

Developing a competitiveness model for South African National Parks

WH Engelbrecht

20670826

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

Promoter: Prof Dr M Saayman

Co-Promoter: Prof M Kruger

May 2015

This study is dedicated to my late grandfather and uncle, whose names I was blessed with, but who I never had the opportunity to meet.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to thank my Heavenly Father for giving me the ability, strength, motivation and perseverance to complete my Doctoral degree. He has guided me with love, compassion and mercy throughout my life and I have no doubt that He will continue to do so.

To my father and mother, thank you for your love, support and words of wisdom through the past 26 years and for providing me with the opportunity to study. You are the world's best parents and I could not have asked for better. Thank you for shaping me into the man that I am today and for having faith in me.

To my sister, thanks for always being there, assisting me with my documents and supporting me throughout the years. You have made a lasting impact on my life. I would also like to thank her for translating the Abstract of the study into Afrikaans.

To my best friends (Die Japers), Hendrik, Dewald, Willem, and Philip thanks for your unending support, encouragement and friendship during the past years and for understanding when I had to cancel our appointments. You truly are wonderful friends who have made a valuable contribution to my life. To all my other friends whose names are too many to mention, thank you for your support during the completion of my research.

To my supervisors, Prof. Melville Saayman and Prof. Martinette Kruger, thank you for showing interest in my research as well as passing on your love and passion for research to me. Your guidance and support is much appreciated; I have learned a lot from you while working on this research project. Furthermore, you have also taught me valuable life lessons of which I am grateful, and that I will be able to use in my personal and academic life. You are the best supervisors I could have asked for due to constant motivation, passion, commitment, support and respect that you have for students and people in general. Thanks for all the time and effort that you have provided me with in order to complete this research project.

Thank you to my colleagues at Unisa and the IIE for your support and motivation during the undertaking of my study especially Prof Chris Swanepoel; Dr Nellie Swart; Dr Adrinet Snyman; Dorothy Queiros; Elricke van Loggerenberg; Lesedi Nduna; Jenny Nel; Kiera Seymour; Peter Kriel; Dr Stellah Lubinga; Roberto Teixeira; Rebecca Shimmin; Erna Kruger-Pretorius and Fathima Razack.

My thanks go out to the staff at South African National Parks, especially Mr Glen Phillips, for the financial assistance and support during the survey at the Kruger National Park.

Thank you to all the respondents who completed the survey; without them there would have been no study and no possible change in the management of national parks.

Thanks go out to Dr Lindie du Plessis for her guidance and assistance in managing the survey with me, as well as Morne Prinsloo, Jacques Bosch and Elroy Crews for distributing the questionnaires in the rest camps.

Thanks to the North West University and National Research Foundation for their financial contribution towards the study.

Thank you to Dr Suria Ellis for assisting with the statistical analysis of the data and giving advice in difficult times.

Thanks go out to Mr Ian Cockbain for his financial support during my studies and for showing interest in my studies.

Thank you Elmari Snoer for the language and technical editing of this thesis.

Thank you Annatjie Rautenbach for assisting in the translation of the Abstract into Afrikaans.

Developing a competitiveness model for the South African National Parks

ABSTRACT

The tourism industry is an extremely competitive industry which is mainly caused by the ever changing needs of tourists. However, despite the constant change in tourist behaviour, violent terrorist attacks on countries across the globe and the weakening of the world economies, the tourism industry showed significant growth over the last few decades. The fast growth rate of tourism has also lead to the tourist being more aware of ecotourism destinations and the key role these destinations play in conserving the natural and cultural environments in the midst of globalisation and urbanisation. The pressure on ecotourism destinations such as national parks is increasing as more and more natural land are being taken up for urban development. In the case of South African National Parks (SANParks), the decrease in government funding pressurizes the resources and national parks have to identify ways to generate their own income through tourism activities. SANParks manages 22 national parks across South Africa with the aim to conserve South Africa's biodiversity, provide recreational activities for tourists and build long-term relationships with the local communities to enhance the communities' quality of life. Hence, in order to remain competitive it is important to determine the parks' competitive advantages. Therefore the aim of this study was to develop a competitiveness model for SANParks by using the Kruger National Park as case study. The Kruger National Park is not only one of the largest and most recognised national parks in the world, but also boasts with a large variety of fauna and flora, variety of accommodation facilities such as bush lodges, chalets and camping facilities as well as various tourist activities.

The literature review indicated that destinations differ from each other and therefore ecotourism destinations such as national parks would have a distinct set of competitive advantage factors. However, these factors can only be determined if the needs of tourists are anticipated and park specific products and services are developed to satisfy the needs of visitors to the park and ultimately lead to tourist loyalty. Once a competitive position has been established, a national park can obtain benefits such as an increase in tourist numbers and revenue delivery of high quality products and services at the park as well as trigger a higher quality of life for the local community.

If managed accordingly, the park might experience sustainable growth as well as increased profit margins. The data for the study was collected by means of a questionnaire survey at four of the Kruger National Park's rest camps during the period 26 December 2013 and 4 January 2014 which is the festive season in South Africa. The rest camps that were included in this survey were Olifants (74 questionnaires); Skukuza (213 questionnaires); Lower Sabie (98 questionnaires) and Berg-&-Dal (51 questionnaires). A total of 436 completed questionnaires were administered and further analysed.

Descriptive statistics were used to profile the respondents while two factor analyses were done on the competitive advantage factors and tourist motives for travelling to the Park. The factor analyses identified five competitive advantage factors of which *Wildlife Experiences* and *Marketing and Branding* were regarded as the most important factors. The other three competitive advantage factors were *Accommodation and Retail*, *Visitor Management* and *Suprastructure and Amenities*. Four motivational factors were identified namely *Experience and Relaxation*, *Lifestyle*, *All-Inclusive Destination* and *Value*. The identified factors were further used in an ANOVA analysis and the results showed that socio-demographic characteristics such as home language, province of residence, level of education and marital status have all significant differences based on the five competitive advantage factors as well as the four motivational factors. The *t*-test analysis presented a few statistical significant differences between the independent variables or group of individuals. These differences were based on the respondents' demographic and behaviour characteristics with regards to the competitive advantage and motivational factors. However, the strongest statistically significant differences were based on the behavioural characteristics of tourists travelling with children to the Park, Wild card holders, tourist reading magazines, previous visits to the Park and differences between tourists making use of chalets and camping facilities. A Structural Equation Model was applied to confirm the results that were obtained from the analyses. The SEM indicated that tourists' motivations have a significant influence on the factors that tourists identified as competitive advantage factors for the Kruger National Park.

This research made three distinct new contributions. Firstly, competitive advantage factors were specifically identified for ecotourism based destinations such as national parks from a demand side. Also, the tourists motivation for travelling proved to hugely influence these competitive advantage factors. Secondly, a competitiveness model was developed specifically for national parks within South Africa. The proposed model could assist national parks across South Africa to obtain a competitive advantage among its competitors based on park specific factors. Lastly, the concept of competitiveness has not yet been applied within the ecotourism and nature-based tourism destinations context. This study described the concept of competitiveness with the focus on national parks as ecotourism destinations and the aspects that need to be taken into consideration when analysing the concept in such a context.

Keywords: Kruger National Park, nature-based tourism; ecotourism; national parks, competitiveness, competitive advantage, comparative advantage; park management, destination management; Structural Equation Model; tourist motivations and tourist profile.

Onwikkeling van 'n mededingendheidsmodel vir Suid Afrikaanse Nasionale Parke

OPSOMMING

Die toerismebedryf is 'n hoogs kompeterende bedryf, hoofsaaklik as gevolg van toeriste se behoeftes wat gereeld verander. Ten spyte van hierdie gereelde verandering, gewelddadige terroriseraanvalle en die verswakking van ekonomiese regoor die wêreld, het die toerismebedryf belowende groei gedurende die laaste paar dekades getoon. Die snelgroeiende tempo van toerisme het tot 'n groter bewustheid van ekotoerismebestemmings gelei, sowel as die rol wat hierdie bestemmings in natuur- en kultuurbewaring speel in 'n wêreld wat gekenmerk word deur globalisasie en verstedeliking. Daar is toenemende druk op ekotoerismebestemmings, soos nasionale parke, as gevolg van verhoogde gebruik van natuurlike land vir verstedeliking. In die geval van die Suid-Afrikaanse Nasionale Parke (SANParke) het die afname in staatsbefondsing druk op hulpbronne geplaas en sodoende moet nasionale parke maniere identifiseer om addisionele inkomste deur toerismeaktiwiteite te genereer. SANParke bestuur 22 nasionale parke regoor Suid-Afrika met die doel om Suid-Afrika se biodiversiteit te bewaar, ontspannings-aktiwiteite vir toeriste beskikbaar te stel en langtermynverhoudings met plaaslike gemeenskappe te bou en sodoende hulle lewenskwaliteit te verbeter. Ten einde kompetend te bly, is dit belangrik dat nasionale parke se mededingende voordele identifiseer word. Die doel van hierdie studie is om 'n mededingendheidsmodel vir SANParke te ontwikkel deur die Nasionale Kruger Wildtuin as gevallestudie te gebruik. Die Nasionale Kruger Wildtuin is een van die grootste en bekendste nasionale parke in die wêreld en beskik oor 'n groot verskeidenheid fauna en flora, 'n verskeidenheid akkommodasie-opsies, soos boskampe, chalets en kampfasiliteite, sowel as 'n verskeidenheid ontspanningsaktiwiteite vir toeriste.

Die literatuurstudie toon dat bestemmings van mekaar verskil en juis hierom sal elke ekotoerismebestemming, soos 'n nasionale park, oor 'n spesifieke stel mededingende voordele beskik. Hierdie voordele kan slegs bepaal word as die toeriste se behoeftes voorspel word en parkspesifieke produkte en dienste ontwikkel word om in hierdie behoeftes te voorsien en so lojaliteit aan te moedig. Sodra 'n bestemming se mededingende voordeel bepaal is, kan 'n nasionale park daaruit voordeel trek deur, onder andere, 'n toename in besoekers, 'n toename in winste, en deur produkte en dienste van 'n hoë kwaliteit te lewer, en deur die plaaslike gemeenskap se lewe te verbeter.

Sou die park daarin slaag om hierdie voordele effektief te bestuur, sal dit volhoubare groei en 'n toename in wins tot gevolg hê. Die data vir hierdie studie is ingesamel deur middel van 'n vraelys wat tussen 26 Desember 2013 en 7 Januarie 2014 (Kersseisoen) in vier van die Nasionale Kruger Wildtuin se kampe versprei is. Die vraelyste is soos volg versprei: Olifantskamp (74 vraelyste), Skukuza (213 vraelyste), Onder-Sabie (98 vraelyste) en Berg-en-Dal (51 vraelyste). In totaal is 436 voltooide vraelyste geanaliseer.

Beskrywende statistiek is gebruik om 'n profiel van die respondent op te trek, terwyl twee-faktoranalises uitgevoer is om die park se mededingende voordele te bepaal, sowel as die redes waarom toeriste die bestemming gekies het. Die faktoranalises het vyf mededingende faktore geïdentifiseer wat toeriste motiveer om die park te besoek waarvan *ervaringe met wild en bemarking en korporatiewe beeld as die mees belnagrikste faktore beskou is*. Die ander drie faktore is *akkommodasie en kleinhandel, besoekerbestuur en suprastruktuur en fasiliteite*. Vier motiverende faktore is geïdentifiseer, naamlik *ervaring en ontspanning, lewenstyl, alles-inklusiewe bestemming en waarde*. Hierdie faktore is gebruik in 'n ANOVA-analise wat getoon het dat sosio-demografiese faktore soos huistaal, provinsie van tuiste, vlak van onderrig en huwelikstatus uiteenlopende verskille getoon het vir beide die vyf mededingende voordele, sowel as die vier motiveringsfaktore. Die *t*-toets analise het belangrike statistiese verskille tussen die onafhanklike veranderlikes en groep of individue getoon. Hierdie veranderinge is gebaseer op die respondent se demografiese en gedragsfaktore. Die opvallendste statistiese verskille is gebaseer op die gedrag van toeriste wat met kinders na die park gereis het, Wildkaarthouers, toeriste wat tydskrifte lees, toeriste wat voorheen die park besoek het en die verskille tussen toeriste wat in chalets bly en dié wat kamp. 'n "Structural Equation Model" (SEM) is toegepas om die resultate te staaf. Die SEM het bewys dat toeriste se motivering 'n groot invloed het op die faktore wat toeriste as 'n mededingende voordeel vir die Nasionale Kruger Wildtuin ag.

Hierdie navorsing maak drie belangrike bydraes tot toerismebestuur. Eerstens het hierdie studie mededingende voordele spesifiek vir ekotoerismebestemmings, soos nasionale parke, vanuit 'n behoefte perspektief geïdentifiseer. Daarbenewens het toeriste se motivering om te reis 'n groot invloed gehad op hierdie mededingende voordeel. Tweedens is 'n mededingendheidsmodel spesifiek vir nasionale parke in Suid-Afrika ontwikkel. Die voorgestelde model kan ondersteuning aan nasionale parke regoor Suid-Afrika bied, ten einde 'n kompeterende voordeel onder sy mededingers te bekom,

veral in terme van parkspesifieke faktore. Laastens, die konsep van mededingende voordele is nog nie voorheen toegepas op 'n ekotoerisme en natuurgebaseerde toerismebestemmingskonteks nie. Hierdie studie beskryf die konsep van kompetisie met die fokus op nasionale parke as ekotoerismebestemmings en die aspekte wat in ag geneem moet word wanneer so 'n konsep binne konteks geanaliseer word.

Sleutelwoorde: Nasionale Kruger Wildtuin, natuurgebaseerde toerisme, ekotoerisme, nasionale parke, mededingendheid, mededingende voordeel, vergelykbare voordeel, parkbestuur, bestemmingsbestuur, "Structural Equation Model", toerismotivering en toerisprofiel.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND METHOD OF RESEARCH	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	3
1.2.1 PARK MANAGEMENT.....	3
1.2.2 COMPETITIVENESS.....	7
1.2.3 COMPARATIVE ADVANTAGE VERSUS COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE	8
1.2.4 PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON COMPETITIVENESS.....	10
1.3. PROBLEM STATEMENT	13
1.4. GOAL OF THE STUDY	15
1.4.1 GOAL.....	15
1.4.2 OBJECTIVES.....	15
1.5. METHOD OF RESEARCH	16
1.5.1 LITERATURE STUDY	16
1.5.2 EMPIRICAL SURVEY	16
1.5.2.1 <i>Research design and method of collecting data</i>	16
1.5.2.2 <i>Sampling</i>	18
1.5.2.3 <i>Structuring of the questionnaire</i>	20
1.5.2.4 <i>Data analysis</i>	22
1.6. DEFINING THE CONCEPTS.....	24
1.7. PRELIMINARY CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION.....	26
CHAPTER 2: AN OVERVIEW OF PARK MANAGEMENT.....	27
2.1 INTRODUCTION	27
2.2 NATURE-BASED TOURISM.....	29
2.3 ECOTOURISM	30
2.4 NATIONAL PARKS.....	31
2.4.1 THE KRUGER NATIONAL PARK (STUDY FOCUS)	33
2.5 PREVIOUS RESEARCH REGARDING NATIONAL PARKS	35
2.6 PARK MANAGEMENT.....	62
2.6.1 ECOTOURISM MANAGEMENT	63
a) <i>Pillar 1: Conservation and promotion of the natural and cultural environment</i>	64
b) <i>Pillar 2: Sustainable management of the natural and cultural environment</i>	65
c) <i>Pillar 3: Community involvement</i>	66
d) <i>Pillar 4: Tourist satisfaction</i>	67

2.6.2	GENERAL MANAGEMENT.....	68
a)	<i>Marketing Management</i>	70
b)	<i>Financial Management</i>	73
c)	<i>Human Resource Management</i>	74
2.6.3	CONSERVATION MANAGEMENT.....	76
a)	<i>Wildlife management</i>	76
b)	<i>Wildlife population</i>	76
c)	<i>Environmental management</i>	77
d)	<i>Water management</i>	77
e)	<i>Waste and removal management</i>	78
f)	<i>Green management or recycling</i>	78
g)	<i>Visitor management:</i>	78
2.7	CONCLUSION.....	80
 CHAPTER 3: AN ANALYSIS OF COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGES.....		81
3.1	INTRODUCTION	81
3.2	DEFINING AND UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPT OF COMPETITIVENESS VERSUS COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE	83
3.2.1	COMPETITIVENESS.....	83
3.2.2	COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE	85
3.2.3	COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE VERSUS COMPARATIVE ADVANTAGE	87
3.3	BACKGROUND ON COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE	90
3.3.1	PORTER'S FIVE FORCES OF COMPETITIVENESS	91
3.3.1.1.	<i>Threat of new entrants in the nature-based tourism sector</i>	94
3.3.1.2.	<i>Buying power of tourists</i>	97
3.3.1.3	<i>Bargaining power of tourism suppliers</i>	98
3.3.1.4	<i>Threat of substitutes in the nature-based tourism sector</i>	99
3.3.1.5	<i>Intensity of rivalry among nature-based tourism destinations</i>	100
3.3.2	RICHIE AND CROUCH'S DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS MODEL	104
3.3.2.1	<i>Destination Competitiveness</i>	104
3.3.3	TOURISM COMPETITIVENESS MODEL	108
3.3.3.1	<i>Qualifying and amplifying determinants</i>	110
3.3.3.2	<i>Destination policy, planning and development</i>	110
3.3.3.3	<i>Destination management</i>	111
3.3.3.4	<i>Core resources and attractions</i>	112
3.3.3.5	<i>Supporting factors and resources</i>	113
3.4.	PREVIOUS RESEARCH REGARDING COMPETITIVENESS	116

3.5	BENEFITS OF OBTAINING A COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE.....	121
3.6.	CONCLUSION.....	122
CHAPTER 4: A SYNOPSIS OF THE STUDY’S RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		123
4.1	INTRODUCTION	123
4.2	RESEARCH DESIGN	124
4.2.1	POPULATION AND SAMPLE SIZE	127
4.2.2	QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN.....	129
4.3	STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	135
4.3.1	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	135
4.3.2	FACTOR ANALYSES	136
4.3.2.1	<i>Reliability and Validity.....</i>	<i>138</i>
4.3.3	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA).....	139
4.3.4	T-TESTS.....	141
4.3.5	CORRELATION MATRIX.....	142
4.3.6	STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (SEM)	143
4.4	CONCLUSION.....	146
CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.....		148
5.1	INTRODUCTION	148
5.2	RESULTS	148
5.2.1	DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE	149
5.2.1.1	<i>Gender.....</i>	<i>149</i>
5.2.1.2	<i>Age group.....</i>	<i>149</i>
5.2.1.3	<i>Home language.....</i>	<i>151</i>
5.2.1.4	<i>Marital status.....</i>	<i>151</i>
5.2.1.5	<i>Average travel group size.....</i>	<i>152</i>
5.2.1.6	<i>Number of people paid for.....</i>	<i>154</i>
5.2.1.7	<i>Province of residence.....</i>	<i>155</i>
5.2.1.8	<i>Country of residence.....</i>	<i>156</i>
5.2.1.9	<i>Age of first visit to Kruger National Park.....</i>	<i>157</i>
5.2.1.10	<i>Highest level of education.....</i>	<i>158</i>
5.2.1.11	<i>Annual gross income.....</i>	<i>159</i>
5.2.1.12	<i>Decision made to visit Kruger National Park.....</i>	<i>160</i>
5.2.1.13	<i>Mode of transport.....</i>	<i>161</i>
5.2.1.14	<i>Initiator of decision made to travel to the Kruger National Park.....</i>	<i>162</i>
5.2.1.15	<i>Children accompanying visitors to the Park.....</i>	<i>162</i>
5.2.1.16	<i>Average spending at the Park.....</i>	<i>163</i>

