A6)**

Stage A6, in this study, can be referred to as the action stage where management deploys destination resources towards specific market segments selected in A5. While, this stage (6) is standing alone in the framework for illustration purposes, it occurs simultaneously with the activities of stage A5. Stage A6, can also include formulation of policies and planning to effectively cater for the identified markets. The effective and efficient development of destination resources is one of the conditions for creating competitive advantages for destinations, according to Ritchie and Crouch (2010:1052).

In addition, targeting specific segments which are viable in relation to the destination strengths, is also likely to enable management to meet the needs of tourists 'in a profitable manner'. At this stage, it is also necessary to consider the weaknesses of the destination as projected by the least viable taxa. This guides management on areas which may need to be spruced up, so as to strengthen the destination's position in the market place.

In view of the above discussion, one can conclude that tourist taxonomies yield strategic information which can provide specific, actionable and step by step guidelines that management can use in their endeavours to enhance the competitiveness of destinations. Though, tourist taxonomies are demand based, can provide clues on how the supply side can be configured in order to perfectly match the requirements of the market.

#### **6.3.2.1.7 Destination competitiveness enhancement strategies (A7)**

A7, is the stage where management now has all the information which enables them to come up with tailor competitiveness strategies for each tourist segment. The creation of tourist types (A2) together with the resultant aspects of competitiveness (A3) derived from knowledge of tourist types and the evaluation of destination competitiveness from a tourist perspective (A4) is likely to enable management to design tailor made strategies for enhancing destination competitiveness from the point of view of each segment (A7). The implementation of these strategies is likely to improve the competitive strength of destinations at least from the consumer perspective. This is because, the deployment of resources to specific segments (A6) which find value (or have interest) in a given destination is cost effective and is likely to yield mutual benefits to both the destination and the consumer. According to Dwyer and Kim (2003), a destination cannot appeal to all types of tourists. As such, this simple framework makes it possible for destination managers to concentrate their efforts on specific segments, and to grow the target market through innovative marketing and product development. In fact, the framework is a multipurpose tool, providing guidelines on product development, marketing, tourism policy/planning including management of visitor impacts.

### **6.4 CONCLUSIONS**

The conclusions are based on the seven objectives of this study:

#### **Objective 1: To analyse literature on tourist typologies/taxonomies and destination competitiveness**

The objective was to examine literature on tourist typologies and or taxonomies and destination competitiveness in the context of the marketing field. The following conclusion emerged:

- + Tourism is a key economic activity at global level. There is increasing competition among nations to get a significant share of the market which is becoming saturated. As such destinations which focus on the consumer are likely to gain competitive advantages. (c.f. 2.2).
- + Marketing is an activity whose overall goal is to understand the customer so as to allow the development and provision of tailor made goods and services, which effectively meet his or her needs (c.f. 2.2).
- + The marketing principle, because of its focus on the consumer, can be used by marketing managers as a guiding philosophy in order to achieve success in the market place (c.f. 2.2.1.1).
- + Marketing activities become more effective and rewarding, if consumers with similar characteristics are identified, thereby allowing management to concentrate marketing energy and force on specific segments (c.f. 2.2.2).
- + Market segmentation is the generic marketing tool used by management for the purposes of dividing consumers into homogenous groups, whereas tourist typologies, referred to in this study as tourist taxonomies, is a similar concept and a tourism specific tool that is conceptualised from an academic point of view, to group tourists into similar taxa. (c.f.2.2.2).
- + There are many factors which influence consumer behaviour and the implication is that consumers do not behave in the same way. However, consumers influenced by the same socio-psychological factors may behave in similar ways (c.f.2.3). Motivation is one such variable which influences consumer behaviour (c.f.2.3.1.1).
- + The tourist is a key component of the tourism system and has been conceptualised from various perspectives and there is no consensus among scholars on who the tourist is. However, the tourist taxonomies can be used to gain insights into behavioural characteristics and can therefore contribute important information into the discourse on who the tourist is (c.f.2.3.3).

- + Tourism literature uses the label typology to refer to both conceptual and empirical processes of dividing tourists into homogenous groups. However, the empirically based tourist types should be referred to as tourist taxonomies. (c.f.2.4).
- + Tourist typologies and taxonomies though conceptualised from different perspectives share many characteristics in common (c.f. 2.4.2).
- + Tourist taxonomies, by yielding information which helps to have an appreciation of tourist preferences in destinations, are an important marketing tool. Apart from the role tourist taxonomies play in marketing, they have other functions related to product development, tourism planning and policy formulation as well as management of visitor impacts which promotes sustainable tourism development and the competitiveness of destinations (c.f.2.4.3).
- + Tourist taxonomies, (despite their shortcomings), reduce the complex tourism market into manageable segments and this make it easy to comprehend the tourist characteristics in a more meaningful way. It is therefore a relevant tool for tourism practitioners, including academics in their endeavours to gain more knowledge about the tourist (cf.2.4.4).
- + Tourist perceptions influence tourist behaviour, therefore consideration of the tourist perceptions helps management to get more insights into the behavioural characteristics of different types of tourists. Focusing on tourist perceptions also provide an opportunity for management to assess the competitiveness of destinations, from the perspective of tourists (c.f. 2.6).
- + There are many factors which collectively determine the competitiveness of destinations. The demand side is one such determinant, though it is not included in all the models on determinants of destination competitiveness. (c.f. 2.7.4.).
- + The consideration of the demand side as a determinant of destination competitiveness provides useful information which enables management to effectively match the supply side attributes with the demand side needs. Tourist taxonomies can be used to gain more appreciation of the demand side dynamics which contribute to destination competitiveness, especially the preference dimension. Thus, tourist taxonomies can