5.2.1.17	<i>Wildcard holders</i>	164
5.2.1.18	<i>Number of times that you visited the Park over the past three years as a day visitor and overnight visitor</i>	165
5.2.1.19	<i>Number of nights staying in the Kruger National Park</i>	166
5.2.1.20	<i>Information obtained about the Park</i>	167
5.3	RESULTS FROM THE FACTOR ANALYSES	168
5.3.1	COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTOR ANALYSIS.....	168
5.3.2	FACTOR ANALYSIS OF MOTIVES TO TRAVEL TO THE KRUGER NATIONAL PARK	174
5.4	RESULTS OF ANOVA ANALYSES	178
5.4.1	ANOVA RESULTS FOR COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS	178
5.4.1.1	<i>ANOVA results for competitive advantage factors</i>	178
5.4.1.2	<i>Discussion on the results of the ANOVA analysis of the motive factors</i>	184
5.5	T-TESTS RESULTS	191
5.5.1	T-TEST COMPARISON OF GENDER VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES	191
5.5.2	T-TEST COMPARISON OF CHILDREN ACCOMPANYING PARENTS TO THE PARK VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES	192
5.5.3	T-TEST COMPARISON OF A TOURIST AS A WILDCARD HOLDER VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES.....	193
5.5.4	T-TEST COMPARISON OF WEBSITE VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES	195
5.5.5	T-TEST COMPARISON OF SHOWS VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES	196
5.5.6	T-TEST COMPARISON OF FAMILY AND FRIENDS VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES	197
5.5.7	T-TEST COMPARISON OF RADIO VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES	198
5.5.8	T-TEST COMPARISON OF TELEVISION VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES	199
5.5.9	T-TEST COMPARISON OF MAGAZINE VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES.....	200
5.5.10	T-TEST COMPARISON OF SANPARKS VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES.....	201
5.5.11	T-TEST COMPARISON OF PREVIOUS VISITS VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES	202
5.5.12	T-TEST COMPARISON OF FACEBOOK VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES.....	203
5.5.13	T-TEST COMPARISON OF TWITTER VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES	204
5.5.14	T-TEST COMPARISON OF INTERNET BLOGS VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES	205
5.5.15	T-TEST COMPARISON OF MEMBER OF A CONSERVATION ORGANISATION VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES.....	206
5.5.16	T-TEST COMPARISON OF CHALETS AND CAMPERS VS. COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE FACTORS AND MOTIVES.....	207
5.6	STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL	208
5.6.1	RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION ANALYSIS	209
5.7	CONCLUSION	225

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	227
6.1 INTRODUCTION	227
6.1.1 PERSONAL JOURNEY OF COMPLETING THIS STUDY	228
6.2 CONTRIBUTION	230
6.2.1 LITERATURE CONTRIBUTION	230
6.2.2 PRACTICAL CONTRIBUTION	239
6.3 CONCLUSIONS	239
6.3.1 CONCLUSIONS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEWS ON PARK MANAGEMENT (CHAPTER 2).....	239
6.3.2 CONCLUSIONS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEWS ON COMPETITIVENESS (CHAPTER 3)	243
6.3.3 CONCLUSIONS WITH REGARD TO THE EMPIRICAL STUDY (CHAPTERS 4 & 5).....	248
6.3.3.1 <i>Profile of the respondents</i>	248
6.3.3.2 <i>Results from the factor analyses</i>	249
6.3.3.3 <i>Results of the ANOVAs and t-tests</i>	250
6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPLEMENTING THE COMPETITIVENESS MODEL IN THE KRUGER NATIONAL PARK.....	257
6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	272
 REFERENCES	 274
 ANNEXURES	 312
ANNEXURE A: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE	312
ANNEXURE B: MAP OF THE KRUGER NATIONAL PARK	325
ANNEXURE C: LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR	326

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

Table 1.1: Previous research on competitiveness in national parks..... 10
Table 1:2 Questionnaires completed by visitors at the Kruger National Park during December 2013 and January 2014..... 19

CHAPTER 2: AN OVERVIEW OF PARK MANAGEMENT

Table 2.1: Previous research on national parks..... 36

CHAPTER 3: AN ANALYSIS OF COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGES

Table 3.1: Definitions on competitiveness..... 83
Table 3.2: Definitions on competitive advantage..... 86
Table 3.3: Competitive advantage indicators for a destinations such as national parks 88
Table 3.4: Previous research regarding destination competitiveness..... 117

CHAPTER 4: A SYNOPSIS OF THE STUDY’S RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Table 4.1: Summary of quantitative research methodology 125

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Table 5.1: Average spending at the Park..... 163
Table 5.2: Number of times that you visited the Park over the past three years as a day visitor and overnight visitor 166
Table 5.3: Number of nights staying in the Park 167
Table 5.4: Information obtained about the Park 168
Table 5.5: Factors regarded as important for a competitive advantage for the Kruger National Park..... 169
Table 5.6: Factor analysis results of tourist motives 174
Table 5.7: ANOVA results for competitive advantage factors 181
Table 5.8: ANOVA results for motivational factors 187
Table: 5.9: Gender 191
Table: 5.11: Children accompanying parents to the Park..... 193
Table: 5.12: Tourist as a Wildcard holder 194
Table: 5.13: Website 195
Table: 5.14: Shows..... 196

Table: 5.15: Family and friends	197
Table: 5.16: Radio	198
Table: 5.17: Television	199
Table: 5.18: Magazine	200
Table: 5.19: SANParks	201
Table: 5.20: Previous visits.....	202
Table: 5.21: Facebook.....	204
Table: 5.22: Twitter.....	205
Table: 5.23: Internet blogs.....	206
Table: 5.24: Member of conservation organisation	207
Table: 5.25: Chalets and campers.....	208
Table 5.26: Correlation of competitive advantage factors and motivational factors	212
Table 5.27: Hypotheses tested in the SEM model	218
Table 5.28: The maximum likelihood estimates – regression weights of structural part of the model	219
Table 5.29: Models of correlations.....	220

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Table 6.1: Supply factors of national parks.....	235
Table 6.2: Profile of overnight visitors to the Kruger National Park (December 2013/January2014)	248
Table 6.3: Results from the factor analyses.....	249
Table 6.4: Summary of the hypotheses tested in the SEM analysis.....	256

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework for park management	6
--	---

CHAPTER 2: AN OVERVIEW OF PARK MANAGEMENT

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework for national park management.....	28
--	----

Figure 2.2: Categories of park management.....	63
--	----

Figure 2.3: Four pillars for fundamental ecotourism management	64
--	----

CHAPTER 3: AN ANALYSIS OF COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGES

Figure 3.1: Porter's five forces of competitiveness in the view of a national park	93
--	----

Figure 3.2: Tourism destination competitiveness model	109
---	-----

CHAPTER 4: A SYNOPSIS OF THE STUDY'S RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Figure 4.1: Response rate at the surveyed rest camps in the Kruger National Park	134
--	-----

Figure 4.2: Type of accommodation	134
---	-----

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Figure 5.1: Gender	149
--------------------------	-----

Figure 5.2: Age group.....	150
----------------------------	-----

Figure 5.3: Home language	151
---------------------------------	-----

Figure 5.4: Marital status	152
----------------------------------	-----

Figure 5.5: Travel group size	153
-------------------------------------	-----

Figure 5.6: Number of people paid for	154
---	-----

Figure 5.7: Province of residence	155
---	-----

Figure 5.8: Country of residence	157
--	-----

Figure 5.9: Age of first visit to Kruger National Park	158
--	-----

Figure 5.10: Highest level of education.....	158
--	-----

Figure 5.11: Annual gross income	160
--	-----

Figure 5.12: Decision made to visit Kruger National Park.....	161
---	-----

Figure 5.13: Mode of transport	161
--------------------------------------	-----

Figure 5.14: Initiator of decision made to travel to the Kruger National Park.....	162
--	-----

Figure 5.15: Children accompanying visitors to the Park	163
---	-----

Figure 5.16: Wildcard holders.....	164
Figure 5.17: SEM model confirming the motivational factors' influence on the competitive advantage factors of visitors to the Kruger National Park	217

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Figure 6.1: Competitiveness model for South African National Parks	232
Figure 6.2: Applying the competitiveness model to the Kruger National Park	258

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

The greatest pleasure in life, is doing the things people say we cannot do.

Walter Bagehot

1.1 INTRODUCTION

South African national parks have three main objectives to fulfil. These are to conserve a representative sample of the country's biodiversity; provide sufficient recreational activities for tourist to participate in and experience the natural environment; and to build relationships with the local communities to increase quality of life (Kruger, Saayman & Saayman, 2010:138; Saayman, Saayman & Ferreira, 2009:1; Saayman & Saayman, 2006:619). The 22 national parks in South African that is managed by South African National Parks (SANParks); like the majority of national parks across the globe which offer tourists exceptional wildlife experiences and picturesque landscapes (Saayman, Van der Merwe & Pienaar, 2009:108). National parks in South Africa are regarded as major tourist attractions and significant export earners which is a key function for the South African tourism industry.

Furthermore, national parks have a significant contribution to the South African Gross Domestic Product (GDP); exchange earnings and employment figures (Kruger, Saayman & Manners, 2012:12). National parks in South Africa are forced to generate their own income as the South African government funding for conservation purposes are becoming less of a priority and the allocation of money to South African National Parks (SANParks) are becoming lesser by the day, whilst the operations of SANParks are increasing (Du Plessis, Van Der Merwe & Saayman, 2012:2912). Therefore the national parks in South Africa have to find creative ways in which to increase revenue to create a favourable tourist destination and conserve the environment (Kruger *et al.*, 2012:12). South African National Parks' are under great pressure to remain profitable and sustainable with a decrease in government funding. However, a constant decrease in real terms of government funding escalated the need for an increase in tourist spending (Sebola, 2008:62; Wade & Eagles 2003:196).

Adding to the problem of decreased funding, is the strife competition among South African National Parks. SANParks currently manages 21 national parks which compete with the estimated 9 000 privately-owned game farms and the 171 provincial parks and local nature reserves within South Africa (Anon, 2013; KZN Wildlife, 2013; Limpopo Tourism and Parks, 2013; Eastern Cape Parks, 2013; Northern Cape Tourism Authority, 2013; SANParks, 2010; Van Der Merwe & Saayman, 2008:154; SANParks, 2008/9:19; Loon, Harper & Shorten., 2007:264; Bushell & Eagles, 2007:33; Aylward & Lutz, 2003:97; Braack, 2006:5; Eagles, 2004:133; Van Der Merwe & Saayman, 2004:42). In 1998, the flagship South African national park, the Kruger National Park (also the case study of this research), as well as Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife Parks, attracted more than 1 million tourists each despite the intense competition between nature-based tourism destinations in South Africa (Horner, Swarbrooke & Hallam, 2004:199). Added to the domestic competition that national parks is facing in the country, there is an estimated 3 386 national parks across the world. All of these national parks focus on developing park-specific attributes, products and services to sustain tourist numbers. This increases the pressure on national parks management to become more competitive in the nature-based tourism industry and to obtain a competitive advantage (Dwyer, Edwards, Mistills, Roman & Scott, 2009:63; Saayman, 2009:358).

Due to the constant increase of tourist demand for natural attractions and activities, it is important that national park management develops a park-specific competitive model (Jurdana, 2009:270). Thus, a wide range of unique tourism-related products and services should be offered to meet and excel the expectations and needs of tourists travelling to the Park (Peake, Innes & Dyer, 2009:107; Leberman & Holland, 2005:22). However, tourists travelling to national parks are purchasing experiences and not merely products. In this regard, tourists' behaviour and emotions whilst interacting with nature, local community or personnel determines its level of experience (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:73; Pedersen, 2002:24). Tourists are prepared to pay high prices in national parks, if the quality of services and products are of a high standard (Buckley, 2008:6; Komppula, 2006:137; Kuo, 2002:97).

The more competitive a national park becomes, the greater the improvement in services and products (Hu & Wall, 2005:622). This emphasises the necessity to understand the answer to “what tourists regard as aspects contributing to a competitive advantage”. The aim of this chapter is to present the background to the problem, explain the goals and objectives of the study and discuss the method of research that was applied.

1.2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The following section discusses park management, competitiveness within the nature-based industry, the difference between comparative and competitive advantage as well as previous research on the related topic.

1.2.1 Park management

The competitiveness of a tourism destination such as national parks is measured against the performance of multiple park functions. Therefore, the focus should be based on the three pillars of park management, namely general, ecotourism, and conservation management (Saayman, 2009: 358; Scott & Lodge, 1985:6). The focus of each pillar is linked and based on the park’s main policy of protecting and conserving the natural and cultural heritage of the park.

The development of new accommodation and tourist facilities in South African national parks such as the Kruger National Park clearly shows that management is in the process of rejuvenating its product and service offerings in the Park (Kaplan, 2013). The number of tourists visiting the parks on an annual basis will determine in which stage of the tourism lifecycle the parks are. Park management will however have to monitor and evaluate the stages of the product and services’ lifecycle. The lifecycle has four primary stages, namely introduction, growth, maturity and decline/rejuvenation (Page, 2011:227; Weaver & Lawton, 2006:306; Wood, 2004:150; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:530). An established park such as the Kruger National Park currently finds itself in the third stage and should, therefore, rejuvenate its products and services accordingly (Weaver & Lawton, 2006:306; Gartner, 1996:8).

Chen, Chen and Lee (2011:260) indicate that a tourism destination's specific, unique characteristics and attributes play the most important part in the development of a competitive advantage, which can be addressed in a competitiveness model. According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003:103), the local tourist behaviour and demand play a significant role in the competitive behaviour of tourism destinations, as the local tourist is much more educated and price-sensitive. Therefore, tourism destinations, such as national parks, should keep in mind that the higher the demands of tourists, the higher the chances that competitors will develop products and services that satisfy those needs (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:103).

Figure 1.1 provides an overview of park management which consists of internal and external factors which should be implemented, monitored and evaluated. Internal factors refer to aspects that park management can control. On the other hand, external factors include all aspects that park management has no control over. Both these factors affect the competitive advantage of the park (SANParks, 2014; Hsu, Tsai & Wu, 2009:290; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:68; Van Raaij, 1986:1). Nonetheless, park management should consider the external factors and incorporate them into the management function in order to develop the whole park as a competitive destination based on the changing demands of tourists (Hsu *et al.*, 2009:290; Kotler, Beerli & Martin, 2004:623; Kotler, Haider & Rein, 1993:75). National Parks should take into consideration the external factors as these factors could influence the choice of strategy, direction and actions (Neuland, 2010:173) of a national park. Furthermore, Thompson and Martin (2010:197) emphasises that certain environmental influences could lead to decision-making being influenced significantly on certain external forces. It is crucial that aspects such as reputation, information, intelligence, vision, financial assets, well-trained and skilled personnel are implemented within the national park, as this may have a positive effect on the park's internal performance (Poon, 2003:140; Buhalis, 2000:99; Mihalic, 2000:77). Competitive advantage factors could also be determined by the identification of risks as it forms part of the managerial function. Risk identification could increase the competitive advantage of the park (Shaw, Saayman & Saayman, 2012:191).

The implementation, constant monitoring and evaluation of the competitive advantage factors will then contribute to the successful positioning of the park to have the competitive advantage above its peers (Thompson & Martin, 2010:197; Wood, 2004:151; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:166;). Therefore, the attraction and natural resources are considered to be fundamental characteristics of the park which influences the competitive advantage of the park (Chen *et al.*, 2011:249). Ritchie and Crouch (2003:107-108) emphasise that satisfying the needs and expectations of tourists will improve any destination's competitive position.

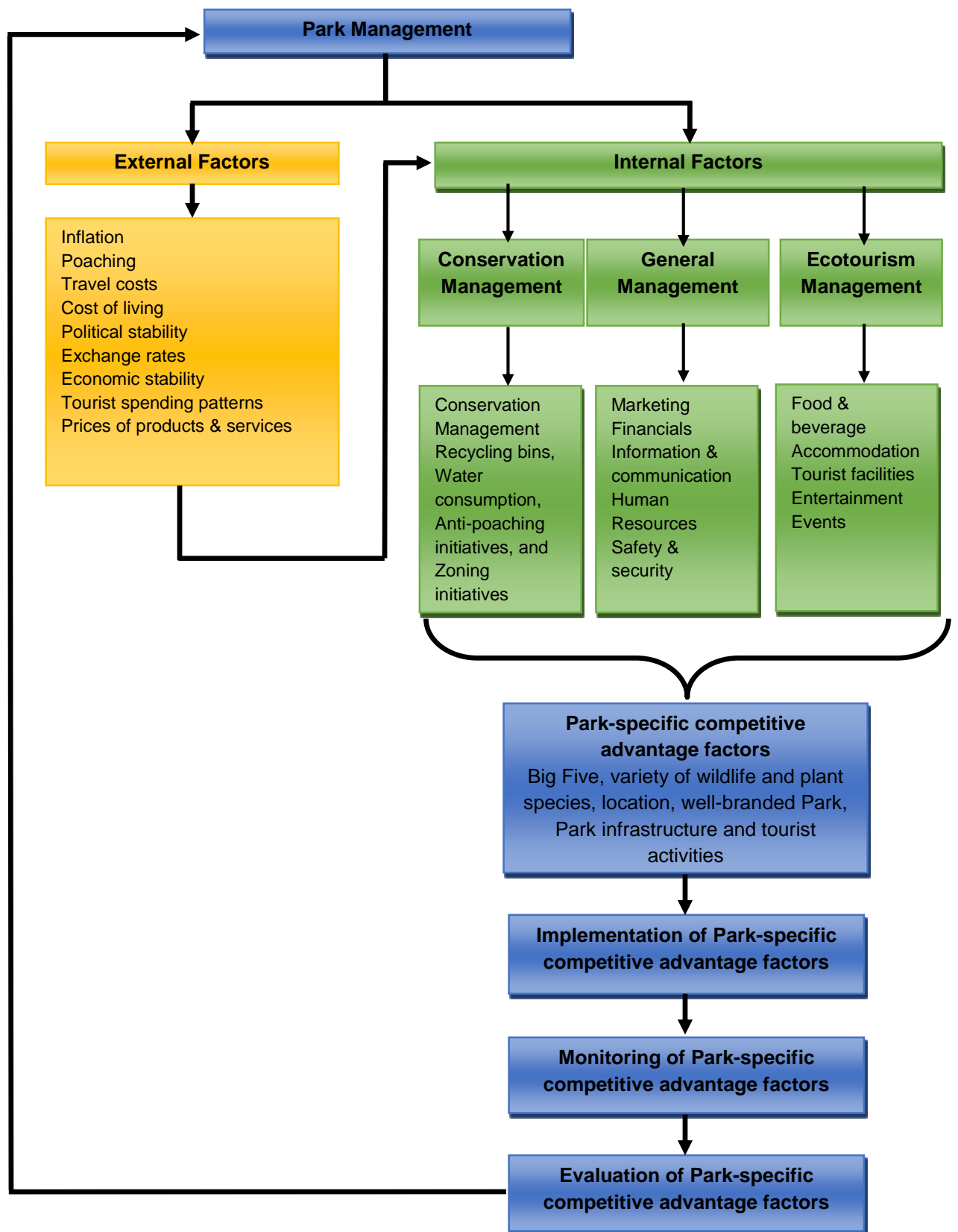


Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework for park management

Sources: SANParks (2013); Chen et al. (2011:250); Thompson and Martin (2010:136); Forsyth and Dwyer (2009:78); Hsu et al. (2009:290); Cracolici and Njikamp (2008:336); Mazanec, Wöber and Zins (2007:46); Poon (2003:140); Heath (2003:7); Ritchie and Crouch (2003:76); Dwyer, Forsyth and Rao (2002:40); Mihalic (2000:77); Hassan (2000:240); Buhalis (2000:98); Ma (1999:259&261); Van Raaij (1986:1).