be a useful tool which provides valuable information on how to enhance destination competitiveness from a tourist point of view (f.c.2.7.4).

**Objective 2: Critically review literature on the Zimbabwean situation, regarding tourism markets and destination products.**

The second objective sought to critically review literature on the Zimbabwean situation, regarding tourism markets and destination products. Conclusions were drawn as follows:

- + The tourism performance in Zimbabwe is highly vulnerable to negative, social, political and economic conditions with periods of political and economic stability promoting tourism growth (c.f. 3.1.1).
- + The development of the tourism industry in Zimbabwe, for a long time occurred without the guidance of deliberate tourism planning and policy formulation. This means that tourism development was largely based on 'guess work' (c.f. 3.1.1).
- + The tourism industry in Zimbabwe has a strong institutional base in that it is represented by a fully-fledged standalone ministry and a DMO for implementing policies and national plans. But this perfect structure has not been able to yield practical or meaningful results for the industry. For example, the country has been operating without a tourism policy and a master plan. However, there have been some relevant developments in the recent past.
- + Zimbabwe's tourism products are rather limited and largely anchored on natural resources, heritage resources and events. The country does not have purpose-built tourist attractions. In terms of marketing, the country concentrates on popular attractions, yet it has other less known attractions which can be promoted for tourism for the benefit of novelty and knowledge seekers. (c.f. 3.4.1).
- + Wildlife is the main drawcard for tourists visiting the country and National Parks receive the highest number of tourists. This is further compounded by the fact that the Victoria Falls, which is one of the country's prime attractions, is situated in a National Park (c.f.3.4.1.1).
- + The destination has limited accessibility from outside, which is further aggravated by a restrictive Visa regime and poor internal connectivity (c.f. 3.4.2).

- + Continued poor economic performance is impacting on the quality of the amenities and the general infrastructure upon which the tourism industry heavily relies on (c.f. 3.4.4).
- + Zimbabwe is still largely perceived as an unsafe destination by most tourists, even though the political environment has improved over the years. However, the country still needs to further improve on issues to do with property rights and investment protection as these issues create negative sentiments about the country in general. (Such issues may be affecting the quick recovery of the industry despite the fact that tourists rated it as a safe destination) (c.f.3.4.6).
- + Zimbabwe is a destination which captures the attention of tourists from leading tourist destinations in Africa, Europe, America and Asia-Pacific, though the country is currently experiencing depressed tourist flows from these markets. The majority of tourists visiting Zimbabwe are from within the continent with South Africa being the dominant source market (c.f. 3.5.2).
- + The domestic tourism market is still small, with a significant proportion of Zimbabweans participating in tourism as business tourists. In addition, little is known about the preferences of the domestic market (c.f. 3.5.6).
- + The DMO in Zimbabwe heavily relies on geographical segmentation as its sole basis for market segmentation and target marketing. No empirical research has been carried in Zimbabwe to identify market segments based on consumer needs and preferences (c.f. 3.6). Thus, the research sought to establish tourist needs in the context of tourist taxonomies.
- + The DMO's marketing initiatives are not very effective due to a myriad of challenges which include budgetary constraints, marketing is largely dictated by the developments in the supply side (crisis related marketing) neglecting the demand side dynamics (c.f. 3.7).
- + Determination of the demand drivers helps to understand the tourist decision choices which enable manager to design relevant strategies for improving the competitive positions of destinations (c.f.3.8).

- + Zimbabwe's national policies have partially contributed to the prevailing social, economic and political challenges which have had a bearing on the performance of the tourism industry over the years (c.f.3.9).
- + The Swot analysis of Zimbabwe's tourism industry shows that the country has more of comparative advantages than competitive advantages. The operating environment for the industry is hostile and the continued social, economic and political challenges the country has been facing have impacted on the quality of the tourism infrastructure and the tourism experience. Lack of specific tourism policies and plans made the tourism industry more vulnerable to influences in the operating environment. The demand side dynamics have largely been neglected by tourism authorities in the development of tourism and quest for competitive advantages (c.f.3.9). Therefore, the study aimed to make a contribution that is demand based.