The next section focuses on competitive advantage and its application within a national park.

1.2.2 Competitiveness

Porter (1985:1), who is known as the father of competitiveness within economics and business management, indicated that the focus of competitiveness is clearly on the development of superior products and services which will place an organisation above its competitors (Huggins & Izushi, 2011:5; Porter, 2008(b):xv; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:2). However, this can only be achieved once attractiveness, supporting infrastructure and long-term profitability become the main focus points of a given organisation (Porter, 1985:1). Competitiveness has been researched within various disciplines such as management, economics and marketing (Al-Masroori, 2006; Chen *et al.*, 2011; Dwyer & Kim, 2001). Based on the products and goods industries, competitiveness in the services industries is currently dominating the global economies. As a result, competitiveness within service industries are increasing and therefore management of tourism destinations should take note of this shift in order to remain competitive within the industry (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:18). A destination can only achieve competitiveness once the competitive advantage factors and comparative factors of the destination have been identified and incorporated into its development and improvement (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:25).

The first step in developing a model for competitiveness is to determine the competitive advantage factors. These are aspects that address the attractiveness of a destination, availability of supporting infra- and suprastructures and possibilities of future development that might increase the profitability of the destination and ensure its sustainability for future generations (Porter, 1985:1; 2008c:4). However, the destination competitiveness framework developed by Ritchie and Crouch (2003:66-76) shifted the focus to a service-delivery oriented industry by identifying six tourist-related determinants, which include qualifying determinants, destinations management, core resources and attractions as well as supporting factors and resources (Chen *et al.*, 2011:249).

Manzanec *et al.* (2007:46) as well as Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2) define a competitive tourist destination as a destination that has the ability to increase tourist expenditure, increase tourist numbers through a satisfactory memorable experience, increase profitability, ensure that both environment and cultural conservation takes place and, most importantly, ensure the sustainability of the destination for future generations. Since the introduction of competitiveness to the field of tourism, research on the topic has emerged and include the work by Chen *et al.* (2011:249); Dwyer, Livaic and Mellor (2003); Ritchie and Crouch (2003); Du Plessis (2002); Asch and Wolf (2001); Buhalis (2000); Dwyer and Kim (2001); Kozak (2001); Go and Groves (2000); Hassan (2000); Mihalic (2000) as well as Crouch and Ritchie (1994).

Armenski, Gomezelj, Djurdjev, Deri and Aleksandra (2011:19) and Grant (2008:205) explain that competitiveness occurs when two or more organisations target the same market segment, offer the same products and services, but one organisation shows a higher profit income than that of its competitor(s). Also, competitiveness can be regarded as presenting superior and unique products and/or services which the competitor cannot duplicate and which attract consumers to the same destination, product or service provider year after year (Armenski, *et al.*, 2011:19; Crouch, 2011:27; Thompson & Martin, 2010:785; Cracolici & Njikamp, 2008:336; Dwyer & Kim, 2003:369; Heath, 2003:7; Hitt, Ireland & Hoskisson, 2007:5; Hassan, 2000:240; Ma, 1999:259&261; Newall, 1992:94). In the instance of the national parks such as the Kruger National Park, competitiveness can only be achieved once the Park has obtained a competitive advantage and continues to maintain that advantage above its peers (Middleton, Fyall & Morgan, 2009:197; Dwyer & Kim, 2003:372). There is, however, a difference between competitive advantage and comparative advantage to be discussed in the next section.

1.2.3 Comparative advantage versus competitive advantage

It is important to understand the reasons for tourists travelling as well as tourists' specific needs and expectations while travelling. In many cases, the destination may be an incidental or central reason for travelling (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:19). The basic competitive advantage factors like natural and artificial resources have a great influence on demand conditions such as market type, seasonality, brand awareness and the preferences of the consumers (Navickas & Malakauskaite, 2009:38).

Therefore, with the focus on national parks, tourists travelling to a national park seek a complete destination experience, which includes accommodation and catering, transportation, attractions and entertainment, all of which most national parks offer (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:19).

In this sense, Ritchie and Crouch (2003:23) point out that competitive advantage is an organisation's ability to make use of the available comparative factors in such a way that the destination remains sustainable and profitable for the long-term. This, is therefore the reason for organisations to compare products and services, namely to determine whether or not the organisation still has a competitive advantage (Grant, 2008:367). Comparative advantage factors are therefore regarded as resources and factors that cannot be changed by any endogenous factor in the correspondent country's economic system (Hong, 2008:54). Typical comparative factors include human resources, physical resources, knowledge resources, capital resources, infrastructure and tourism supra-structure, historical and cultural resources, size of the economy as well as the growth and depletion of resources which tourists would make use of when travelling to a destination (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:20-22; Mihalic, 2000:77).

In the case of a national park, these factors might be used to sustain tourist numbers in order to obtain a competitive advantage as a tourism destination. However, a comparative advantage concerns the availability of natural resources at the destination. Thus, as national parks are established for the protection of biodiversity and natural heritage in a sustainable manner, comparative advantage is relevant (SANParks, 2014). If a national park combines its products and services with the aim of becoming more competitive, the implementation of a competitiveness model can determine the positioning process. This would involve considering factors such as cost effectiveness, technology improvements, consumer satisfaction, effective marketing, distribution and consumer management (Thompson & Martin, 2010:212).

The importance of national parks designing and developing a unique, park-specific competitiveness model cannot be over-stated. Such a model could ensure the sustaining of high tourist spending markets, lead to an increase in park revenue, ensure the retention of the park's market position by offering quality tourist facilities and ensure that the local community is uplifted.

The most important aspect, however, is the protection and conservation of the natural and cultural environment, which could be managed responsibly if the necessary funds are available (Chen *et al.*, 2011:250; Forsyth & Dwyer, 2009:78; Mazanec *et al.*, 2007:46; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:2; Dwyer *et al.*, 2002:40). Thus, park management will have to develop ways in which nature-based specific factors can be used to increase the competitive advantage among counterparts. This will include tangible and intangible components of a national park's various products and services (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 1996:276; Porter, 1985:1). Unfortunately, up to date, very little research has been done on competitiveness within nature-based tourism destinations like national parks or ways in which a competitive advantage can be obtained. This lack of research will be highlighted through the discussion on literature in the next section.

1.2.4 Previous research on competitiveness

Table 1.1 summarises previous research on competitiveness within the nature-based/ ecotourism industry.

Table 1.1: Previous research on competitiveness in national parks

Authors	Study title	Competitive aspects
Taplin (2012)	Competitive importance-performance analysis of an Australian wildlife park	1. Places to sit and rest; 2. Availability of toilets; 3. Quality food and beverages for sale; 4. Well-maintained facilities; 5. Cleanliness of premises; 6. Signposts for directions throughout the venue; 7. Information concerning attractions at the venue; 8. Knowledgeable staff; 9. Friendliness of staff; 10. Value for money; 11. Venue is good for the price paid; 12. Educational experiences; 13. Unique experiences; 14. Having a rest; 15. Spending time with friends/family; 16. Seeing wildlife/birds/plants; and 17. Enjoying nature.

Shirazi and Som (2011)	Destination management and relationship marketing: two major factors to achieve competitive advantage	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Infrastructure investments; 2. Strategic planning to market ties; 3. Maintaining resources; 4. Monitoring resource allocation; 5. Growth and development; 6. Operational performance effectiveness; and 7. Facilitating resources created.
Crouch (2010)	Destination competitiveness: an analysis of determinant attributes.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Core resources and attractors; 2. Supporting factors and resources; 3. Destination policy, planning and development; 4. Destination management; and 5. Qualifying and amplifying determinants.
Kozak, Baloglu and Bahar (2009)	Measuring destination competitiveness: multiple destinations versus multiple nationalities	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Availability of facilities and activities; 2. Cultural and natural attractiveness; 3. Quality of services; and 4. Quality of infrastructure.
Cracolici and Nijkamp (2008)	The attractiveness and competitiveness of tourist destinations: a study of Southern Italian regions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Information and tourist services; 2. Cultural events; 3. Quality and variety of products in the shops; 4. Hotels and other accommodation; 5. Level of prices and living costs; and 6. Safety.
Gomezelj and Mihalic (2008)	Destination competitiveness – applying different models, the case of Slovenia	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Inherited resource; 2. Created resources; 3. Supporting factors; 4. Destination management; 5. Situational conditions; and 6. Demand conditions.
Claver-Cortes, Molina-Azorin, and Pereira-Moliner (2007)	Competitiveness in mass tourism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tangible resource management strategy; 2. Improvement and hotel dimension strategy; 3. Specialisation and intangible resource management strategy, and 4. Distribution strategy.

Haarhoff (2007)	An analysis of the price competitiveness of South Africa as an international tourist destination	International tourists travelling to South Africa will spend most of their money on products or travel components such as international flights, accommodation, attractions and food and beverages. The study furthermore indicated that the products and services such as accommodation, air transport, and attractions are much more expensive than anticipated by international tourists. Five-star accommodation establishments were found to be too expensive and other establishments were perceived to offer affordable prices. The paid attractions visited, with the exception of the Kruger National Park, were all marked as fairly priced.
Enright & Newton (2004)	Tourism destination competitiveness: a quantitative approach	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Safety; 2. Cuisine; 3. Dedicated tourism attractions; 4. Visual appeal; 5. Well-known landmarks; 6. Nightlife; 7. Different culture; 8. Special events; 9. Interesting festivals; 10. Local way of life; 11. Interesting architecture; 12. Climate; 13. Notable history; 14. Museums and galleries; 15. Music and performances.
Du Plessis (2002)	Competitiveness of South Africa as a tourist destination	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Safety; 2. Quality of service; 3. Value for money; 4. Geographical features; 5. Attitude towards tourists; 6. Availability of information; 7. Uniqueness of local people's lives; and 8. Foreign exchange.

Table 1.1 indicates the numerous competitive factors which are important for a destination to obtain a competitive advantage. These include safety, destination management, information and supporting infrastructure. Cracolici and Nijkamp (2008); Enright and Newton (2004), as well as Du Plessis (2002) identify safety as an overlapping competitive factor, showcasing the importance of tourist safety at tourism destinations. Taplin (2012); Shirazi and Som (2011); Crouch (2010); Kozak *et al.* (2009); Gomezelj and Mihalic (2008) as well as Enright and Newton (2004) also identify supporting infrastructure or the availability of infrastructure as a very important factor. In a South African context, Du Plessis (2002) provided eight factors (which do not include wildlife or natural scenery) which influence the competitiveness of South Africa as a tourist destination (see Table 1.1). However, Du Plessis (2002:76) concluded that wildlife and scenery plays a significant role for South Africa as a competitive tourism destination based on the factors identified. Additionally Haarhoff (2007) indicated that international tourists perceive the pricing of attractions (with the exception of the Kruger National Park and accommodation that excludes five-star establishments) as competitive pricing structures which positions South Africa as a competitive market for international tourist.

It is however clear that no previous research was conducted on national parks showcasing the competitive advantage factors regarded as important by tourists for these nature-based tourism destinations. A destination has a specific set of competitive factors, all of which are determined by internal and external variables, which might also be the case for national parks such as the Kruger National Park. Although some of these factors may be distinct in terms of a specific destination, some might overlap indicating that certain competitive advantage factors are generic.

1.3. PROBLEM STATEMENT

In the past few decades, the tourism industry has become very competitive due to constant changes in tourist behaviour. Therefore, to remain competitive, it is important that the national park management develops park-specific models of competitiveness through the inclusion of competitive advantage factors. The following aspects illustrate the necessity of the proposed research:

- The identification of competitive advantage factors will impact the tourism destination's life cycle at the maturity stage as these factors will be used to rejuvenate national parks; current offerings and attend to tourists' needs, which will progress the park into a new growth stage and lead to higher levels of tourist satisfaction.
- Government funding is decreasing in real terms to national parks, forcing the parks to rely on tourist expenditure in order to remain competitive (Wade & Eagles 2003:196).
- Stiff competition among nature-based tourism destinations affects the tourist numbers to destinations and it is therefore imperative that national parks increase its tourist market share to ensure that the park becomes more competitive (Navickas & Malakauskaite, 2009:37; Van Der Merwe & Saayman, 2008:154; Bushell & Eagles, 2007:33; Braack, 2006:5; Van Der Merwe & Saayman, 2004:42; Eagles, 2004:133; Aylward & Lutz, 2003:97).
- Very little research has been conducted regarding the competitiveness of nature-based tourism destinations (from the tourist's perspective) such as national parks.
- The ever-changing tourist trends have an enormous impact on the tourism industry and it is of utmost importance that tourism destinations, including national parks, become aware of the changing motivations of tourists (Hassan, 2000:204). These motivations and trends influence the competitiveness of the destination and the identification of the competitive advantage factors.
- The competitiveness of any given tourism destination is dependent on two aspects, namely market-specific tourism factors and the management factors (Enright & Newton, 2004). However, the factors relevant for a competitiveness model for an ecotourism destination such as national parks are currently unknown.

The research questions for this study are as follows:

- Which factors within a South African national park can be regarded as competitive advantage factors from a tourist point of view?
- How do the tourist's motivational, socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics influence the competitive advantage factors as identified by the tourists?
- Is there a link or relationship between tourists' motives to travel to a national park and the factors that tourists perceive important for a competitive advantage?

Therefore the main aim of this research is **to develop a competitiveness model for South African national parks.**

1.4. GOAL OF THE STUDY

The overall goal of this study is to develop and propose a competitiveness model for South African national parks. This is done by using a case study of the Kruger National Park to obtain the relevant results.

1.4.1 Goal

The specific goal of this study is to develop an effective competitiveness model for South African national parks.

1.4.2 Objectives

The achievement of the goal relies on realising the objectives below.

Objective 1

To conduct a literature review on national parks and park management.

Objective 2

To conduct a literature review on competitiveness; competitive advantages and comparative advantages of a tourism destination.

Objective 3

To discuss the research methodology and describe the analyses that were used to obtain the results.

Objective 4

To identify the competitive advantage factors for the Kruger National Park by means of an empirical survey.

Objective 5

To draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding a model of competitiveness for South African national parks based on the results obtained from the case study.

1.5. METHOD OF RESEARCH

The method of research is divided into the following sections: literature study and empirical survey. These sections will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

1.5.1 Literature study

The following key words were used for the literature reviews: *competitiveness, competitive advantage, comparative advantages; nature-based tourism, national parks, destination management and park management*. Data bases such as EBSCOHost, Science Direct, ProQuest, Emerald and Google Scholar was used to search for relevant scientific and academic based literature on the topic. Furthermore, journal articles, books and the internet were used to search for any recent published tourism-related information which could be consulted. Library services were used to assist in finding any relevant information on this topic and to assist in the search for relevant literature. This study made further use of an empirical survey which will be discussed in the next section and therefore incorporates both primary and secondary data.

1.5.2 Empirical survey

This section discusses in detail the research design and the sampling method that was used. It also explains the way in which the questionnaire was structured, how the survey was conducted and how the data analysis was performed.

1.5.2.1 Research design and method of collecting data

Research design refers to a master plan which clearly stipulates the methods and processes to be used in order to collect and analyse the necessary data that respondents provide (Zikmund, Badin, Karr & Griffin, 2010:66). Quantitative research is a systematic process in which the use of numerical data from a selected group of the population, such as national parks, are used and the findings are applied to the whole population within the national park (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:657; Maree & Petersen, 2008:145). Quantitative research can be used to determine the motivation driving the behaviour of consumers, as well as discover the competitors' weaknesses in order to improve on it (Maree & Pietersen, 2008:145; Elliot & Percy, 2007:109; Struwig & Stead, 2001:113).

For the purpose of this study, exploratory research was conducted. As there is little knowledge of competitiveness within a nature-based tourism destination for example national parks. Exploratory research is conducted when little is known about a specific topic or aspect and the research develops initial ideas and focuses on that specific problem (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:54; Struwig & Steed, 2001:7). Furthermore, explorative research aims at identifying important variables which are specific to that area and formulates new hypotheses for future investigation into that specific area (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:652; Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:166).

A case study is most often used in cases where management experience some crises and through in-depth analysis a discussion can be made based on the results of the case study (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:140; Malhotra, 2007:41). The use of a case study approach shows the distinct characteristics of a particular case and taking all its complexities into consideration (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:140; Welman *et al.*, 2005:25). It furthermore, only pertains to a limited number of unit of analysis that is studied intensively for that specific case. The extraction of information from the organisation, newspapers; brochures; annual reports; magazines and observations or surveys, in this case a survey at the Kruger National Park, provides multiple views of the single organisation, (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:140; Malhotra, 2007:41; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:217). The advantage of case studies is that a well-developed case study could provide a source of new hypotheses and constructs to improve the research (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:140; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:142). However, the term case study, does not indicate that a specific technique is applied to the research (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:140; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:143; Welman *et al.*, 2005:193).

The Kruger National Park is one of the world's most renowned national parks and the third oldest national park in the world. It covers a staggering 1 962 362 hectares (ha) of land which is the size of the state New Jersey (Dieke, 2001:99; Honey, 1999:339). Situated in the north-eastern part of South Africa at the borders of Mozambique and Zimbabwe, the Kruger National Park is known as the flagship park of the governing body for South African National Parks (SANParks). A variety of species inhabits the Kruger National Park (336 tree, 49 fish, 34 amphibian, 114 reptile, 507 bird and 147 mammal species) (Van Der Merwe & Saayman, 2008:154; Bushell & Eagles, 2007:33; Aylward & Lutz, 2003:97).

For the past 116 years the Kruger National Park offered tourists this variety of species (SANParks, 2014; Loon *et al.*, 2007:264; Braack, 2006:5) and therefore its main income was and still is through tourism-related activities. Based on the latter, the Kruger National Park was used as a case study to develop a competitiveness model for South African National Park.

1.5.2.2 Sampling

A quantitative research approach was followed which is defined as being definite based on the response of large groups that are representative of the overall population that has been targeted. It also applies fairly structured procedures for the collection of data. Quantitative research is conducted in order to determine the components that influence the behaviour of consumers when purchasing products or services and how competitors might differ from each other whilst offering the same product or service. Furthermore, quantitative data assists organisations with getting a profile of the general consumer using the products and services offered (Maree & Pietersen, 2008:145; Elliot & Percy, 2007:109; Struwig & Stead, 2001:113). For this study, a probability sampling method was applied where all overnight tourists within the rest camps of the Kruger National Park during the period 26 December 2013 to 4 January 2014 were selected as participants for the survey. According to Smith (2010:89); Zikmund *et al.* (2010:656); Welman *et al.* (2005:56) and Struwig and Stead (2001:112); probability sampling is the process in which any member (in this case tourist) of the specifically selected population known, has a non-zero probability of being selected to participate in the research.