**Objective 3: To establish the demand drivers for the country' tourism industry from the viewpoint of the tourist:**

- + The desire for novelty and knowledge and the desire to escape and relax are the primary motivations energising tourists to visit the destination (c.f.5.6.1).
- + The destination environment i.e. Wildlife, culture and scenery are the (major destination based) demand drivers for tourism in Zimbabwe. The implication is that destination natural and cultural resources exert the greatest pulling effect. These satisfy the desire for novelty, which emerged as the major motivation for tourists visiting the destination (c.f. 5.6.1).
- + The Victoria Falls is one of the major attractions which cannot be imitated that generates demand for tourism in the country, giving the destination a competitive advantage (5.6.2).
- + Destination safety and friendliness of the host population were also identified as one of the destination attribute which motivates tourists to visit the country.
- + VFR, business trips contribute significantly to tourist flows into the country (Zimbabwe) especially the UK market (c.f. 5.6.3).

#### **Objective 4: To determine the perceptions of tourist towards the Competitiveness of Zimbabwe's destination products**

- ✦ Zimbabweans are generally friendly and receptive to visitors, this helps to create a sense of safety about the country especially for those who make the initiative to visit the destination. (c.f. 5.9.1).
- ✦ The destination is competitive in respect of safety and relaxation opportunities, core resources and hospitality. It is less competitive in the pricing and accommodation, facilities dimension as well as activities (5.9.3), (5.9.4), (5.9.4).
- ✦ The poor rating of facilities, pricing and accommodation reflect the effects of the low economic performance on the tourism product since tourism cannot develop in isolation of overall economic political and social environment. The poor performance of the facilities dimension has a bearing on the overall tourist experience (cf.5.9.3).
- ✦ Zimbabwe is generally evaluated as a safe destination by tourist who visit the destination and have first-hand experiences, however, this is contrary to the poor image generally held about the country in the global market. The slow recovery of the industry is an indication that it is failing to completely shake off the bad image tag (c.f. 5.9.3.6).
- ✦ While the competitiveness perceptions were largely positive across the four different types of tourists, there were some differences observed for example. Different types of tourists had somehow different perceptions about the destination. The Patriotic tourist was more positive as compared to other tourist types, while the Indifferent tourist had relatively low competitiveness perceptions. The IT whose trips are made easier by a well-developed general and tourism infrastructure had the lowest competitiveness perceptions of facilities and accessibility

#### **Objective 5: To establish the preferences of tourists visiting the country's tourist attractions**

- ✦ Activities, environmental considerations, social interaction and distaste for familiarity (novelty) emerged as the key attributes of the contemporary tourist visiting destination Zimbabwe. The desire for service excellency at the variable level emerged as the top preference when visiting the destination (c.f.5.8.1).

- ✦ The low desire for familiarity and relatively less reliance on the travel service for trip arrangements, especially among international tourist, shows that the mass tourist tendencies are no longer a very relevant attributes for conceptualising the contemporary tourist (5.8.2.1).
- ✦ The importance attached to environmentalism, a dimension which reflected the sensitivity of tourists to environmental conditions be they social, political and economic environment has implications reflects that most tourist visiting Zimbabwe are risk averse. This is further supported by the realisation that the Cautious New Tourist (CNT) is the largest group of tourists visiting the country. The implication is that any negative developments in the country can have fatal effects on the tourism industry and consideration of historical development of tourism in Zimbabwe also reflects this observation. (c.f.5.8.2.3).
- ✦ The desire for social involvement which was based on Cohen (1972) ideas has stood the test of time as most tourists showed preference to get into contact with local (cf. 5.8.2).
- ✦ There were no major differences in the preferences of domestic and international tourists though the former possessed some mass tourist tendencies since the desire for familiarity was more pronounced as compared to the latter (5.14).

**Objective 6: To establish the tourist taxonomies for Zimbabwe**

- ✦ Zimbabwe's tourist market is diverse, attracting tourists from more than 50 countries. This diverse tourist market can be divided into four recognisable groups namely the Cautious New Tourist, The Independent Tourist, The Patriotic Tourist, and the Indifferent Tourist (c.f.5.10.1).
- ✦ That environmentalism, activities and social involvement were the most preferred factors among the taxa shows a convergence of tastes. This could be an indication that, to some extent, Zimbabwe as a long-haul destination is filtering tourists and only attracting those motivated by similar preferences (c.f.5.10.1).

- ✦ Cultural factors to some extent influence tourist preferences. The Cautious New Tourist, Independent Tourists and Indifferent Tourist were dominated by tourists from America and Europe, while the Patriotic Tourist was largely dominated by tourists from Zimbabwe and Africa (5.10.1).
- ✦ The IT market is the most promising taxon for Zimbabwe, with potential for growth. With time, the CNT is likely to mature into the IT market (c.f.5.10.1.3).
- ✦ The classification of the tourist market according to taxa using their preferences, motivations and perceptions provide better insights into the nature of tourists as compared to using socio demographic characteristics. This is because tourists with the same socio-demographics were represented in all the taxa though in different proportions (c.f.5.10.2).
- ✦ The fact that the destination is being visited more by the CNT market, which is cautious as shown by the preference for the use of travel services, explains why the Zimbabwe's tourism industry is highly vulnerable to negative developments in the destination which seem to threaten perceived social, cultural, political and economic safety of the tourists. For example, the industry nearly collapsed in 2000, due to political and economic challenges triggered by the fast track land reform programme (c.f.5.10.1.1).
- ✦ The destination has its own 'naturalised' and very loyal tourist in the form of the PT, who believes in the destination and is likely to sustain it during turbulent times c.f. 5.10.1.1).
- ✦ The IDT is the opposite of the PT and is likely to give negative word of mouth recommendations if disappointed (c.f. 5.10.1.1).
- ✦ The PT, preferring a mix of familiarity and novelty, and the fact that a significant measure of the Asia-Pacific was found in this taxon provides clues that there may be a need to provide familiar products and services to tourists from the emerging markets (5.10.1.2).
- ✦ The IDT and PT had a fairly balanced, mix of leisure, business and VFR tourists, while, the IT and CNT were predominantly leisure tourists (c.f. 5.10.2).

**Objective 7:** To develop a Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF) and draw conclusions on how tourist taxonomies can be used as a management tool for enhancing destination

- ✦ Tourist taxonomies provide a multi-faceted tool which provides information that can be used by tourism practitioners to enhance destination competitiveness. There is need to activate and act on the abundant information obtained from the creation of taxonomies to create recognisable competitive advantages for any destination in the global market place (c.f.6.3.2.1).
- ✦ Tourist taxonomies by yielding information which can be used in product development, marketing, policy and planning and sustainable management of resources makes them a valuable management tool for enhancing the competitiveness application. This information (c.f.6.3.2.1.3).
- ✦ Tourist taxonomies enable management to meet the needs of tourists by providing products and services which meet their needs and preferences thereby making the destination competitive from the perspective of tourists (c.f.6.3.2.1.3).
- ✦ The use of tourist taxonomies of taxonomies in marketing management provides insights on the strategies which management can adopt to enhance the competitive strength of destinations from the perspective of tourists. (c.f.6.3.2.1.7).
- ✦ The TTCF, can also be used as an academic framework for understanding the concept of tourist typologies and its benefits both in theory and practically (c.f.6.3.2.1).

## **6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The recommendations for this study are given in the context of the 'aspects of competitiveness' as illustrated in the Tourist Taxonomy Competitiveness Framework (TTCF). However, from a general perspective, there is need to make policies and strategic plans which cater for the IT market (though still small) as it is the most sustainable segment with potential for growth, in view of the global trends in the tourism market. Meanwhile, the CNT market is likely to mature to the IT segment.

There is also need for political will and support towards creating competitive advantages for the country, since some of the issues affecting the competitiveness of the industry lie within

the country's macro environment and are best addressed by government. In particular, the political authorities may work towards mending relations with Europe, in particular Britain (in an amicable way) which was a leading traditional market for the country for a very long time since early colonisation times.

The fact that the destination received favourable competitiveness perceptions on destination safety and friendliness, marketing efforts should focus more on allaying perceived fears and uncertainties associated with the destination in the market. Most tourist tend to rely on media houses and intermediaries largely based outside the country for information.

There is a need to develop the country's infrastructure in general, and tourism related infrastructure in particular, for the destination to be able to cater for the IT market. Efforts to effectively cater for the specific segments should be done at all stages and levels in the tourism value chain. Below are segment specific recommendations.