This was a joint survey of the Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society (TREES) at the North-West University (NWU), Potchefstroom Campus and South African National Parks (SANParks). Only overnight visitors that were classified as tourist were asked to complete the questionnaire. For the purpose of this study, a tourist is defined as a person that travels to a destination, provides economic input to the local area other than where the person resides and works. Also, a tourist is someone that travels voluntarily to destinations or attractions away from his/her normal home for longer than 24 hours and less than a year (Page & Connell, 2014:10; Keyser, 2009:62; Saayman, 2006:5). Thus, the further reference to visitors or respondents in this study implies tourists.

The survey was conducted in the following rest camps: Olifants; Skukuza; Lower Sabie and Berg-en-Dal to determine the tourists views on the competitive advantage factors and motivational factors that influence tourist behaviour and could contribute to the Kruger National Park achieving competitiveness.

Table 1:2 Questionnaires completed by visitors at the Kruger National Park during December 2013 and January 2014

Rest Camps	December 2013 & January 2014		
	Chalets	Campers	Total
Olifants	74	n/a	74
Skukuza	154	60	213
Lower Sabie	69	29	98
Berg-and-Dal	26	25	51
Grand Total			436

Source: Scholtz, Du Plessis and Saayman (2014:4)

As shown in Table 1.2, a total of 436 questionnaires were completed at the Park during the survey period at the various listed rest camps. A total of 74 questionnaires were collected from respondents residing in chalets at the Olifants Camp, while at the main rest camp, Skukuza, a total of 213 questionnaires were gathered (60 of the 213 respondents resided at the camping facility). At Lower Sabie a total 98 respondents completed the questionnaire whereof 29 were at the camping facility and Berg-and-Dal presented a total of 51 completed questionnaires (whereof 25 were at the camping site). The Olifants rest camp does not have camping facilities and therefore only respondents from chalets completed the questionnaire. The survey made use of fieldworkers that distributed, explained and collected the questionnaire in the four rest camps during the evenings. Before the fieldworkers went out to distribute and execute the questionnaire survey, the fieldworkers were all comprehensively briefed to ensure that they understood the aim of the research (Struwig & Stead, 2001:120). Data obtained from the survey had a three-fold aim, namely to determine the profile of Kruger National Park tourists, to determine the competitive advantage factors for the Kruger National Park and thirdly to identify the motives for tourists travelling to the park.

Only one questionnaire was handed out per travelling group, which had an impact on the sampling size of the population. The total population was divided by the average group travel size which was 3.8 people per travel group and resulted in 305 584 tourist travelling groups (Scholtz *et al.*, 2014:14). In order to determine the correct sample size for the Kruger National Park, the following formula, designed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970:607), was used:

$$s = X^2NP(1 - P) \div d^2(N - 1) + X^2P(1 - P)$$

In the formula of Krejcie and Morgan (1970:607), *s* indicated the required sample. The desired confidence level (3,841) was represented by X^2 in the table value of a chi-square test for one degree of freedom. The population size was represented by *N* with *P* being the population proportion (.50), and *d* indicated the degree of accuracy, which in actual fact indicated the confidence level at a proportion of (.05). Krejcie and Morgan (1970:607) indicated that if a population of 1 000 000 was used, the required sample size would be calculated at 384 questionnaires.

According to the formula designed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970:607), a population (*N*) of 305 584 tourists to the Kruger National Park, with a 95% confidence level and 5% sampling error [*d* is expressed as (0.05)] resulted in a sample of 436 completed questionnaires to be collected. The number of completed questionnaires therefore encompasses the required number of questionnaires according to the requirement of Krejcie and Morgan (1970).

1.5.2.3 Structuring of the questionnaire

The researcher, in collaboration with TREES at the NWU Potchefstroom Campus, and South African National Parks, designed a structured questionnaire based on previous research regarding competitiveness in the tourism industry. The questionnaire consisted of six main sections that had open, close-ended and Likert scale type questions (see Annexure A). The questionnaire was designed to be self-administered.

The first section, Section A, encapsulated all demographic related questions such as age, home language, gender, income, province and country of residence, number of people in travelling group and when the decision was made to visit the park. This section ensured confidentiality as respondents could not be traced in any way for no personal information was provided.

Section B focused on the tourist's travel behaviour towards the Park. Questions such as reasons for travelling, previous parks visited, favourite holiday destination and if the tourist will return to the Park were included in this section. These questions provided information that was used to determine the pull factors for tourists to the Park as well as what influence the tourists travel behaviour had on the Park's competitive advantage factors. The questions asked in this section was based on research conducted by Kruger and Saayman (2010); Saayman and Saayman (2008); Saayman and Van Der Merwe (2007); Kim, Borges and Chon (2006); and Tao, Eagles and Smith (2004).

The third section of the questionnaire, Section C included a five-point Likert scale measuring the Kruger National Park's possible competitive advantage variables. Aspects such as Park-specific attributes, variety of products and services, conservation methods, greener management, service delivery, quality products and management were addressed. These questions were based on research from Taplin (2012); Shirazi and Som (2011); Crouch (2010); Kozak *et al.* (2009); Cracolici and Nijkamp (2008); Gomezelj and Mihalic (2008); Claver-Cortes *et al.* (2007); Enright and Newton (2004); Ritchie and Crouch (2003); and Du Plessis (2002).

The fourth section of the questionnaire, Section D measured the memorable experience due to travelling to the Kruger National Park. Section E focused on the importance of being able to see the Big Five. Although these sections were included in the questionnaire upon request from the park managers, it was not used for the purpose of this study.

The sixth section of the questionnaire, Section F, measured the motivational factors that tourist to the Kruger National Park might have regarded as important motives for travelling to the Park. The questions addressed the spiritual experience the Park offers, the all-inclusiveness of the destination; the memorable experience the Park offers as well as its contribution to the tourist's wellbeing.

These questions were based on the research of Scholtz *et al.* (2014:2); Saayman and Saayman (2009:5); Kruger and Saayman (2009:99); Van der Merwe and Saayman (2008:158); Luo and Deng (2007:399); Lee and Sparks (2007:506); Kim, Bodesges and Chon (2006); Wilkerson (2003:50).

1.5.2.4 Data analysis

The collected data was captured in Microsoft Excel and the statistical analyses was done with SPSS (SPSS Inc., 2012). The statistical services at the North-West University assisted with all the statistical analyses and processes in order to provide proper feedback and detailed information on the gathered responses. Each analysis is discussed in detail in Chapter 4. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the tourist's demographical and behavioural characteristics through the use of SPSS. According to Malhotra, Baalbaki and Bechwati (2013:108) descriptive statistics identifies and discusses the profile and specific characteristics of the sample population. For the descriptive statistics only sections A and B of the questionnaire was used. Two factor analyses were performed to determine the competitive advantage factors (Section C) as the tourist travelling to the Kruger National Park has perceived it. Then, a motivational factor analysis (Section F) was applied to determine the most important motives for the tourist to travel to the Kruger National Park. The reason for applying the factor analysis, is that it groups the various variables together in a manageable way (Bradley, 2013:321; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:897; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:593; Pietersen & Maree, 2008:222; Malhotra, 2007:609; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:657; Tustin, 2005:668).

Furthermore, the factors that were identified in the factor analyses were used in an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine the differences between the competitive advantage factors (Section C) and motivational factors (Section F) as well as the demographic (Section A) and behavioural characteristics (Section B) of the tourist that travelled to the Kruger National Park. The ANOVA calculates the variance between groups to determine the extent to which the independent variables were influenced (Creswell, 2014:178; Brace, Kemp & Snelgar, 2013:194; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:521; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:454; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:454; Pallant, 2007:186; Cohen, 1969:267). In order to determine if there were any significant differences among the group factors, respectively competitive advantage and motivation, Tukey's Honestly Significant Different test (HSD) was used (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:485; Pallant, 2007:174–175; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:435-436;).

Due to the way in which the research was conducted within a specific population and timeline the independent sample in addition had to be tested through the use of a *t*-test to determine any differences among the continuous variables and effect sizes (Brace *et al.*, 2013:119; Malhotra, 2007:478). The *t*-tests determined the statistical significance between competitive advantage factors and motivational factors based on the demographic and behavioural characteristics of tourist visiting the Kruger National Park. These differences were all determined through the identification of effect sizes between the factors. Effect sizes determine the significant differences between two variables. A small effect size would have a value of between 0.2 – 0.4, a medium effect size would have a value between 0.5 – 0.8 while any effect size that is larger than 0.8 would be categorised as a large effect size (Brace *et al.*, 2013:125; Pallant, 2007:175; Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008:328; Dancey & Reidy, 2004:211;Cohen, 1969:277-279).

A correlation matrix was used to explain the linear relationship between two variables. However, this does not mean that the one variable is not responsible for causing the other variable (Malhotra, 2007:536; Pallant, 2007:112&115). The competitive advantage and motivational factors were tabulated through the use of Spearman's (ρ) non-parametric technique (Pallant, 2007:255) and this was also done as a first step to the Structural Equation Model (SEM).

The latter was confirmed through the analyses of a SEM. Due to the SEM not being part of the original research design, the SEM was used as an exploratory approach to the research methodology against an analysis of structural theory bearing on some phenomenon which takes into account two important aspects of which the first is the variables of the study being represented by a series of structural equations. The second aspect is that structural relations could be built into a model to have a clear conceptual representation of the theory that is studied (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:710; Byrne, 2010:3; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010:653-678). Therefore the SEM confirmed that there are positive relationships between the competitive advantage factors, motivational factors and tourist behaviour towards the Kruger National Park.

1.6. DEFINING THE CONCEPTS

The following concepts are used throughout the study and therefore need some clarification:

1.6.1 Competitiveness

Ritchie and Crouch (2003:12) explain competitiveness as the ability to strive and succeed in the development and delivery of superior product and service quality. Competitiveness is regarded as the ability of a tourism destination to create and integrate superior products and services in a sustainable manner whilst satisfying the expectations and needs of tourists who travel to a destination (Hassan, 2000:239). In order for any tourism destination to become a competitive destination, the management of additional values and resources should be executed (Armenski *et al.*, 2011:19; Gomezelj & Mihalic, 2008:294). Competitive products and services ensure that superior product quality is presented and managed to satisfy the needs of tourists (Passemaid & Kleiner, 2000:112). It is important for tourism destinations to address and compare products and services with competitors in order to determine whether the destination has a competitive advantage (Armenski *et al.*, 2011:19).

1.6.2 Competitive advantage

A competitive advantage is only achieved once the destination has gained a competitive position over its peers. This means that the unique products and services offered at the destination increase tourist numbers and raise the profit share of the destination (Huggins & Izushi, 2011:5; Gomezelj & Mihalic, 2008:294; Dwyer & Kim, 2003:371; Porter, 1985:1). According to Grant (2008:205) and Ritchie and Crouch (2003:19) competitive advantage is when two or more organisations target the same market, however one organisation has a competitive advantage over the other due to its higher profit income.

1.6.3 Comparative advantage

Ritchie and Crouch (2003:19) indicate that “comparative advantage refers to the differences that exist in the endowment of the factors of production”. These endowments include both the natural and human-created resources that are available to the destination. Porter (1985:312&318) argues that comparative advantage is taking into consideration those aspects that determines the location of the organisation in order to be more cost-effective and profitable at the end of the day.

1.6.4 Nature-based tourism

Nature-based tourism is regarded as a compilation of wilderness travel, car camping, adventure travel and ecotourism (Van Der Merwe, 2009:221; Eagles & McCool, 2002:2). Goeldner and Ritchie (2006:292) indicate that there is an appeal among tourists to visit nature-based tourism destinations such as national parks because it offers tourists the best possible nature-based experience (Geldenhuys, 2009:7-8; Buckley, 2008:4; Honey, 1999:6). National parks form part of the ecotourism sector of the nature-based tourism industry due to the variety, location and way in which tourist activities are being offered. National parks have an extremely strong focus on ecotourism (Eagles, 2004:43). National parks are therefore ecotourism tourism destinations.

1.6.5 National Parks

National parks can be defined as natural landscape or water sanctuaries which is cordoned off for conservation purposes of the specific area by the national government. However, these areas are accessible by the public through the implementation of tourist carrying capacity numbers to minimise the human impact on the environment. Furthermore, the exploitation of wildlife or natural resources are strictly prohibited and managed by the park (Oxford Dictionary, 2014). The tourist natural experience are being increased through the implementation of activities within the natural setting and can range from extreme activities such as abseiling, scuba diving and hiking, to more relaxed activities such as game drives and bird watching (Wearing & Niel, 2009:7; Weaver, 2001:73).

1.6.6 Kruger National Park

Established in 1926, the Kruger National Park is one of the oldest national parks in the world, covering more than 1 962 362 ha of conservation land which is the size of New Jersey. The Kruger National Park is situated in the provinces of Mpumalanga and Limpopo and borders with Mozambique in the east and Zimbabwe in the north. The Kruger National Park is divided into the northern and southern region in which the park has about 13 rest camps in the park, five bush camps, two bush lodges, two overnight hides and nine luxury lodges. Furthermore, the Kruger National Park offers tourists a wide variety of activities and due to its proper infrastructure it often leads to tourists experiencing it as a tranquil, tasteful, up-scale theme park (SANParks, 2014; Loon *et al.*, 2007:264; Braack, 2006:5; Honey, 1999:339).

1.7. PRELIMINARY CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter one discusses the problem statement, background to the study, the goals and objectives as well as the methodology applied in this study. Then the definition of concepts follows that were used throughout the dissertation. Thus, Chapter 1 orientates the reader through an overview of the problem under investigation.

Chapter 2 consists of a literature analysis on the management of parks in general. This chapter discusses the importance of national parks within South Africa as well as the importance of a park management structure within a national park. It also elaborates on the three categories of park management and how it can be used to achieve a competitive advantage.

Chapter 3 contains the literature review in which competitiveness is analysed. In this chapter the concepts of competitiveness, competitive advantage and comparative advantage are explained in detail as well as the theory that supports competitiveness from a tourism perspective. It also indicates how this theory could be applied specifically for national parks. Furthermore, the chapter discusses the importance of a competitive advantage for a destination within a certain sector.

Chapter 4 contains information regarding the research methodology that was applied to analyse the captured data. It also gives an in-depth discussion on the various statistical analyses that were used to analyse and interpret the collected data.

Chapter 5 consists of the results that were obtained from the statistical analyses. It discusses the profile of tourist travelling to the Kruger National Park, two factor analyses respectively focusing on the competitive advantage factors and motivational factors, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and *t*-test results; an explanation on the correlations between the identified factors as well as the results from the Structural Equation Model (SEM).

Chapter 6 comprises conclusions and recommendations of the research and proposes a model for competitiveness for South African national parks. This model is furthermore practically applied to the Kruger National Park based on the research conducted.

CHAPTER 2: AN OVERVIEW OF PARK MANAGEMENT

Coming together is a beginning; keeping together is progress; working together is success.

Henry Ford

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Due to the increase in urbanisation and globalisation, pressure on the natural environment is increasing at a rapid pace. The need evolved to protect the natural and cultural environment and thus national parks or protected areas were established (Arbatzis & Grigoroudis, 2010:163; Wearing & Niel, 2009:63; Zeppel, 2009:272; Frost & Hall, 2009:76; Honey 2008:391; Goodwin, 1996:284). Across the globe tourists became more aware of national parks. This awareness resulted in parks turning into iconic tourism destinations (Boyd, 2004:473) offering tourists the chance to view a variety of fauna and flora species. Furthermore, national parks are known as the fastest growing tourism product within nature-based tourism due to a huge demand in tourist recreation and environmental attributes hosted in protected areas (Honey, 2008:6; Bushell & Eagles, 2007:332; Saarinen, 2005:42; Hall & Boyd, 2005:3; Eagles & McCool, 2002:232; Leung, Marion & Farrell, 2001:21). The increasing number of tourists to national parks and protected areas has become a vital concern for management with regards to carrying capacity (Balmford, Beresford, Green, Naidoo, Walpole & Manica, 2009:1; Said, Jaddil & Ayob, 2009:74; Weaver, 2001:73). If management fails to attend to the carrying capacity, tourists may cause the deterioration of the natural area. Nonetheless, tourism provides national parks an aesthetic and monetary value, as well as the economic means to assist with the conservation and sustainability purposes for future developments within national parks (Frost & Hall, 2009:49).

National parks can be associated with nature-based tourism as well as ecotourism (Weaver, 2001:73). Eagles (2002:133) explains that as national parks offers tourism infrastructure and ensure the conservation of cultural and natural attributes in the park, it is a symbol of the natural environment which can be associated with nature-based tourism. Therefore, in order to keep these natural areas sustainable the aim of national parks should be to implement management strategies (Edgell, 2006:93) that focus on sustainability as well as obtaining and maintaining a competitive advantage. This is crucial for the existence of national parks.

Currently, the private sector has increased its position in the owning and managing of nature-based tourism destinations, such as game reserves. This leads to increased competition among the private and public sector (Saayman, 2009:347). However, before the factors that may contribute to the competitive advantage of national parks could be assessed, national parks should first be explored in a nature-based and ecotourism context. Thus, this chapter provides an overview of national parks with specific emphasis on the management of these tourism products. For this purpose the conceptual framework, as illustrated in Figure 2.1, serves as the guideline for this chapter and summarises each of the concepts which will be discussed.

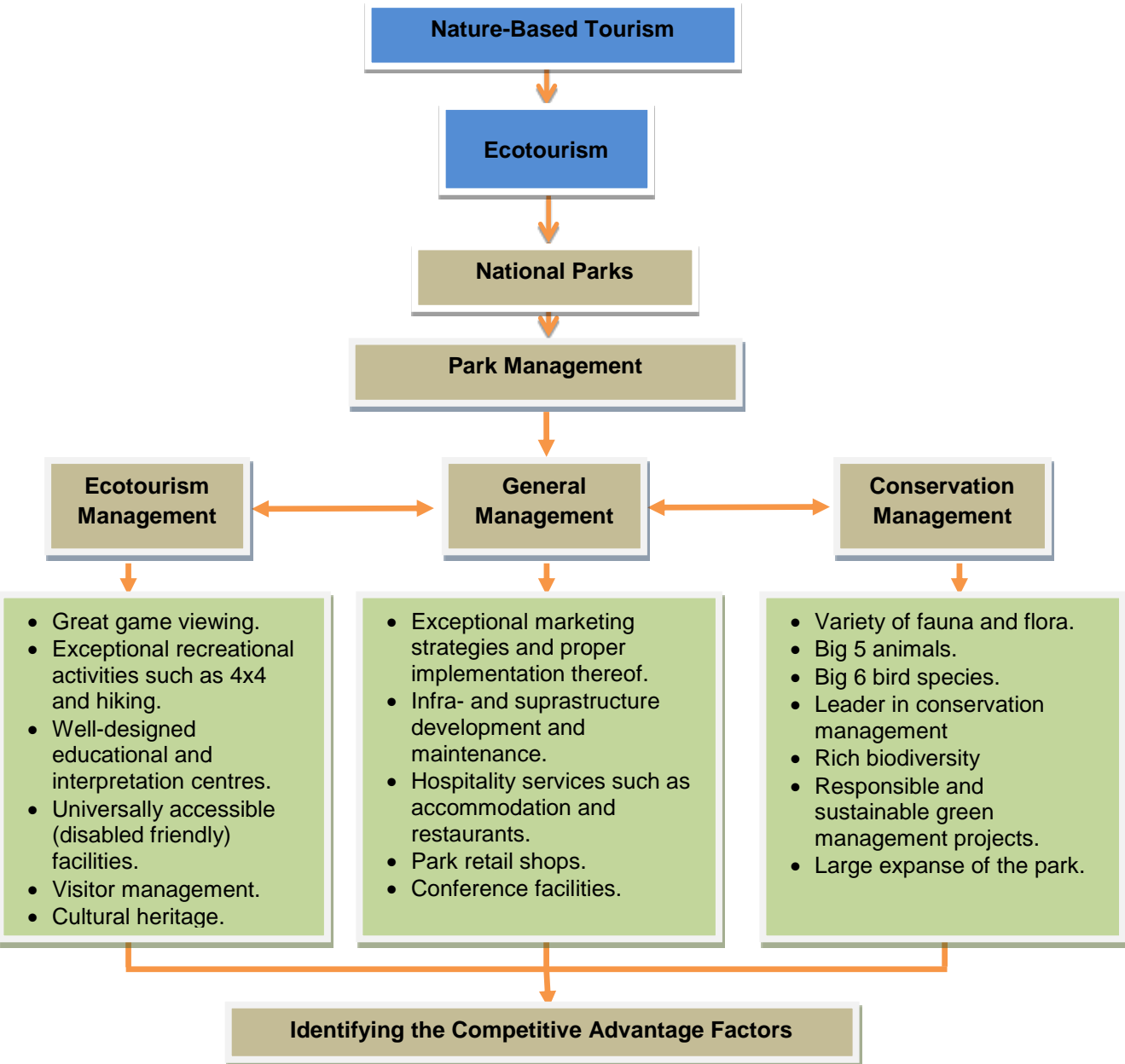


Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework for national park management
 Source: Engelbrecht (2011:88); Saayman, (2009:358); Eagles (2004:2) and Page and Dowling, (2002:23).