**Table 6.1: Recommendations**

Preferences as per taxon	Product development	Marketing	Policy and planning	Management of visitor impacts	Suitability of each taxon for destination
<p><b>Cautious tourist</b></p> <p>Activity and adventure</p> <p>*Use of travel services</p> <p>*Social involvement</p> <p>*Environmentalism</p> <p>*Shuns familiarity for novelty</p>	<p>A well-developed network of the travel services (both foreign and local) including trained tour guides.</p> <p>Development and or promotion of alternative forms of tourism which provide opportunities for novelty experiences and social involvement, e.g. cultural tourism, Township tourism, wildlife tourism and guided village tours. The village tours should expose the tourists to major community activities such as farming, e.g. use of ox drawn ploughs, school visits, traditional marriage ceremonies among others.</p> <p>Tour operators can partner with selected communities in the provision of such products in order to create quality products and services</p> <p>The preferences for the tourists should be reflected by the different tourism players who collectively provide the tourism experience starting from the ports of entry.</p>	<p>Marketing should focus on messages that allay fears of risks and insecurity, putting emphasis on safety and convenience.</p> <p>Most of the marketing should be done through the travel services as well as online.</p> <p>There is need for the DMO to promote the destination attributes which appeal most to this type of tourists, e.g. wildlife, culture-based products and the availability of comfortable accommodation especially luxury hotels. The individual service providers should also seek to create marketing messages that appeal to the needs of their target markets.</p> <p>For purposes of making sure that the marketing messages reach the intended target groups, there is need for the DMO to establish the dominant countries in each taxon. For example, to effectively reach out to the CNT, there is need to focus</p>	<p>Policy and planning should be formulated to encourage the development and or promotion of products and services required by the CNT because this taxon represents the current cash cow of the country's tourism industry.</p> <p>Formulation of policies that encourage the establishment of tourism businesses such as Tour Operators in the country.</p>	<p>The cautious tourists prefer using tour companies that usually make them move in fairly large numbers at a time, which can have pronounced effects on the environmental.</p> <p>Therefore, it becomes necessary to put in place environmental preservation strategies similar to those designed for destinations which receive mass tourists.</p> <p>Since the CNT are environmental conscious, they are likely to cooperate with any moves meant to enhance environmental quality.</p>	<p>The CNT is the most suitable taxon given the current circumstances. The CNT tends to rely on tour operators and travel service agencies which protect them from the challenges relating to infrastructure within the destination.</p> <p>It is the largest group with the ability to bring more revenue.</p> <p>Largely comprised of tourists from high spending countries.</p>

		more on the America and European market.			
<p><b>The patriotic tourist</b></p> <p>Has preference for everything though with more preference for</p> <p>*Activity/adventure and Environmentalism</p> <p>*Social involvement</p> <p>* A mix of familiarity and novelty</p>	<p>Development and provision of affordable tourism products and services and is likely to embrace the existing forms of tourism and all products, though a significant number are business tourists who require specialised services.</p> <p>Internet services, conference/seminar facilities are some of the relevant support services.</p> <p>Marketing efforts by the DMO should mostly be directed at African and domestic tourists since they form the majority in this taxon.</p>	<p>Marketing for this group should largely focus on creating destination awareness since this type of tourists seem to like everything about the destination.</p> <p>PT can be targeted in customer-based marketing because they are more positive and show some high degree of loyalty to the destination.</p> <p>Provision of customer loyalty rewards, this is best done by individual tourism providers.</p> <p>Designing marketing messages which appeal to business tourists.</p> <p>Attention should be given to marketing messages which appeal to business tourists</p>	<p>Since the PT is not demanding lessens pressure on planning requirements.</p> <p>However, because of their preference for familiarity there is need to cater for this especially in relation to foreign tourists e.g. providing foreign cuisines.</p> <p>Information derived from this group cannot be very useful in planning because to some extent this tourist is not very objective. Loyalty to destination is the overriding factor.</p>	<p>Given their loyalty to the destination visitor impacts are likely to be low</p> <p>Carrying out of EIA to come up with tailor made conservation strategies for this group.</p>	<p>This taxon should be embraced as it can sustain the industry during turbulent times.</p> <p>That the PT are not selective makes them fairly easy to provide for</p>
<p><b>The independent tourist</b></p>	<p>Well-developed transport services, establishment of well-resourced information centres countrywide, investment in information technologies. Good</p>	<p>There should be dominance of online marketing directly</p>	<p>Tourism policy and strategic planning should cater for the development of products, services</p>	<p>Independent tourists do not move in large numbers at a time and their effects on the</p>	<p>The IT represents the ideal market for Zimbabwe. However, the infrastructure and supporting factors to</p>