Figure 2.1 highlights that national parks need to increase its level of competitiveness in the nature-based tourism sector due to the extensive growth within the sector currently (Honey 2008:391; Wearing & Niel, 2009:63). However, competitiveness can only be obtained through the collaboration between the three park management categories (Saayman, 2009:358). Each of these categories should identify aspects from the tourist perspective that is important and relevant to its focus and would assist the park in obtaining a competitive advantage within the nature-based tourism sector. Therefore the remainder of this chapter provides an in-depth discussion on each of the components illustrated in Figure 2.1.

2.2 NATURE-BASED TOURISM

Nature-based tourism has shown significant growth over the past few decades. It is also viewed as the biggest tourism sector with a large variety of natural and cultural attributes needed for tourist recreation and satisfaction (Honey, 2008:6; Bushell & Eagles, 2007:332; Hall & Boyd, 2005:3; Saarinen, 2005:42; Frauman & Norman, 2004:381; Eagles & McCool, 2002:232; Leung *et al.*, 2001:21). According to Eagles (2004:2) nature-based tourism is divided into four categories, namely adventure tourism, wilderness tourism, car camping and ecotourism. Each of these categories offers the tourist a unique experience. Adventure tourism is based on the personal accomplishments that the tourist wants to achieve through hazardous activities (Van Der Merwe, 2009:232; Swarbrooke, Beard, Leckie & Pomfret, 2003:7). Honey (1999:6) and Van Der Merwe (2009:225) add that adventure tourism is nature tourism with a bit of risk involvement and requires some physical skills and endurance. Wilderness tourism is based on tourists travelling to natural areas where the human impact is minimal and most of the time no human activity has yet been recorded. Car camping is a much safer option for tourist travelling in family groups (Van Der Merwe, 2009:232). Ecotourism is the only segment which involves the discovery of new natural settings and taking the time to learn more about the natural and cultural environments of the specific area. These unique offerings of national parks construct parks as a nature-based tourism product with a strong focus on ecotourism (Eagles, 2004:43). In agreement, Buckley (2008:4) indicates that nature-based tourism is a large sector of which ecotourism forms a pillar.

Ecotourism is not only identified by its recreational aspects but also by the benefits it provides to the local community and conservation (Geldenhuys, 2009:7-8; Honey, 1999:6). Thus, national parks are categorised into the ecotourism section of nature-based tourism.

2.3 ECOTOURISM

Ecotourism is integrated into nature-based tourism but can be differentiated through the manner in which sustainable management is implemented. However, ecotourism is perceived as a form of alternative tourism that focuses on unspoilt natural environment characteristics and promotes a non-consumptive approach to tourism (Weaver, 2001:104). Ecotourism can be distinguished through the following characteristics, namely the focus on a specific type of product and service only offered to a certain market, secondly being a destination with an educational and/or interpretational component in the service and product offering, thirdly it is a product that involves the local community in tourism activities, fourthly it offers a form of interaction between the tourists visiting the national park and finally the wildlife experience satisfies the expectations of tourists (Page & Dowling, 2002:23; Geldenhuys, 2009:15; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006:464). It is important to know that the success of ecotourism is based on the quality of the natural environment and sustainable management of the natural resources (Boyd & Butler, 1996:558). All of this plays a vital role in the entire framework within which ecotourism evolves.

Ceballos-Lascurain (1990:2) was one of the first researchers to define ecotourism and is regarded as the father of ecotourism. Later, various other authors added to the definition of ecotourism and indicated that it is the promotion of responsible tourism in unspoilt natural settings, that it provides tourists with the opportunity to learn more of the environment and is educated about the local culture and natural heritage through means of interactive activities. Ecotourism also depends largely on the balancing of the economy and the ecology. It is to ensure that there is sustainable development through the non-consumptive usage of the natural and cultural environment and that conservation efforts are enhanced through the economic contributions of the tourists visiting the destination (Geldenhuys, 2009:5; Fennell, 2008:43; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1990:2; Allcock, Jones, Lane & Grant, 1994:17; Tickell, 1994:ix; Valentine, 1992; Scale, Grifone & Usher, 1992:14).

Verma (2008:145) summarised ecotourism as a form of tourism which can only take place in the natural environment, contributes to the species and habitat through contributions made by the tourists to the local community in order to value the natural attributes and to protect the wildlife and natural setting. Value can be added to the experience through the expansion of the parks conservation area as well as protecting the park's rich cultural heritage for tourists. National parks reflect the pride and identity of a country and its people, hosting cultural, natural and spiritual values. Developing countries, especially those in Africa, value the concept of ecotourism due to the benefits it has on a socio-economic level. This specifically has led to the promotion of national parks as prime ecotourism destinations in Africa (Chase, Lee, Schulze & Anderson, 1998:468). Governments across the globe started to declare national parks in order to use the environment for scientific, conservation, tourism and economic purposes (Frost & Hall, 2009:76; Hall & Frost, 2009:7; Zeppel, 2009:272). The latter provides a good description of ecotourism and the majority of these aspects are available within national parks across the globe. Therefore it can be argued that national parks are ecotourism destinations.

The services, products, and attributes that exist within an ecotourism destination such as a national park, could contribute to the competitiveness of the park if the tourist, finances, available technology and the management of the organisation is based on strategic plans and specific organisational goals and objectives (Page, 2011:305). Therefore the next section gives an overview of national parks and the management of these ecotourism destinations.

2.4 NATIONAL PARKS

National parks form part of nature-based tourism as well as ecotourism as national parks' activities are dependent on the natural settings which provide tourists with an ultimate nature-based tourism experience (Wearing & Niel, 2009:7; Weaver, 2001:73). Furthermore, ecotourism often takes places in protected areas, national parks and world heritage sites that offers the interaction between tourist and nature (Peake *et al.*, 2009:107; Munro, Morrison-Saunders & Hughes, 2008:1; Eagles & McCool, 2002:132; Kuo, 2002:87). It is vital that national parks deliver tourism products and services that are based on the criteria of sustainability as well as quality standards that will increase the competitiveness of the park (Shackley, 1996:13).

As previously explained, national parks reflect the pride and identity of a country and its people, hosting cultural, natural and spiritual values. There are also a number of advantages that national parks have such as health benefits especially psychological, emotional and spiritual (Maller, Townsend, St Leger, Henderson-Wilson, Pryor, Prosser & Moore, 2009:54); conservation of the natural and cultural environment (Page & Connell, 2014:129; Wearing & Niel, 2009:68; Liston-Heyes & Heyes, 1999:78); increase the economic impact on the region (Page & Connell, 2014:315; Wearing & Niel, 2009: 68; Shultis & Way, 2006:223; Akama & Kieti, 2003:73; Ghimire, 1995:195); community involvement such as employment and entrepreneurship opportunities (Page & Connell, 2014:315; Saayman, 2009:359; Wearing & Niel, 2009:68; Magome & Murombedzi, 2003:118); interactive education opportunities (Eagles, 2004:18; Saayman, 2009:375; Wearing & Niel, 2009:68) and enhancing sustainability (Jurdana, 2009:268; Wearing & Niel, 2009:68).

Therefore national parks are defined as large prestige natural areas which offer tourists a variety of natural and cultural attributes, products and services which one cannot find elsewhere, all mainly with the aim to conserve the natural and cultural heritage for future generations (Walker & Walker, 2011:522; Cook, Yale & Marqua, 2010:403; Tomczyk, 2010:1; Hall & Frost, 2009:8; Page & Connell, 2009:645; Hamin, 2001:123). National parks are furthermore defined as areas which host a wide variety of natural and cultural attributes which is unique and specific to that area and is under protection for future generations (Walker & Walker, 2011:522; Cook *et al.*, 2010:403; Tomczyk, 2010:1; Hall & Frost, 2009:8; Ma, Ryan & Bao, 2009:21; Page & Connell, 2009:645; Saayman, 2009:347; Hamin, 2001:123).

South African National Parks is at the heartbeat of managing and protecting the biodiversity of the South African landscape at a national level in conjunction with provincial and local government agencies. The public entity manages the 22 national parks in South Africa that covers an extensive four million hectares of land. Although high levels of poaching still remains, South African National Parks are trying its dire best to decrease the poaching of animals within the borders of South Africa. Furthermore, South African National Parks is at the fore front of uplifting the local communities that borders with each of the 22 national parks through an extensive list of various initiatives that educates, provide entrepreneurial opportunities and builds relationships with the locals.

South African National Parks have been awarded for exceptional good governance, healthy financial growth and business development. This indicates this governmental entity has reach new frontiers through effective and efficient management structures, procedures and policies (Molewa, 2013:6; Dlamini, 2013:10; Sibiyi, 2013:12). As this study focuses on South African National Parks' flagship park, the Kruger National Park, the next section discusses the Park in detail.

2.4.1 The Kruger National Park (study focus)

The Kruger National Park is situated in the north-eastern side of South Africa. It borders Mozambique and Zimbabwe and covers a staggering 1.96 million ha of conservation land. It is one of the world's most renowned national parks and the flagship of South African National Parks (see Annexure B for a map of the park) (Mabunda & Wilson, 2009:118; Honey, 1999:339). Also, the Kruger National Park is regarded as a brand on its own. The Park also makes use of natural barriers such as the Luvuvuhu and Limpopo rivers in the North, the Crocodile River in the South and the majestic Lebombo mountain range in the East. Only the western part of the Park is fenced and cuts through previous migration paths of antelope (Braack, 2006:28). In 1926, late president Paul Kruger proclaimed the area as the Kruger National Park to conserve the wildlife and natural environment and protect it from poachers and locals which hunted down large numbers of wildlife at a time. Almost ninety years from the proclamation date, much has changed in the Kruger National Park. At first, no tourists were allowed to enter the park. This only changed after a few years. However, only a limited number of tourists were allowed to enter at a time. This remained the same until today. Years past with no overnight facilities such as chalets or camping sites until the first camp Pretoriuskop was built in 1930.

From then onwards, the Kruger National Park has incorporated overnight facilities and currently has a variety of 13 rest camps in the Park, five bush camps, two bush lodges, two overnight hides and nine luxury lodges (Ewart-Smith, 2010:15). Annually, these various facilities host more than 1.3 million tourists travelling to the Kruger National Park (Mabunda & Wilson, 2009:118; Van Der Merwe & Saayman, 2008:154; Bushell & Eagles, 2007:33; Aylward & Lutz, 2003:97). Also, the rest camps have a retail store for tourists to buy the necessary day-to-day essentials and memorabilia. The southern and central regions of the Kruger National Park has various tourists activities because of the large number of predators in the region, whereas the northern parts of the Park is known to be quiet with fewer tourist activities (Ewart-Smith, 2010:15). As the Park covers a large land

area, it is divided into the northern and southern parts of which the wildlife, plant life and natural scenery differs. The Kruger National Park hosts a variety of attractions such as historical sites, 336 trees, 49 fish, 34 amphibians, 114 reptiles, 507 birds and 147 mammal species (Ewart-Smith, 2010:208-209). Some features that differentiate the Kruger National Park from its peers are the historical sites and animals which are synonymous to the park itself and a must see for tourists. The Park is specifically known for the Big Five (Lion, Leopard, Rhino, Elephant and Buffalo); the variety of endangered wildlife conserved in the park; the Little Five (Buffalo weaver, Elephant shrew, Leopard tortoise, Ant lion and Rhino beetle); Birding Big Six (Ground hornbill, Kori bustard, Lappet-faced vulture, Martial eagle, Pel's fishing owl and Saddle-bill stork); the Five trees (Baobab, Fever tree, Knob thorn, Marula and Mopane); and the Lethaba elephant museum, Jock of the bushveld route, Albasini ruins, Masorini ruins, Stevenson-Hamilton memorial library and Thulamela cultural and natural sites (Ewart-Smith, 2010:29).

The Park furthermore hosts a number of activities which tourists can participate in when travelling to the Park. A lot of these activities is the attraction factor for tourist such as the hiking trails, guided or self-guided game drives offering the tourist an exceptional game viewing experience, 4x4 adventure trails, back packing trails, guided walks, bush braais, mountain bike trails, golf in the famous Skukuza village, wedding and conference facilities in the world renowned Skukuza rest camp (Mabunda & Wilson, 2009:117; Braack, 2006:28; Honey, 1999:339). The Kruger National Park was also the first to implement greener initiatives within the rest camps such as recycling bins. These activities assist the Park in generating income and remain the world leader in conservation of the natural and cultural habitat of South African fauna and flora. The Kruger National Park boasts on its infrastructure which is one of the best in the world. However, the remodelling or evolving of the supra-structure should be considered as it has not been reviewed in years.

The Kruger National Park also offers a variety of services such as automated banks, library, park shops, fuel stations, laundry services, police station, swimming pools, golf course and restaurants that are situated in the park and in most rest camps which all adds up to the Kruger National Park having a competitive advantage in its service offering (Ewart-Smith, 2010:21; Honey, 1999:339). Access to and in the park is quite easy and caters for the majority of vehicles that is on South African roads.

With the Kruger National Park being a well-known tourism destination and attracting large numbers of tourists, the Park generates more than 80% of South African National Parks' revenue and assists in financing other less known parks within the borders of South Africa (Mabunda & Wilson, 2009:118). This shows that the Kruger National Park could continue to be a huge income generator for South African National Parks if further competitive advantage factors are identified and successfully managed. The ways for identifying competitive advantage factors for ecotourism destinations such as national parks, is discussed in full detail in Chapter 3.

Since management is a key aspect to achieve competitiveness, the next section focuses on park management.

2.5 PREVIOUS RESEARCH REGARDING NATIONAL PARKS

Currently, the South African National Parks manage more than 9000 privately owned game farms and lodges, 171 provincial and local nature reserves and 22 other national parks. All these farms, lodges and parks are within the nature-based tourism industry and compete fiercely for the top position, namely to be the most competitive nature-based tourism destination in South Africa (Saayman, 2009:346; SANParks, 2008/9:19; Van Der Merwe & Saayman, 2004:42; Honey, 1999:341). Also, to be considered is the international arena with which a national park such as the Kruger National Park is competing. In this regard the majority of competition comes from the Kruger National Park's bordering countries Namibia and Botswana as well as the famous eastern African countries of Tanzania and Kenya that offers exceptional wildlife opportunities. The Kruger National Park should thus identify distinct park attributes that position it with a competitive advantage over all local and international parks. This competitive advantage should then also be substantiated with proper managerial activities.

The following research has been done on national parks across the globe of which all focused on various attributes of the parks with regard to tourism.

Table 2.1: Previous research on national parks

Internationally based research on national parks		
Author	Study	Findings
Dumitras, Jitea and Arion (2012)	Management planning based on visitors' profile: The case of Romanian national and natural parks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Two major target market groups that require special attention are the tourist that chooses hiking as activity and the tourist that wants to relax and rest. • Hiking is the main recreation activity that tourists partake in. • The age variable is statistically different for the two groups as well as the preference for the length of the trips. • The first-time visitors to the Park are statically higher than that of tourist visiting for relaxation and rest. • Tourists' tend to camp in unauthorised areas after which park management informs them that such camping is not allowed. Facilities and services in the Park should be adapted to satisfy the needs and expectations of the Park's main tourist market.
Chaminuka, Groeneveld, Selomane and Van Ierland (2012)	Tourist preferences for ecotourism in rural communities adjacent to Kruger National Park: A choice experiment approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of ecotourism in the surrounding areas close to Kruger National Park. Consider the pricing and the nature of the services provided if ecotourism is to be practiced successfully. • The benefits from developing accommodation facilities mainly targeted at Kruger National Park visitors might be limited, but rural communities can still target Kruger National Park visitors who intend to stay in the Park for village tours and other cultural activities. • Ecotourism activities should complement existing activities inside the Kruger National Park and target specific groups of tourists, particularly international tourists who have an interest in cultural related tourism activities as well as the low income complement interested in activities inside the Kruger National Park. It should also target specific groups of tourists, particularly international

		<p>tourists who have an interest in cultural related tourism activities and tourists from low income groups who might be attracted by cheaper accommodation outside the park.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Domestic and international tourists had similar preferences but different magnitude of the willingness to pay.
Svajda and Fenichel (2011)	Evaluation of integrated protected area management in Slovakian National Parks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Management plans and strategies should be focused on the ecosystem. • Management plans should include evaluation and monitoring steps. • There should be a correlation made between park management and economic development plans. • More research on economic and social impact of tourism on national parks is crucial in the development of a long-term progression evaluation. • Management divides the park according to the zoning categories to align with international best practices. An improved detailed financial strategy should be developed and managed. • Parks should be labelled and promoted as national parks or protected areas. Park activities are not sufficient and only reach certain target market groups. • Visitor management should be focused on proactive approaches rather than reactive approaches.
Erdogan and Tosun (2009)	Environmental performance of tourism accommodations in the protected areas: Case of Goreme Historical National Park	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education and training courses should be aged. There is an urgent need to create and enhance the environmental knowledge and sensitivity of managers. • Accommodations should participate in resource saving practices and commit to institute a resource minimization policy, allocate staff and necessary funding for implementation, and establish an energy performance rating system as well as a periodic or continuous monitoring system to assess the nature and outcome of the daily practices.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The lack of communication of information on sustainable practices is important for visitors. Inclusion of this type of information in brochures, guidebooks and accreditation to environmental standards schemes such as Green Globe 21 will provide tourists with the necessary information. • This is a crucial point, particularly for hotels located in and around the national parks and protected areas.
Gillmore and Simmons (2007)	Integrating sustainable tourism and marketing management: Can national parks provide the framework for strategic change.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic integration and coordination is vital to the success of tourism destinations' marketing management and impact on the social, economic and natural environments. • Marketing can be utilised to educate and raise awareness of the Park's unique benefits. • Implementation of strategies and policies are difficult if the right people are not on board. • Hands-on collaborative management at national parks are needed to improve the attractiveness of product and services offerings at national parks.
Buultjens, Ratnayake, Gnannapala and Aslam (2005)	Tourism and its implications for management in Ruhuna National Park (Yala), Sri Lanka.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overcrowding. • Pollution. • Management. • Lack of funding.
Eagles (2004)	Trends affecting tourism in protected areas.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Park visitation will increase. • Park tourism leads to increased public participation and collaboration. • Increasing education levels in society leads to the demand for increasing sophistication in park management and park services. • A population shift in the developed world towards numbers of older citizens results in significant change in activities, settings and experiences sought by visitors.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Increased accessibility of information technology means that potential, current and past visitors will be better informed and knowledgeable about what leisure opportunities exist, the current state of management and the consequences of management actions.• Increasing availability of information technology profoundly influences park visitation.• The increase in park area, number of parks, and park visitation exceeds the capability of many management institutions.• Park management shifts gradually from government agency structures, with centralised financial control, to parastatal forms with flexible financial management.• Park management funding increasingly shifts from government grants to park tourism fees and charges.• This article results in higher levels of visitor focus in management.• Parks and park agencies develop increased sophistication in its understanding and management of park visitation and tourism.• Foreign aid and grants from NGOs increasingly fund biodiversity conservation and sustainable tourism development in developing nations in order to develop sustainable development that provides both conservation and economic benefit.• Park tourism may be damaged by war and civil unrest, especially in Africa and parts of Asia.• The world's international travel will be strongly affected by decreasing supplies of oil and gas and large increases in energy cost in the second decade of the 21st century.• Global climate change will affect many parks and much park tourism. Parks further develop as cultural icons.
--	--	--

<p>Eagles (2001)</p>	<p>International trends in park tourism</p>	<p>Park tourism opportunities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A co-ordinated tourism management system can only be developed if there are competent park employees, proper park management systems and sufficient finances to operate the park. • Location is important. Significant resources, high market profile and quality service industry are the three prerequisites for effective utilization of the international market. • Good infrastructure for transportation, communication and information is needed. <p>Park tourism challenges:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack tourism management capabilities, sufficient staff and infrastructure. • Language barriers exist between employees and international tourists. • Lack of employees having the necessary tourism skills, knowledge and expertise to conduct the work. International reputation, resources appealing to international tourists and the ability to manage international tourists is only possible at some national parks. • Understanding of global ecotourism market is incorrect. • Park infrastructure and suprastructures are often difficult for international tourists to understand and gain access to. • Development and implementation of nature-based tourism strategies and policies to the governance of national parks on an international level are critical.
-----------------------------	---	---

Obua and Harding (1996)	Visitor characteristics and attitudes towards Kibale National Park, Uganda.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Majority of visitors to the park are foreigners. • Visitors are mainly young to middle aged adults with fewer elderly people. Majority of visitors were first time visitors to the park. • Planning of the trip was done well in advance and reasoning for the trip was to see the wildlife, camp and relax. • Another motive to travel to the Park was the need for direct contact with nature. • Tourists were mainly between the ages of 45 and 65 years, with college degrees, professional occupation, high disposable income and availability of leisure time, financially independent and retired.
South African based research on national parks		
Author	Study	Findings
Kruger and Saayman (2014)	The determinants of visitor length of stay at the Kruger National Park	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both the northern and southern regions of the Park, tourists' individual socio-demographic characteristics (total spending, province of origin, group size and home language) influenced the length of stay. The socio-demographic determinants were, however, different for the two regions. • Behavioural variables (decision-making, mode of transport, being loyalty members, desire to see the Big Five and not donating to conservation causes) explained the length of stay. • The length of stay was also determined by the characteristics of the two regions (the two destinations), such as the different likelihood of seeing the Big Five and therefore a regional approach was proposed when analysing a national parks such as the Kruger National Park.

<p>Kruger, Saayman and Hermann (2014)</p>	<p>First-time versus repeat visitors at the Kruger National Park</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marketers and park management should follow a two pronged approach that caters for the needs of both markets. • Marketing messages should incorporate the travel motives escape, park attractiveness and group affiliation to attract both first-time and repeat visitors as these aspects seem to be the main reasons why people visit the Kruger National Park. • Both first-time visitors and repeater-visitors plan park visits well in advance and therefore gather information extensively. Repeat-visitors also tend to make decision to visit spontaneously which implies that marketing should be done on a continuous basis to attract both visitor segments
<p>Slabbert and Du Plessis (2013)</p>	<p>Do socio-demographic factors influence the travel behaviour of visitors to nature-based tourism products in South Africa?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The ecotourism market to South African National Parks is fairly homogeneous in terms of its selected socio-demographic characteristics and visitors therefore require the same types of experiences when visiting the parks. An undifferentiated marketing strategy can be implemented with spot advertisements and promotions focusing on specific services and experiences offered in the parks. • The values of <i>Relaxation</i> as well as <i>Activities and Facilities</i> should not be underestimated and creative marketing material exhibiting these attributes should be improved and varied. These qualities should, however, not only be visible in the marketing efforts, but should also be present at the parks in order for them to be considered reliable. • It is evident that the presence of families with children influences the behaviour of visitors. Park management should ensure that sufficient activities for children are offered such as the provision of activity books, sessions on recycling, educational treasure hunting, more educational game drives, day care facilities, traditional wildlife storytelling, increased interaction with game rangers and survival programmes. Facilities and services should therefore make provision for both these groups and provide experiences that will suit both young and old.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The influence of socio-demographic characteristics on travel motivation and park experiences is limited. This should, however, be investigated in other nature-based products in South Africa and Africa as well so as to determine similarities with or differences in these findings.
Hermann (2013)	Development of a tourism management framework for Mapungubwe National Park	<p>Management at the Mapungubwe National Park should consider the following aspects and improve management of tourism services within these aspects.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information and accessibility; • Accommodation and ablution facilities; • Food and Beverage; • Leisure facilities; • Professional operation of tours; • Conservation; • Human resources; • Regulations and marketing; • Socio-economic impacts; • Environmental impacts; and • General management.

<p>Kruger, Viljoen and Saayman (2013)</p>	<p>Who pays to view wildflowers in South Africa?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The motives of this market differ significantly from those found by other similar research, thereby contradicting most previous findings that visitors to national parks are motivated mainly by the need to escape their current, stressful environment. • Visitors to a wildflower event were motivated mainly by the experience itself and the chance it offers to appreciate nature. • From a marketing point of view, SANParks could promote and brand the parks that are most successful by focusing mainly on the natural wonder of the seasonal flowering. The natural wonder of the seasonal flowering should be these parks' main promotional and branding focus. • Typical wildflower event visitors are in the over-50s age group, although the cluster named the Wild Flaxes represented a younger market. • The Namaqualand Daisies seem to be the most lucrative segment in terms of higher spending and frequency of visits to the natural event. • The youngest, the Wild Flaxes, were very loyal, frequent repeat visitors with the second highest average spending. • The Gazanias were prepared to travel the furthest (travelling from across the country) to experience the natural event and they had the highest mean values across the three motivational factors, indicating a strong appreciation for wildflower viewing.
<p>Kruger <i>et al.</i> (2012)</p>	<p>Determinants of visitor expenditure at the Tsitsikamma National Park</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher spending at the Park was also found to be associated with fewer people in the travelling group. • Visitors who furthermore made use of magazines to obtain information about the Park also tend to spend more. • Respondents from Gauteng province (in other words visitors who travelled further to get to the Park) spent more than those from the Western Cape.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Afrikaans-speaking respondents were found to be inclined to spend more at the Park than English-speaking respondents
Du Plessis, Van der Merwe and Saayman (2012)	Environmental factors affecting tourists' experience in South African national parks.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Park managers need to be aware of on-going research to ensure that they understand what affects visitors' experience (especially the loyal ones) negatively. • A blatant disregard of these factors will have severe consequences since replacing loyal visitors is an expensive marketing exercise. • The findings also revealed that speeding by tourists and park staff in the national parks had the biggest negative effect on the respondents' experience. This complaint was made by respondents at all levels of visit frequency. • The findings also revealed that tourist and park staff speeding in the national parks had the biggest negative effect on the respondents' experience. This complaint was made by respondents at all levels of visit frequency. • Pollution, in the form of waste and noise, also has a negative effect on the experience of park tourists.
Engelbrecht (2011)	Critical success factors for managing the visitors experience at the Kruger National Park	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General Management; facilities in the park, food and beverage management and bookings and general services were the four factors that indicated that tourist satisfaction levels were exceeded. • Green management, information provided, layout of the park and outdoor activities were equal to the tourists' expectations. • However the factors, educational facilities, accommodation facilities, interpretation activities and wildlife were all below the expectations of tourists and left them unsatisfied.

<p>Tiedt (2011)</p>	<p>Travel motivations of tourists to selected Marine National Parks</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Results indicated that marketers of SANParks should give attention to the travel motives “relaxation and escape” as well as a “need for knowledge and education” in future marketing material. For example marketing material must emphasise the fact that marine national parks do provide tourists with the opportunity to “relax and escape” from everyday working life and further provide tourists the opportunity to learn about wildlife and nature. • From the results it is clear that tourists to the Tsitsikamma National Park indicated that “relaxation and escape” as travel motive is more important than for tourists to the Addo Elephant National Park due to the two parks' differences in product offering. On the other hand tourists to the Addo Elephant National Park indicated that education as travel motive is more important than for tourists to Tsitsikamma National Park. Therefore, marketing material for the two parks needed to be developed according to the need of its target markets. The marketing material that is available must be more focused on the different motivations for the different parks for example the brochures of the Tsitsikamma National Park should have pictures of the waves crashing, people walking on the beach while the Addo Elephant National Park should have pictures of a game ranger hiking with a group in the park, concentrating on the learning experience. • Motives identified in this research can assist South African National Parks with branding the Addo Elephant National Park as a park where tourists can experience marine wildlife such as whales and sharks and land based wildlife such as lions and elephants in one conservation area. The Tsitsikamma National Park on the other hand can be branded as a unique park with a relaxed atmosphere and the opportunity to escape and relax with beautiful marine scenic areas. • Research showed that the majority of visitors to the Addo Elephant National Park were English-speaking and that the majority of the visitors to the Tsitsikamma National Park were Afrikaans-speaking. This is important information when selecting marketing media to market the park,
----------------------------	---	---

		<p>therefore SANParks can market the Addo Elephant National Park in Gateway (English) and the Tsitsikamma can be marketed in Weg (Afrikaans).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In order to remain competitive, marine destinations will have to add new products and experiences to its existing products for example the Addo Elephant National Park can introduce whale watching tours during whale seasons or even for the very extreme shark cage diving with the Great White shark.
Van der Merwe, Slabbert and Saayman (2011)	Travel motivations of tourist to selected marine destinations.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An important indicator is the destination attractiveness for visitors. • Visitors wanted to explore new things, destinations and events, as well as spending time with family and friends. • All five marine destinations offer similar natural products, the challenge lies with man-made products, specifically, how to remain competitive. • The aspect of uniqueness is also paramount in the development of a positioning strategy that distinguishes one destination from another.
Kruger et al. (2010)	Expenditure-based segmentation of visitors to the Tsitsikamma National Park	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Significant difference exist between the high spenders at the park compared to the low spenders, and therefore the marketers of the Tsitsikamma National Park can follow either a customised (niche) marketing strategy or a multi-segmented approach to select the target market. If marketers want to target tourists who spend more at the park, the high-spending segment would be the preferred choice (customised strategy). • Attract more high spenders, Gauteng should be targeted and, for the low spenders, the Western Cape. Since tourists from Gauteng prefer chalets, these should be one of the drawing cards and, for the Western Cape tourists it should be the camping facilities.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High spenders should be encouraged to stay longer at the park and this can be achieved by offering more activities e.g. diving, snorkelling, boat rides, dolphin and whale watching as well as educational trips • The park should cooperate with other tourism product and service providers within the tourism cluster to market attractions in the area whilst staying at Tsitsikamma National Park to increase visitors' length of stay and spending. • Packages aimed at both the high- and low-expenditure segments that include local attractions could also be an effective way of increasing the length of stay and group size as well as the overall spending at the park.
Kruger and Saayman (2010)	Travel motivations of tourists to Kruger and Tsitsikamma National Parks: A comparative study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Escape and relaxation was regarded as the most important factor and should be used by park management in the marketing of the parks, respectively. • Knowledge seeking achieved the second highest mean value and confirmed that tourists want to increase their knowledge about wildlife. • Nostalgia and park attributes were regarded as third highest mean values and could be due to loyalty from the tourist side. • Nature experience respectively achieved fifth place at the Kruger National Park with regards to Tsitsikamma's sixth position. However this could be due to the natural scenic beauty of the Tsitsikamma National Park. • Photography was Tsitsikamma's fifth positions and a possible reason could be that photography is not fully exploited by park management.

<p>Scholtz (2010)</p>	<p>The influence of the 2008/2009 economic recession on travel behaviour of visitors to the Kruger National Park</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diversify products on offer at the destination. For example, different priced accommodation to attract visitors from any economic background (low, medium and high income). • Diversify activities to supply a larger array of what visitors demand such as game rooms for children, horseback riding, stargazing and night drives. • Do comprehensive marketing to know which markets should be targeted, as well as how to adapt to cater for other possible markets. • Work together with other tourism organisations in the vicinity to supply a greater variety of activities to the visitors. For example, a nature reserve wants to attract visitors, but the reserve do not have overnight facilities for people that might come from afar, so the reserve provide visitors with the contact numbers of guest houses in the area. This will be to the advantage of both groups.
<p>Du Plessis (2010)</p>	<p>Tourists' perceptions of tourism impacts on the environment: The case of South African National Parks</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effective waste management should be implemented in national parks through the encouragement of recycling. The opportunity of a recycling plant in the Kruger National Park should be explored to manage the waste generated by tourists more effectively. Recycled waste products can then be sold to tourists in the Park's shops. • Tourists and staff should receive more environmental education regarding the impacts of tourism on the environment and methods to be used to minimise these impacts. Furthermore, as a conservation priority, training and education should be offered to both staff and the tourists with regards to proper waste disposal and recycling. • Reviewed policies should be laid down for restaurants and shops in South African National Parks. Aspects that need to be included in the policies are minimising solid food waste through construction of organic gardens, buying food stock in bulk to reduce the amount of waste generated through packaging, making use of local producers and using only organic food where appropriate and available.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• South African National Parks should, as a matter of priority, make greater use of renewable energy sources. The opportunities from energy generated by wind, wave and solar energy should be explored for implementation by South African National Parks. South African National Parks have to determine the percentage of energy used at each park that must be based on renewable resources• More environmentally friendly practices should be implemented such communication as paperless booklets, and recycled paper for marketing material and information leaflets as well as environmentally friendly soaps and detergents• Future development of national parks should be based on environmentally friendly principles. This would include non-permanent infrastructure (tented and wilderness camps), the use of natural building materials and designs fitting into the environment.• Water consumption should be taken more seriously in South African National Parks. Leaking taps and water pipes should be repaired. Recycling systems for waste water should be installed in new developments to conserve water usage.• Motion-detection systems should be installed in accommodation facilities to ensure that when tourists are not present in accommodation facilities, appliances such as the air-conditioning and lights are switched off.• The problem of tourists and staff speeding in South African National Parks should be addressed and managed more stringently. This could be done by implementing vehicle tracking devices to monitor the speed of staff. If necessary, disciplinary measures should be taken. Alternative routes for the use of staff and delivery vehicles should be explored.
--	--	--

<p>Oberholzer (2010)</p>	<p>The socio-economic impact of the Tsitsikamma National Park.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tsitsikamma National Park has a positive socio-economic impact on the region. • Local communities perceived tourism development as positive. • Tsitsikamma has a positive economic impact. • Tourists making use of chalet accommodation facilities spend more than campers. . • Tsitsikamma National Park achieved its goals of conservation, creation of economic opportunities and involving the local community. • Locals place high emphasis on the conservation of marine life. • Various types of tourist travelling to Tsitsikamma National Park exist. • Increased employment opportunities investment opportunities and tourist spending at the Park stimulates the local economy. • The opportunity to relax and spend time with family and friends are the two highest ranked social impacts.
<p>Saayman <i>et al.</i> (2009)</p>	<p>Expenditure-based segmentation of tourists to the Kruger National Park</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The variables identified by the research are useful in developing a marketing campaign and strategy to attract high spenders to the Kruger National Park. • Marketing campaign should promote the motive “significant others” (in other words an opportunity to spend time with family and friends) since this is also an important motive for high spenders. • Educational purposes also remain an important reason for visiting, implying that more should be done in this regard. • Displaying information one expects such as animals, plants, geology and anthropology to name a few. • Investment in the youth in terms of educating them about the importance of conservation and exposing them to national parks could help to secure future high spenders.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Photography as a reason to visit the Kruger National Park was also identified as an aspect that requires more attention from park management. • High spenders visit national parks often shows that these visitors are brand loyal and to retain them is of the highest importance.
Saayman and Saayman (2009)	Socio-demographic and behavioural determinants of visitor spending at the Kruger National Park in South Africa.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavioural indicators remains the most significant in all the analyses conducted. • An increase in the number of people leads to a decrease in spending per person. • Aspects such as province of residence, qualification, age, language, and marital status influence tourist spending. • Motives that were regarded as the most important were the opportunity to explore a new destination, spend time with family and friends, aspects relating to wildlife and because tourist grew up with the park. • Focus should be placed on the promotion of the Park's products and experiences. • Marketing should focus on the wealthiest target markets which in this case was Gauteng and Western Cape.
Saayman et al. (2009)	The socio-economic impact of the Karoo National Park	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Businesses in Beaufort West clearly cannot distinguish between tourists and local shoppers, and this is because many tourists pass through Beaufort West when travelling and most tourists only make use of the Karoo National Park as a 'stop-over' destination. • The income multiplier generated by the matrix inversion process for groups holidaying in chalets is again in line, but slightly higher for camping groups than that found for the Addo Elephant Park. The rationale behind the higher multipliers is intuitively correct, since Beaufort West is not situated close to any larger town that creates more extensive leakages in terms of employment creation and spending by households. The fact that the park borders on Beaufort West and that the Karoo

		<p>National Park's staff are living in the community has a positive impact on community perceptions of the Park.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The smaller the operation (for example accommodation, tourist numbers and activities), the lesser the socio-economic impact. Hence the size of operations definitely plays a role. National parks, and specifically the Karoo National Park, should offer more activities, more species and more accommodation facilities, where possible, to motivate tourists to extend their stay and spend more money. This will increase the magnitude of the socio-economic impact.• The length of stay and magnitude of spending remain the main influence on the socio-economic impact of a tourist product. As previously mentioned, the variety and scope of activities (in other words what does the park offer or what can the region offer tourists to do) have an influence on the mentioned aspects. The fewer species and variety of species the park offers, the shorter the stay. This applies to activities as well. In the case of the Karoo National Park, the number of species is significantly lower than in other national parks, such as the Addo Elephant Park, the Kruger National Park and the Mokala National Park.• Improved communication can also increase awareness among tourists, businesses and other product owners. It will also inform the aim of the Park in terms of what it wants to achieve and how the community's collaboration could assist to achieve the specific aim.
--	--	--

Bothma (2009)	Travel motivations to selected National Parks in South Africa: Karoo-, Tsitsikamma- and Kgalagadi Transfrontier National Parks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marketers of these national parks should consider the practical implications of the motives identified, since the marketers can be fundamental in increasing satisfaction with destination (park) services and products, as well as, enhancing destination (park) loyalty. • The concept of a place to escape and relax can be used successfully in marketing, as this is a major travel motive for tourists in general. These motives could be combined to add value to the marketing campaigns of the parks. National parks will then make better use of the information; to successfully promote its packages, to understand tourists' needs and implement effective market segmentation strategies.
Saayman and Saayman (2009)	Why travel motivation and socio-demographics matter in managing a national park.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marketers should analyse the socio-demographic and motivational influences on tourist spending. • Park should create a spending environment for tourists. • Marketing should focus on the motives of escape, since it is the highest mean value and these tourists have the highest spending in the Park.
Mouton (2009)	Socio-economic impact of an urban park: The case of Wilderness National Parks.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expanding the scale of operations in the Park by providing more chalets, a conference facility, a house boat on the lagoon, a shop, a cafeteria, a restaurant and a variety of activities (such as water-based activities seeing that Wilderness National Park is located near the coast), on which tourists could spend money. • Upgrading the interior of the chalets will keep tourists interested by making it more appealing to those who have visited the Park previously and also attract new clientele, which will increase tourist numbers. • Improving and upgrading the existing camping and caravan sites and facilities in the Park, including the barbecue facilities and communal ablution facilities, making it more appealing and private.