<p>Activity and adventure</p> <p>*Social involvement</p> <p>*Environmentalism</p> <p>*Shuns familiarity and the travel services.</p>	<p>signage, visitor maps use of online platforms for selling products.</p> <p>Updated maps for GPS use</p> <p>Types of tourism and or products are similar to those of the CNT. However, there is need to come up with innovative products which allow more social involvement. Homestays, both in rural and urban communities can create such opportunities. The rural environment is likely to provide the IT with numerous activities to participate in, since interacting with the host community is their top priority. Such activities include scotch cart rides, gathering of traditional fruits, cattle herding, rural school visits, traditional games for children, cultural and food events among others.</p> <p>There may be need for the government to help communities with funding for purposes of providing basic facilities and services for tourists, especially in rural communities. The ZTA should be very monitoring regulating such activities.</p> <p>There is need to provide support services which make it easy for</p>	<p>linking the tourist to service providers.</p> <p>In terms of marketing messages emphasis should be designed in line with preferences for activity/adventure and social involvement.</p> <p>A promising taxon which should be part of the destination strategic marketing plans as it represents experienced traveller with a high propensity to travel.</p> <p>The DMO in the context of geographical segmentation can effectively target the IT taxon by directing marketing messages to the USA and Europe</p>	<p>and supporting infrastructure in order to allow the growth of this tourist taxon.</p> <p>Formulation of good policies that encourage the development of small to medium tourism enterprises in all areas as this type of tourist can visit any place with the destination</p>	<p>environment may be less pronounced.</p> <p>Since they are environmental conscious they are likely to cooperate with destination authorities in implementing tourist centred environmental strategies.</p>	<p>ensure a seamless delivery of the products are not in place, hence the country is not ready to attract this type of tourist and provide satisfactory experience, despite the presence of appropriate core resources.</p>
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	<p>the tourists to move within the destination.</p> <p>It must be noted that it can be relatively easy to provide host community related activities and encounters to the Independent Tourists because they are free from the restrictions associated with use of tour operator.</p> <p>Provision of modest forms of accommodation e.g. self-catering lodges and home stays.</p>				
<p><b>The indifferent tourist</b></p> <p>*Has limited preference for environmentalism</p> <p>*little social Involvement</p> <p>*No preference for familiarity, activity and adventure and travel services</p>	<p>Hotel accommodation, environmentally friendly types of tourism and business tourism.</p>	<p>Marketing messages should put emphasis on the positives of the social, political, economic and environment factors of the destination as they seem to be the most concern for this type of tourist.</p> <p>The IDT is likely to send negative word of mouth recommendations because the tourist is less positive about the country.</p> <p>Efforts to create messages aimed at correcting the negative image associated with Zimbabwe should mostly target the European and the African market since most</p>	<p>There is need to promote image positive building measures.</p> <p>Efforts should be directed at addressing the destination weaknesses as identified by this hard to please tourist so as to make the destination more competitive.</p>	<p>Since the IDT prefers independent travel their effects on the environment may not be pronounced as compared to tourists who prefer to travel in groups. However, by scoring relatively less on the environmentalism dimension implies that this type of tourist may not care much about the physical state of the environment. This can be further compounded by the fact that this type of a tourist is not very enthusiastic about the destination</p>	<p>This taxon should be targeted least, as it seems to be hard to please. The preferences of these tourists are not very clear in the context of this study.</p> <p>However, the business tourists and VFR are providing constant flows into the country and should not be totally discarded</p>

		respondents in this taxon were from these markets.  Use of business and VFR related marketing messages			
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**Source: *Author's compilation***

## **6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

While this study focussed on the tourist taxonomies of Zimbabwe including the development of a tourist taxonomy competitiveness framework, the following questions remain unanswered:

- ✦ Is a modified International Tourist Role Scale (ITRS) suitable for measuring the preferences of domestic tourists? It may be necessary to create a scale which specifically caters for domestic tourists, since the original ITRS was developed for international tourists.
- ✦ To what extent do the tourist taxonomies established in the Zimbabwean context apply to other countries especially in Africa? There is need to establish whether the taxonomies are representative of the tourist market in other Southern African countries which have similar tourism products with Zimbabwe. Future studies may also need to focus on specific types of tourists, for example, business tourists and ecotourists, rather than blanketing all the tourists visiting the country.

## **6.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

- ✦ The use of a convenience sampling to some extent, affects the generatability of the results.
- ✦ It was difficult to recruit local tourists, most of whom were not interested in completing the questionnaire as compared to international tourist.
- ✦ The use of a modified ITR scale to suit domestic tourists may not have well captured their preferences.
- ✦ The study included both business and leisure tourists, they may be need to separate according to trip purpose

## **6.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This study is presumably, the first of its kind to show the link between taxonomies and destination competitiveness as well as designing a demand-based competitiveness framework for enhancing destination competitiveness. Identification of tourist taxonomies and the subsequent use of the Tourist competitiveness framework can assist managers to come up with demand-based strategies which can be valuable in complimenting supply side interventions.

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## ANNEXURE A: THE QUESTIONNAIRE

My name is Charity Mapingure, a doctoral student at North West University, South Africa. I am conducting research as a requirement for the fulfilment of the PhD qualification. The aim of the research is to come up with information regarding the different taxonomies of tourists in order to provide a management framework for enhancing destination competitiveness. I am, therefore, seeking your voluntary participation and informed consent in completing the attached questionnaire. The answers will only be used for academic research purposes.