		<p>Installing wind breaks as well as an indoor-swimming pool will automatically draw more tourists during winter times.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increasing its knowledge (mostly through research) about Wilderness National Park's day-visitors' needs and travel behaviours. Fulfilling day visitors' needs will not only lead to an increase in day visitor numbers, but will also give SANParks more information about these visitors' expectations of the Park, in addition to nature conservation and tourism. • Arranging more educational school outings to Wilderness National Park. These scholars are the consumers of the future who can make a difference to the future of the Wilderness National Park. Residents who have been living in Wilderness for a longer period can also be brought to the Park as part of a community outreach programme. • Decreasing leakages by sourcing more supplies and services locally. This could be achieved by employing local people, by utilising local products and, as far as possible, by awarding contracts for rendering services to those people living in the area. This will, it is believed, maximise local capital, develop entrepreneurial skills and increase the use of local labour in tourism developments. • Encouraging the local community to become involved in management committees. These measures will increase the benefits accruing to the province or region. If this can be achieved, conservation of wildlife will increase, thus improving the living conditions of the local people, thereby benefiting more than just fauna and flora.
Ferreira (2009)	The socio-economic impact of tourism in the Karoo National Park	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The community needs to be kept informed about the activities offered in the park to grow the number of day visitors and improve the social impact of the park on the local community. This can be achieved by making use of special promotions, pamphlets and the park forum. • A better co-ordinated marketing effort by the park and the town of Beaufort West could improve the bed occupancy rate, and thus impact positively on income and job creation.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• More should be done by SANParks to increase the length of stay in the Park by offering more activities, such as horseback riding, stargazing and guided walks.• Analyse day visitors' needs and travel behaviour to increase day visitor numbers, which will increase their knowledge about the Park as well as nature conservation and tourism in general.• SANParks needs to investigate policy development regarding SANParks social responsibility towards the local community because not all of the park managers realise that they have a social responsibility to adjacent communities.• It is recommended that SANParks develop a community wild card. This wildcard would only be available to the local community of Beaufort West to increase visits to the park. A community member can buy this wildcard, which will allow him/her a number of entries, for example 12 per season. This way, community members will be able to visit the park more often. Members can even get discount on accommodation after a certain number of visits. This will help SANParks to get the local community to stay over at the park and experience more benefits of the park. More marketing will thus be done in the local community regarding the Park.• Park news can be added in the local newspaper, or the Park can invest in its own park paper. In this park paper, events and conservation news on wildlife can be posted.• The Karoo National Park can arrange more organised school outings, which will assist in educating learners on wildlife, conservation, and tourism. In return, the learners might become more interested in ecotourism and encourage their parents to visit the park. These learners are also the tourists of the future.• Promote the park forum. Currently, the park forum is not well promoted amongst community members. This can be improved through newsletters to the community to inform them about activities and developments in the park. Meetings can be held quarterly where the community can sit in to enhance community participation.
--	--	---

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved communication can increase the awareness of tourists, businesses, and other product owners as to what the park wants to achieve and how the community needs to work together to achieve this. Therefore, to increase the socio-economic impact of the park, it is of paramount importance that tourism products in the region are developed and promoted. • Increase linkages between local businesses. Beaufort West needs to look towards establishing more linkages between local businesses. This could be achieved by producing/distributing more supplies and services locally. If more businesses are involved, it can reduce the leakage factor. • For the park to increase its overall socio-economic impact, the Park needs to increase the size of its operation. It needs to expand its facilities and activities to generate more economic activity. This will also lead to more job opportunities. It is essential that tourism products in the region are developed and promoted, also to then inform the community on these developments on a regular basis. • Having more activities available could impact positively on the length of stay, which would lead to increased spending. • Another method of increasing length of stay could be to introduce more species into the Park.
<p>Van Der Merwe and Saayman (2008)</p>	<p>Travel motivations of tourists visiting the Kruger National Park.</p>	<p>Motivations for travelling was done through a factor analysis that indicated the following factors as main motivations:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nature, activities, attractions, nostalgia, novelty and escape from routine.

<p>Hood (2008)</p>	<p>Destination branding: a case study of the Kruger National Park</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is essential that the Kruger brand has a clear set of values to help create positive perceptions of the brand among visitors. This may include values such as quality service or emphasis on conservation. • By using as many physical elements as possible that can be associated with the brand, such as staff uniforms, office decor and the type of music played to tourists holding the line when phoning for enquiries are some of the effective ways of making the Kruger brand tangible. • Effective differentiation can be achieved through package designs. • The marketing department needs to manage the brand and its competitive advantage. It is important to consider that top management must also be part of this because the brand influences the destination's reputation, and reputation is the responsibility of top management. • Top management must also be heavily involved in the management of the Kruger Park's brand. • Everyone working for, or linked to, the Kruger Park has the responsibility to guard, promote and build the Kruger's brand. In order to do this, everyone must be aware of and understand the core of the brand position. This can be communicated to all involved by means of newsletters and even induction of new employees. • A monitoring system must be established to assist in the management of the Kruger Park's brand.
<p>Boshoff, Landman, Kerley and Bradfield (2007)</p>	<p>Profiles, views and observations of visitors to the Addo Elephant National Park, Eastern Cape, South Africa.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Further visitor education aimed at improving the quality of the visitors experience at the Park. Despite the increase in elephant numbers to the park, majority of visitors did not see the elephants during their visit, which could impact negatively on the visitors' expectations. • Additional research should be conducted on aspects within the Park to assist park management and reserve staff to achieve the Park's conservation and management goals and objectives.

<p>Brandon (2007)</p>	<p>The dual nature of parks: Attitudes of neighbouring communities towards Kruger National Park, South Africa</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Protected areas cannot be sustainable in the long term if the local communities are hostile towards these areas. The Kruger National Park obtained worldwide recognition for its leadership in conservation. Due to budgetary constraints national parks and protected areas find it more difficult to conserve the natural biodiversity and remaining sustainable throughout. • The complexity of social and political involvement in the management of protected areas close to communities with animals destroying the community land still has a long way to go in having the local community understanding the importance of conservation. • Protected areas should therefore design community outreach programmes that uplift the local community. However, management should not expect rapid changes as this is a long term process.
<p>Leberman and Holland (2005)</p>	<p>Visitor preferences in Kruger National Park, South Africa: The value of a mixed-method approach.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Various factors under park management's control could enhance the visitor satisfaction at the Kruger National Park. • Managers at the Park could add value to the visitors experience through the increase in controlling resources and social conditions particularly in the area of park maintenance and personnel. • The level of service quality would influence the visitors' experience. • Problematic areas are poor maintenance, unhelpful and unfriendly park employees and inconsistent information. • The cost of accommodation was more important to visitors than the combined importance of wildlife viewing, activities and facilities available in the Park. Accommodation cost influenced local tourists much more influenced than it did the overseas tourists. • Local tourists viewed the park as extremely commercialised and associated increased costs with regard to the affordability that it has to ordinary South Africans.

Saayman and Slabbert (2004)	A profile of tourist visiting the Kruger National Park	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Here is not a notable difference between the results, for the period May to July for the surveys done both in 2001 and 2002. What does change, however, is that there are more foreign tourists in this Park in July than in May. This might be explained by the fact that it is then the European summer holidays.• A specific market segment has been determined, portrayed by Chris and Penny, which can streamline all marketing efforts and makes it easy to target this particular market.• Tourists visiting the Kruger National Park are brand loyal and a quality service should sustain this market well into the future. This creates a situation where marketers can identify other potential markets to shift its focus.• Needs of current tourists are basically the same, which makes it easy for the Park to gain a larger part of the market.
------------------------------------	--	---

Table 2.1 clearly indicates the wide array of research that has been done on national parks across the globe and locally. On an international level, the focus has been on the managerial components as well as the tourist motives when travelling to the parks. However, the focus remains on the tourist level of satisfaction. The research confirms that national parks should constantly evaluate the tourist expectations and behavioural patterns in order for the park to remain sustainable and profitable. Parks should take into account the quality of the natural environment before developing marketing and strategic plans.

The same could be said about the research done on national parks within South Africa. There is a clear indication that the focus of research on South African National Parks are more specifically on the tourist motives, tourist satisfaction and biodiversity components than on managerial aspects. Research on the Kruger National Park focused mostly on the travel behaviour, expenditure and motives. It is clear that little research on competitiveness with specific reference to national parks have been done in South Africa. Previous research that was done in the Kruger National Park indicated that tourist travelling to the Kruger National Park are predominately Afrikaans-speaking people that are married and between the age group of 35 and 44 years. These tourists are well-educated with either a degree or diploma and travel in either groups of two or four people. These tourists mostly reside in the economic province of South Africa, namely Gauteng. The annual gross income of visitors to the Park is on average between R552 001 or more and travel with 4x4 vehicles to the Park. There are also a well-represented number of tourists, with or without children, that is Wildcard members. The majority of the tourist motivation to travel to the Kruger National Park is to relax and escape the normal day of life (Kruger & Saayman, 2014:6; Kruger *et al.*, 2014:4; Engelbrecht, 2011:47; Scholtz, 2010:28; Saayman & Slabbert 2004:4). Therefore this study aims at the competitiveness of a national park such as the Kruger National Park from a tourist perspective to enhance visitor experience and have the Park become one of the best tourism destinations worldwide.

In the event of a national park such as the Kruger National Park obtaining a competitive advantage, the Park may experience the following benefits: sustainable, generating income and increasing tourist numbers to the Park as well as the greater South Africa (Edgell, 2006:93). Through the implementation of competitive advantage factors and proper managerial strategies, a national park might have a constant source of income being generated for the park and South African National Parks. Furthermore, it could increase economic development, lead to the expansion of the conservation area, facilitate private conservation ethics, result in an increase in educational and interpretational aspects as well as a competitive advantage (Wearing & Niel, 2009:68).

2.6 PARK MANAGEMENT

National parks are designed with the main aim of protecting and conserving the natural and cultural environments and the attributes of a specific area. Saayman (2009:358) identifies three categories of park management to ensure successful implementation and management of conservation strategies and plans. It is of outmost importance that park management have a proper park plan and process in place to ensure that it is managed in a sustainable manner (Saayman, 2009:352), that will increase the identification of competitive advantage factors to increase tourist numbers and income to the park. National parks focus mostly on the conservation efforts and plans and very little on tourism management. However, tourism management forms the main source of income for most national parks and is responsible for attracting, retaining and managing tourist expectations at national parks. It is therefore important for park management to determine the demands of tourists and then identify those key competitive advantage factors which tourists regard as important. These competitive advantage factors should then be adapted according to tourist expectations. In doing so park management may ensure that there is a balance between conservation and tourism management (Carruthers, 2009:239; Fredman & Sandell, 2009:197). Carruthers (2009:239) emphasises that national parks should integrate the three categories of management to ensure the park is managed successfully and that park revenue for conservation and tourism purposes increase.

Furthermore Fearnhead and Mabunda (2003:186) as well as Honey (1999:12) state that the natural environment is the main income generator at national parks, as tourists are more than willing to pay for natural and cultural experiences when visiting national parks or protected areas. Taplin (2012:30) adds that once a national park's products or services are superior to that of competitors it can be regarded as a competitive advantage. It is therefore important for park management to understand how these management categories can be used in order to create and manage superior competitive advantage factors that are distinct to different national parks to increase tourist numbers. Figure 2.2 illustrates how the three park management categories are integrated and to be used as one management model for national parks as a competitive tourism destination. Each of these categories is discussed in detail in the following sections.



Figure 2.2: Categories of park management
Source: Saayman (2009:358)

2.6.1 Ecotourism Management

Firstly, it is necessary to again reflect on the definition of ecotourism before the management thereof is brought into context. As earlier explained, ecotourism is defined as responsible travelling behaviour to undisclosed natural areas which is ecologically very sensitive and needs to be protected for future generations. Ecotourism is furthermore, experience based with regard to tourists taking part in activities, learning more about the natural and cultural environments and finally contributing to the local community. Important aspects to consider with regards to ecotourism is that the carrying capacity should be kept at a minimal level, activities should be non-consumptive and that the culture of the local communities be reflected and promoted at the destination (Walker & Walker, 2011:376; Fennel, 2008:43; Edgell, 2006:42; Weaver & Lawton, 2006:464; Allcock *et al.*, 1994:17; Tickell, 1994:ix; Scale *et al.*, 1992:14). Ecotourism is well-known for the benefits that it brings to the local communities, conservation support programmes and the experience of education and interpretation of the natural and cultural environments.

Most ecotourism products are known to be under governmental, conservation or scientific organisations' management. Only recently private individuals started to manage ecotourism products and it still remains the minority (Walker & Walker, 2011:377; Honey, 1999:11). In the case of South Africa, South African National Parks own and manage all 22 national parks (Saayman, 2009:346).

South African National Parks has succeeded to build some of the most luxurious, affordable and extremely well-managed national parks offering tourists a unique nature-based tourism experience (Honey, 1999:341). Furthermore national parks should implement the five zoning areas in which it could aim at minimising the tourist impact on these prestige natural areas (Saayman, 2009:358; Page & Dowling, 2002:229). The latter ensures that ecotourism remains a unique and different sector within the tourism industry (Wood & Halpenny, 2001:122). Figure 2.3 indicates that ecotourism has a foundation on which it is formed and in order for a tourism destination such as a national park to be known as an ecotourism destination the four pillars must be in place. The successful implementation of these four pillars in a national park might result in a competitive advantage among ecotourism destinations. It is crucial that national parks implement and manage these pillars to ensure the sustainability of the park.

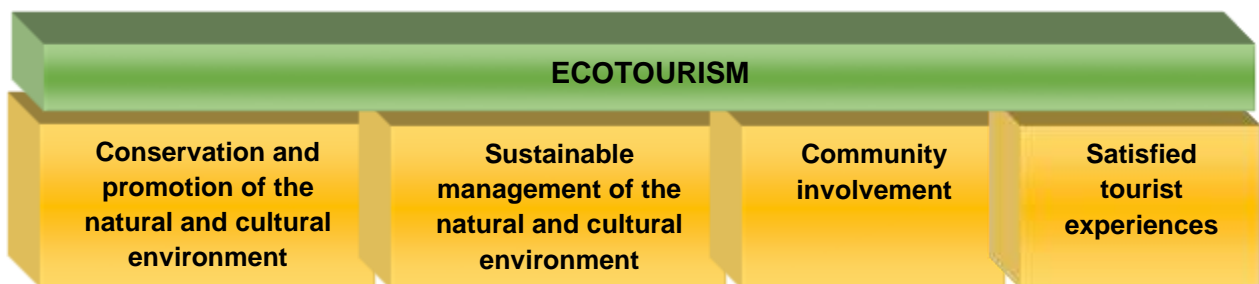


Figure 2.3: Four pillars for fundamental ecotourism management
Adapted from Geldenhuys (2009:3); Walker and Walker (2011:378)

Consequently, each of these pillars is discussed briefly.

a) Pillar 1: Conservation and promotion of the natural and cultural environment

The reason for decreeing national parks across the globe is to conserve natural and cultural environments. Furthermore, the decree of national parks increased over the years, indicating that there is constant competition among national parks to increase and retain visitors.

Therefore the first pillar is the most important pillar of ecotourism as conservation is the way in which natural resources are used to improve the quality of life, through effective and efficient management (Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert & Wanhill, 2005:791). Van Zyl (2008:349) adds that tourists tend to be more educated and travel to destinations with a rich history background and wants to learn more about the destination, the specific environment and attractions. Therefore the Kruger National Park should consider improving the offering of educational and interpretation activities throughout the Park's various rest camps. This might be a competitive advantage if tourists are satisfied with the service provided on guided game drives and walks to name but a few. Tourists having a better understanding and knowledge about a certain destination are more likely to talk to friends and family about the destination compared to a tourist which is not that interested in the educational component of an ecotourism destination. Ecotourism boasts a variety of activities such as guided tours, wildlife watching, and photography, relaxing next to the swimming pool or participation in community activities. However, the activities available depends on the destination (Walker & Walker, 2011:387). Engelbrecht (2011:93); Jurdana (2009:270); Luo and Deng (2007:393); Orams (1997); Bramwell and Lane (1993); Oliver (1992); Alcock (1991); O'Laughlin (1989); Roggenbuck (1987); as well as Hammit (1984); indicate that an educated nature-based tourist is usually also a more responsible tourist and will go to great lengths to ensure that conservation and protection of an area takes place. Therefore it is crucial to provide well-trained and informed field guides to interact with the tourist on game drives or hiking trails. As parks focus more on increasing the number of children through providing a family holiday destination, a key attraction for parents should be to teach children about the natural and cultural environments. However, all of this should still be completed within a sustainable framework.

b) Pillar 2: Sustainable management of the natural and cultural environment

Sustainability of the natural and cultural environment is vital to the existence of a national park. It is thus important for park management to make use of the zoning areas. These areas are designed in such a way that protection of the natural and cultural environment can take place whilst providing tourists with an unforgettable park experience (Saayman, 2009:375).

These zones are known as:

- **Conservation zone:** This zone is strictly for natural conservation purposes with tourist activities being monitored closely so that the damage to the environment is minimal to none. The development of any infrastructure is prohibited within these areas with the exception of water supply and marginal management infrastructure.
- **Tourist touring zone:** Parks are developed for conservation and recreational purposes and thus a large section of the park will be zoned for tourist recreation activities within the park to satisfy the tourists' needs. The development of tourist facilities and infrastructure should be done on the outskirts of the park and not the centre to minimise the carrying capacity to the interior of the park.
- **Exclusive touring zone:** Depending on the size of this zone, exclusive lodges can be developed in pristine natural settings in the park, but with minimal damage to the natural environment and with low carrying capacity. Concession fees affect these zones as well as the number of bed occupancy and capital costs.
- **Community zone:** One of the pillars of ecotourism is to have community participation. Areas in the park will be allocated for the local community and concessionaires to use for either game drives or harvesting plants for medicinal use. However, the tourists are not allowed to access this zone on their own.