### SECTION A: TOURIST MOTIVATIONS

What motivates you to visit tourist attractions in Zimbabwe? *By using a tick indicate the extent you agree or disagree with the following statements*

KEY: 1 **SD** - Strongly Disagree 2 **D**-Disagree 3 **N**-Neutral 4 **A**-Agree 5 **SA**-Strongly Agree

	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
A1 To rest and relax.	1	2	3	4	5
A2 To get away from routine.	1	2	3	4	5
A3 The need for spiritual and emotional fulfillment.	1	2	3	4	5
A4 The opportunity to travel with friends and relatives.	1	2	3	4	5
A5 To meet the local people.	1	2	3	4	5
A6 To meet people with similar interests.	1	2	3	4	5
A7 To learn new things and increase knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
A8 To explore new places and new experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
A9 To see cultural attractions.	1	2	3	4	5
A10 To experience the warm climate.	1	2	3	4	5
A11 To get closer to nature.	1	2	3	4	5
A12 To get a sense of achievement.	1	2	3	4	5
A13 To indulge in pleasurable activities.	1	2	3	4	5
A14 To enjoy the local cuisine (food).	1	2	3	4	5
A15 The need for adventure.	1	2	3	4	5
A16 To view wildlife and the scenery.	1	2	3	4	5
A17 To get an opportunity to talk about the trip when I get back home	1	2	3	4	5
A18 To promote and enhance health and wellbeing	1	2	3	4	5
A19 To develop my skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5

**A20. If your reasons for visiting Zimbabwe have not been fully captured above, indicate them here.**

**A21. What makes Zimbabwe a “must visit destination”**

**SECTION B. TOURIST PREFERENCES**

**What are your preferences when visiting Zimbabwe? *By using a tick, indicate the extent you agree or disagree with the following statements***

KEY: 1 **SD** - Strongly Disagree 2 **D**-Disagree 3 **N**-Neutral 4 **A**-Agree 5 **SA**-Strongly Agree

		<b>1SD</b>	<b>2D</b>	<b>3N</b>	<b>4A</b>	<b>5SA</b>
B1	I prefer to visit places that are popular tourist destinations	1	2	3	4	5
B2	I prefer to travel to places where culture is similar to mine	1	2	3	4	5
B3	I prefer to stay in luxury chain hotels	1	2	3	4	5
B4	I prefer to eat in restaurants which provide cuisine (food) similar to what I eat at home.	1	2	3	4	5
B5	I prefer to visit places where the forms of transportation are similar to those I use day by day.	1	2	3	4	5
B6	I put high priority on familiarity when choosing where to go for vacation	1	2	3	4	5
B7	I prefer to travel to places with a well-developed travel and tourism facilities	1	2	3	4	5
B8	I prefer places with a high degree of political stability	1	2	3	4	5

- B9 I prefer visiting places with the same facilities as those of my home country. 1 2 3 4 5
- B10 I prefer to visit places where the people speak the same language as mine. 1 2 3 4 5
- B11 I like to visit new places rather than places that I have visited before. 1 2 3 4 5

**KEY: 1 SD - Strongly Disagree 2 D-Disagree 3 N-Neutral 4A-Agree 5 SA-Strongly Agree**

- |     |  | 1SD | 2D | 3N | 4A | 5SA |
|-----|--|-----|----|----|----|-----|
| B12 | I prefer to visit places which offer cheap tourism services.   | 1   | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5   |
| B13 | Environmental quality is a key factor which I consider when visiting destinations.                               | 1   | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5   |
| B14 | I prefer to use tourist services and facilities which are environmentally friendly.                              | 1   | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5   |
| B15 | I prefer to be on a guided tour when visiting attractions.   | 1   | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5   |
| B16 | I prefer travel agencies to take complete care of me from beginning to end when travelling in a foreign country. | 1   | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5   |
| B17 | I prefer to start a trip with no preplanned or definite routes when travelling as a tourist.                     | 1   | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5   |
| B18 | I prefer service staff that is consistently courteous and friendly.  | 1   | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5   |
| B19 | I prefer to associate with the local people when traveling in a foreign country.                                 | 1   | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5   |
| B20 | I prefer to live the way the people I visit live by sharing their shelter, food and custom during my stay.       | 1   | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5   |

- |     |  |   |   |   |   |   |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| B21 | I prefer to seek excitement of complete novelty by engaging in direct contact with a wide variety of new and different people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| B22 | If I find a place that particularly pleases me, I may stop there long enough for social involvement in the life of the place.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| B23 | I prefer to make friends with local people when travelling in local destinations.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| B24 | I prefer destinations which offer authentic exhibits and activities only.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| B25 | I prefer activities which challenge my mental abilities.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| B26 | I prefer activities which challenge my physical abilities.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| B27 | I prefer activities where I have an opportunity to participate actively.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| B28 | I prefer destinations which offer opportunities for engaging in new experiences.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| B29 | I prefer visiting destinations which provide opportunities for wilderness camping.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**B30. What else do you prefer when you visit as a tourist in Zimbabwe**

[Empty box]

**SECTION B: TOURIST PERCEPTIONS OF ZIMBABWE AS A DESTINATION**

**What are your views about Zimbabwe as a destination? *By using a tick, indicate the extent you agree or disagree with the following statements.***

KEY: 1 SD - Strongly Disagree    2 D-Disagree    3 N-Neutral    4A-Agree    5 SA-Strongly Agree

		1SD	2D	3N	4A	5SA
C1	Zimbabwe's wildlife resources are unique.	1	2	3	4	5
C2	Zimbabwe's culture is unique.	1	2	3	4	5
C3	Zimbabwe is a safe country for tourists.	1	2	3	4	5
C4	Zimbabwe's tourism facilities are good.	1	2	3	4	5
C5	Zimbabweans are friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
C6	The country offers opportunities to interact with local people.	1	2	3	4	5
C7	The service staff treats tourists with respect.	1	2	3	4	5
C8	The prices of tourism goods and services offer value for money.	1	2	3	4	5
C9	Zimbabwe offers varied activities for tourists.	1	2	3	4	5

C10	The country has a variety of attractions.	1	2	3	4	5
C11	The accommodation in Zimbabwe suits my needs	1	2	3	4	5
C12	Zimbabwe has variety of accommodation establishments which suit different tourist needs	1	2	3	4	5
C13	The country offers opportunities to rest and relax.	1	2	3	4	5
		1SD	2D	3N	4A	5SA
C14	The country provides opportunities to experience and learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5
C15	The country is best suited for adventure tourism	1	2	3	4	5
C16	I have a lot to talk about Zimbabwe to friends and relatives.	1	2	3	4	5
C17	The country has facilities and activities for the entire family.	1	2	3	4	5
C18	The country has a pleasant climate.	1	2	3	4	5
C19	Transport services are good.	1	2	3	4	5
C20	The local cuisine (food) is pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
C21	The country offers opportunities to engage in pleasurable activities.	1	2	3	4	5

- C22 The country offers a unique night life. 1 2 3 4 5
- C23 Most of the activities in Zimbabwe require lots of skills which I don't have. 1 2 3 4 5
- C24 Most of the activities for tourists are frightening. 1 2 3 4 5
- C25 The prices of tourism goods and services in Zimbabwe are affordable. 1 2 3 4 5
- C26 Zimbabwe has a variety of flora and fauna. 1 2 3 4 5
- C27 It is easy to connect from one point to the other within the country. 1 2 3 4 5
- C28 The country offers good conference and exhibition facilities 1 2 3 4 5
- C29 Zimbabwe's environment is in a good state. 1 2 3 4 5

**C 30. How best can you describe Zimbabwe as a destination in your own words?**

**SECTION D: SOCIO- DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS**

**D1. Sex of the respondent**

Sex	Female	Male

**D2. What is your age?**

Age range	18-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	60+

**D3. What is your nationality?**

--

**D4. Have you visited the country before? (For Non-Zimbabwean tourists)**

Yes	No

**D5. If you have visited more than 3times, give a reason for your answer**

--

**D6. Which type of accommodation are you currently using?**

Luxury hotel 4-5 star	Hotel 3-1 star	Motel	Self-catering lodge	Friends and relatives	Camping	Houseboat	Other (specify) .....

**D7. What is your highest level of education?**

Primary	Secondary	Professional qualification	Diploma	Degree	<b>Other (specify)</b> ..... .....

**D8. How did you arrange your trip?**

Everything was pre-arranged by a tour operator	
I booked everything personally through the internet	

I booked for transport only through a travel agent	
I booked for accommodation only through a travel agent	
I booked for activities only through the tour operator	
Nothing was booked in advance, except for the air ticket	

**D9. What sources of information did you use before travelling to this place? You can tick more than one option**

Internet	
Travel Agents	
Brochures	
Newspapers/Magazines	
Friends and Relatives	
Previous experience	

**D10. Whom did you travel with?**

Alone	
Friends	
Spouse	
Family	
Business Associates	
Partner	
Tour Group	
Others specify	

**D11. What is your main purpose of travel?**

Leisure and recreation	
Business and professional	
Visiting friends and relatives	

Education and training	
Religion and pilgrimage	
<b>Other reasons</b>	

**D.12. What is your employment status?**

Full Time Job	Part Time Job	Self Employed	Unemployed	Student	Other.....

**D13. What is your average monthly household income?**

Less than US1000	US1000-1999	US2000-3999	US4001-7999	US8000- 15999	16000+

**TATENDA**

**THANK YOU**

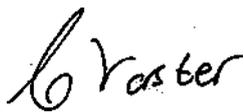
**SIYABONGA**

**ANNEXTURE B- PROOF OF LANGUAGE EDITING.**

## DECLARATION

I, C Vorster (ID: 710924 0034 084), Language editor and Translator and member of the South African Translators' Institute (SATI member number 1003172), herewith declare that I did the language editing of a thesis written by Ms C Mapingure from the North-West University (student number 24851159)

Title of the thesis: Tourist Taxonomies as a Management Tool for Destination Competitiveness



18 November 2017

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C Vorster

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Date