Management has to ensure the implementation of the identified zones for the sustainability of the park. Also, exclusive touring zones should be offered to tourists, which could later evolve as a competitive advantage for the park. If a national park remains sustainable through the years, it should automatically obtain a competitive advantage as it showcases the sustainable management of natural, cultural and human resources.

c) Pillar 3: Community involvement

A community also attracts large numbers of tourists due to the curiosity of tourists on aspects such as the lifestyle of community members. According to Zeppel (2009:259) most of the decreed national parks across the globe is established on community grounds. The success of the parks depends on involving the local community. Community involvement at national parks is also extremely important as it influences the whole tourism product and experience. Usually the facilities of the park are based on the local communities' arts and crafts which reflect the lifestyle of the locals in the surrounding villages. In the case of South African national parks, the local community can provide a

real African experience with accommodation having a local influence, which in effect might be seen as a true African experience. When the decree of national parks comes into effect, often the local communities are not being considered and the community losses due to a national park can be of great concern. It is therefore important that national parks transfer these possible losses into economic benefits such as crafts shops, employment within the park, cultural tours and cultural educational activities for the tourists visiting the park (Archabald & Naughton-Treves, 2001:135; Fortin & Gagnon, 1999:200).

National parks have to start focusing on the importance involving the local community in the management of the park or park amenities (Zeppel, 2009:267; Bushell, Staiff & Eagles, 2007:2) as national parks tend to have great impact on the local communities (Fortin & Gagnon, 1999:200). National parks can assist the locals in starting tourism enterprises which locals can manage in the park such as lodges, guided tours, providing tourist services and to become part of governmental programmes or partnerships to promote the area, activities and attractions. If the local community are benefiting from the park and the manner in which it is managed, there would be collaboration between communities and park management in the protection and conservation of the natural and cultural environments (Archabald & Naughton-Treves, 2001:147). The community will also assist with issues such as poaching which is a huge concern for national parks in South Africa especially the Kruger National Park. The involvement of the community will assist in uplifting the locals and providing them a better quality of life. It is therefore important for park management to ensure that local communities form part of the national parks and in doing so assist with the conservation and sustainability for future generations (Honey, 1999:12).

d) Pillar 4: Tourist satisfaction

National parks have to ensure that the natural environment is conserved in a responsible manner and the protection of the natural and cultural environment is placed first (Wood & Halpenny, 2001:121). A very important aspect that park management need to understand is that the satisfaction levels of the park personnel will influence the satisfaction levels of the tourist, which will determine whether the park has a competitive advantage or not.

During the tourist's stay at a destination, there is interaction between the tourist, park personnel and local community (Kozak & Baloglu, 2011:101). Management has to ensure that each of these interactions between park personnel and tourists are of great quality. Thus management has the responsibility to equip park personnel to be well-trained and educated about the park and its services, good communication skills, friendliness and a helpful attitude amongst others. Ultimately, tourist satisfaction is to know the tourist's expectation regarding the products and services at the destination and to then know how to render the services to meet or even exceed the tourist's expectation (Kozak & Baloglu, 2011:103). Therefore ecotourism management have to ensure that regular surveys or feedback sessions are undertaken in order to be aware of the tourist's perception of the destination which in turn could lead to tourist loyalty (Kozak & Baloglu, 2011:104). Cant and Van Heerden (2013:1) argue that a well-informed customer, in this case tourist, will have a much greater understanding of the purchasing process and negotiating with service providers. National parks all strive towards the offering of a variety of products and services to satisfy each and every tourist need (Leberman & Holland, 2005:22) as this will increase loyalty and preference in future travel decisions. The satisfaction level of the tourist is mostly linked to the general management of the park that covers aspects such as human resources management and marketing management. The next section investigates the aspect of general management at tourism destinations.

2.6.2 General Management

Tourism destinations are becoming more and more competitive in the global market. This competitiveness results in an increase in pressure on existing tourism destinations to attract even more tourists and remain competitive. Competition among tourism destinations becomes more intense each time a destination improves its services and products. However, these improved services and products should still be managed in a sustainable manner to offer the tourist a memorable experience and to create a competitive advantage for the destination (Shirazi & Som, 2011:77; Bornhorst, Ritchie & Sheehan, 2010:572; Jonker, Heath & Du Toit, 2004:1). Therefore, national parks have to identify and manage its competitive advantage factors. If national parks fail to do so, the park may experience a decrease in tourist numbers as tourists might travel to other national parks that offer similar products and services in a way that satisfy the tourist needs (Sheng, Simpson & Siguaw, 2014:56; Elliot & Percy, 2007:5).

It is thus important that national parks maintain a balance between conserving the natural environment and attributes and satisfying the tourist needs to achieve a competitive advantage (Walker & Walker, 2011:51). If the three park management categories as shown in Figure 2.3 (ecotourism-, conservation-, and general management) are integrated and well-structured with the appropriate resources available, South African national parks can become one of the most competitive national parks across the globe.

In order for a national park to determine its competitive advantage factors, the park should have access to sufficient tourist data regarding tourist behavioural characteristics, motivation for travelling to the park, experiences and expectations as well as general demographic details. This detail will ensure effective marketing and management of park specific competitive advantage factors. The continuous updating of tourist information through questionnaires will provide the park's management with the necessary information on where improvements should be made in order to reach the expectations of tourists, leading to a competitive advantage for the park (Taplin, 2012:29). Oh (2001:622) explains that tourist perception and attitude towards a specific product or service are not only based on the tourist preferences and monetary exchange but also on the comparison of the product or service that is offered by other competitors. National park management should therefore ensure that park specific products and services are not only superior but cannot be matched by its competitors at all. This will give the parks the ultimate competitive advantage to retain the tourist market. Destinations such as national parks have to ensure that certain objectives are taken into consideration for successful management to take place.

These objectives are to:

- Develop and design a vision and mission statement that will portray the values and purpose of the destination;
- Provide tourists with a memorable experience through satisfying tourists' expectations;
- Ensure that the destination is profitable and sustainable;
- Employ local community members as well as provide skills and educational programmes to increase the employees quality of life; and
- Facilitate the sustainable usage of the social, cultural and natural heritage resources (Keyser, 2009:154).

These objectives of destination management can only be achieved through the implementation of the primary management functions. These functions involve the processes of planning, organising, leading as well as the controlling of human capital and other resources. All these functions form the fundamentals to manage a national park and to achieve its goals in an effective and efficient manner (Cook *et al.*, 2010:402; Nel, 2008:173; Saayman, 2002:22). Management processes require great and detail planning of which its success will only be visible in the long term. Sometimes it may be expensive and external environments can distract management from the goals and objectives to achieve success (Edgell, 2006:109). Therefore, national parks and protected areas have to be managed according to the definition of general management in order to achieve success and most importantly, a competitive advantage over other protected areas (Louw, 2013:20; Thompson & Martin, 2010:734). Once the primary function of management have been identified and determined, the various departments within a division should be investigated to identify how the division can assist in a destination, such as a national park, to obtain a competitive advantage. Saayman (2009:375) classifies three categories of management (see Figure 2.3). However, there are three main areas within general management that should be the focus of national parks. These areas are marketing management, human resource management and financial management. Each of these areas is discussed as well as how it adds value to a national park such as the Kruger National Park to be competitively positioned within the nature-based tourism sector.

a) Marketing Management

Marketing is defined by various authors as the philosophical process in which an organisation identifies and determines a need/expectation/want of consumers and develop/design/produce a product that will satisfy the need of the consumer through the use of a structured marketing strategy that will assist in the organisation achieving its goals and objectives (Cant & Van Heerden, 2013:2; Du Plessis, 2011:2; Moore, Petty, Palich & Longenecker, 2008:182; Mostert & Du Plessis, 2007:14; Shiffman & Kanuk, 2007: G-6; Saayman, 2006:2). Marketing plays a crucial role in any organisation and so much more with respect to national parks such as the Kruger National Park. If market research is not accurate, the Park may fail in reaching the correct target market as was identified to have a need for specific products and/or services (Haven-Tang & Jones, 2005:340). Inadequate marketing relates to the rivalry that may exist between competitors. It is therefore extremely important that national parks be innovative in the

delivery of effective promotional advertising to ensure that the target market is reached directly (Thompson & Martin, 2010:596). Therefore it is key that national parks identify its specific market opportunities through the following ways:

- Conducting a tourist analysis that might identify specific needs of tourists that have not yet been satisfied by any other destination;
- A market demand analysis to assist with the identification of marketing opportunities; and
- Analysing the competitive landscape is to identify and exploit market opportunities (Venter, 2010:15).

Saayman (2009:369) indicates that tourists are becoming more and more involved in nature-based activities and would like to conclude activities such as trekking, hiking and volunteering on game reserves just to enhance the ecotourism experience. If a national parks' marketing is effective and efficient it may lead to sustainability, profitability and future growth (Cant & Van Heerden, 2013:1) as well as an increase in tourist numbers. The overall responsibility of a national parks' marketing would be within the department of marketing unless it is a too large endeavour and additional resources are needed to assist with the implementation of a specific marketing campaign (Saayman, 2006:2).

Marketing management is a continuous process and implies the continuous identification, development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of marketing goals for an organisation, in this regard, a national park (Cant & Van Heerden, 2013:1; Saayman, 2006:2) to ensure good returns on time and money spent in attracting the tourists. Cant and Van Heerden (2013:24); Saayman (2009:369) as well as Mostert and Du Plessis (2007:4) suggest that the following marketing activities could have a huge impact on obtaining a competitive advantage if implemented, managed and controlled as suggested:

- Identify opportunities and threats within the marketing environment of the park;
- Identify opportunities that could be utilised in terms of the park's internal strengths and weaknesses;
- Capture and store data on markets;
- Identify specific target markets for the park;
- Determine the consumer's expectation with regards to which products and services are to be delivered;

- Determine the selling price of products and services of the park;
- Identify and determine the distribution channels that will be best suited for the park;
- Identify and implement specific marketing channels that will reach the relevant target market of the park, internationally and domestically;
- Decide on the selection, training, remuneration and motivation of marketing personnel;
- Organise, implement, monitor and evaluate the park's marketing activities; and
- Control the entire marketing process that the park has initiated.

Furthermore towards the tourism industry, Saayman (2006:1) suggests to employ that effective and efficient marketing managers who have comprehensive knowledge of the tourism industry systems and the main role players; have entrepreneurial traits in order to identify possible opportunities and threats that may occur; have exceptional social interactive and communication skills; good managerial skills and experience in working as part of a team; and always ensure that whatever is done adheres to the ethical code of conduct of the tourism industry as well as the specific park's ethical standards. This is key focus points for the marketing department of a national park to increase tourist numbers to the Park.

Consequently it is confirmed that successful management is based on the primary functions of general management. These functions are to lead, organise, plan and control. It is therefore important that the marketing department of a national parks such as the Kruger National Park plans strategically to, on the long-term, become a sustainable competitive national park (Cant & Van Heerden, 2013:26). Management of national parks should take into account that the tourism product that is on offer consists of three main components which are the tourist experience, physical product components and the service components (Saayman, 2006:7) of which at least two of the three should always be present in the production of a tourism product or service. The marketing department should always integrate its strategies and forecasts with other divisions or departments of the national park to align it through the various departments and working towards the same goal, which is to obtain a competitive advantage over other national parks. Therefore investing in the right target markets should show a return on investment (ROI) (Saayman, 2009:369) that will assist a park in obtaining a competitive advantage as well as increases the revenue generated through tourism.

b) Financial Management

The financial management in the case of a national park, is the function of monitoring the park's financial position. This function can be divided into three main functions namely the analysis of the parks; financial position, managing the parks' asset structure and managing the parks' financial structure (Lovemore & Brümmer, 2003:7). Financial management is a key department within any organisation and more so for a national park such as the Kruger National Park.

The management of the Kruger National Parks finances is extremely important, not only because it is responsible for the majority of South African National Parks income but is also one of the few national parks in South Africa that is managed with a profit (Mabunda & Wilson, 2009:118; Saayman & Saayman, 2008:70). Furthermore, it provides a variety of leisure, hospitality and tourism services that should be covered with the income generated (Saayman, 2002:249). This department is also responsible for the sourcing of additional income and therefore has to work closely with the marketing department especially with regards to new business.

The key to this department is to manage the organisations finances in such a way that the increase in new equipment, increase in salaries, building of infrastructure and maintenance of facilities should all be covered whilst the organisation still shows a profit at the end of the financial year (Thompson & Martin, 2010:595). However it is extremely difficult to upgrade facilities and cover all possible expenses without expecting the organisation to increase prices of products and services on offer. The other departments within an organisation should work closely with the financial department as aspects such as increased labour costs and supplier costs may lean towards the organisation losing its competitive advantage in terms of product and service pricing (Thompson & Martin, 2010:596). Ecotourism destinations such as the Kruger National Park are dependent on the generation of their own funds of which the majority are generated through tourism (Dharmaratne, Sang & Walling, 2000:591). It is therefore necessary that the right people are recruited and employed within the various functions of a national park, so that the park can maintain its competitive advantage through human resources.

c) Human Resource Management

The human resource management function covers various roles of which the effectiveness of an organisations employees are the most important aspect (Erasmus, 2013:304; Van Aswegen, 2012:2; Saayman; 2002:187). One of the main factors that distinguish competitors from one another is the way that organisations, such as South African National Parks' management team, influence, manage and treat employees. Haven-Tang and Jones (2005:342) indicated that a key threat to destinations' competitiveness is that of the employee's knowledge and skills to provide quality service delivery. As tourism is mostly a service product, employees are unable to provide the exact same levels of quality upon delivery.

Truss, Mankin and Kelliher (2012:107) state that the human capital and resources available to organisations constitute the competitive advantage through the recruitment and employment of high quality and skilled employees that will assist with the organisation in obtaining a competitive advantage. Amos, Ristow, Ristow and Pearse (2008:7) add that competitive advantage does not only rely on the products produced by organisations, but in the employees and the manner in which employees are managed to strive towards competitive advantage. It is therefore crucial that national parks invest in employees through skills development, employing the right people with the relevant qualifications as well as continuous training and uplifting courses. It remains a struggle for organisations to retain well skilled, educated and experienced employees. However, if the organisation succeed then these employees will add high value to a park and will also assist in the park obtaining a competitive advantage through its human resources (Erasmus, 2013:303). Management of a national park should understand that the employees in the park are regarded as assets for the park, and should not be seen as factors of production. A parks' employees can add great value to the delivering of park specific products and services if the relevant skills and knowledge is provided to them in an attempt to increase quality service delivery to tourists (Van Aswegen, 2012:4; Haven-Tang & Jones, 2005:342; Saayman; 2002:187). In order for a national park to be competitive based on the human resources component, the park management need to first recruit and employ the local people that either has or is able to learn the specific skills.

Thereafter the park should embark on continuous training or workshops for employees to increase and improve the employees' skills on the specific aspect to become an asset to the park. The employees should use these skills and knowledge at all times to improve the product and service offering within the park so that a competitive advantage can be achieved. National parks should consider the following aspects with regards to human resources to obtain a competitive advantage for the parks:

- Ensure that the employees add value to the park, and that can only be done through the employees having high levels of skills that could add value to the tourist and the park;
- Special or scarce skills people should be recruited and retained for those specific positions;
- Although the majority of national parks are managed the same way, each park have its own specific unique aspects which have them apply skills, knowledge and abilities different to other parks, this could also be regarded as a competitive advantage for the Park if the processes is working well and towards profit; and
- The human resources function cannot be substituted in any way within a large organisation such as a national park (Truss *et al.*, 2012:107).

Haven-Tang and Jones (2005:344) therefore emphasise the fact that management at tourism destinations needs to provide continuous skills and training development programmes with regards to human resources management in order to manage employees to the optimal level. It will also enable them to identify possible skills shortage that could assist the destination in obtaining a competitive advantage through its human resources. The way in which the individuals then apply skills, knowledge and abilities together with their behaviour will ultimately determine the level of service quality being delivery by the employees which will add on to the organisation's competitive advantage (Boxall, 1998:267; Wright, McMahan & McWilliams, 1994:304). This will add on to the objectives that a destination, such as the Kruger National Park, should achieve in order to be a successful managed destination with a competitive advantage. Thus, the successful implementation of general management in a national park is crucial for obtaining a competitive advantage and should be a focus of parks. However, parks should keep in mind that the general management function does not offer the skills and knowledge of ecotourism and conservation management. Therefore, park management should always incorporate its general management with these two park specific management categories.

2.6.3 Conservation Management

The protection of ecotourism destinations is an important factor for governments and conservation organisations such as the South African National Parks and the private sector (Honey, 1999:11). National parks play host to tourist travelling for recreational purposes such as 4x4 drives, hiking trails, bush walks, game drives, bird watching, education on wildlife and a true bush experience. However, the conservation management of a national park has a huge responsibility to ensure that a couple of aspects are in place to conserve and protect the park towards sustainability. These aspects are each explained below.

- a) **Wildlife management:** conservation management needs to ensure that the flora in the park is appropriate for the wildlife that is held in the park or will be introduced in the park. The natural environment and biomes in the Kruger National Park only allows certain wildlife, for example Oryx is not found in the park due to the habitat which is different to its normal circumstances. Together with the wildlife introduction is the release, capturing and holding pens and bomas to ease the introduction of wildlife in the park. The necessary infrastructure needs to be put into place so that when animals are caught or released, the impact will be minimal and as natural as possible.

- b) **Wildlife population:** knowing the numbers of animals in the park is very important for conservation management, as it determines whether there will be enough food and water supply for the animals. It will also determine the numbers of growth or deaths in the park over a certain period. Diseases in the park can influence the animal numbers and if not recognised well in advance, it could have an enormous negative effect on the animal population in the park. Therefore conservation management have to be aware of the diseases that may occur in the park and try to manage these diseases so that the impact is minimal on the animal populations. One example is the mouth-and-foot disease or Tuberculosis which is often to be found in buffalo herds. The population of herbivores in a national park need to be introduced with extreme caution as there is a variety of habitat and to provide all the herbivores in the park with enough food is a big management task.

The predators also have to be populated in such a way that the herbivore numbers still stays more or less the same and that the predators have enough to feed from and do not jump fences to get to the local communities' cattle or goats. If animals become troublesome, such as predators jumping fences or elephants breaking fences, conservation management needs to intervene and capture or remove these animals from the park. For example, the Kruger National Park embarked on an effective programme to manage the baboons and vervet monkeys in the rest camps and picnic sites. Camp personnel patrol areas and have a “ketty” at hand to scare monkeys off if the monkeys tend to be a problem at picnic sites or rest camps. The “ketty” is used to shoot a small stone towards the animals which then take off from the area. This project has so far been very successful and the monkeys and baboons are not that much of a problem at rest camps and picnic areas. However, conservation management are still managing these animals.

- c) Environmental management:** Conservation's main objective is to ensure that the local and indigenous plants and wildlife together with the culture of the surrounding area are being preserved. Removal of all alien plants in the park is of essence and needs to be replaced with indigenous plants in order to prevent any form of soil erosion. The park furthermore needs to implement an annual veld-burning programme to ensure that bush infringement does not occur and that most pests like ticks and fleas are terminated in the fire.

- d) Water management:** Water points not always originate from natural sources. However in parks with large areas with no access to water, conservation management can develop artificial watering points for the animals which can also be great during dry seasons. Conservation management can save huge amount of water through the effective usage of water within the park's rest camps and picnic facilities. Park management can try to reuse waste water for the natural environment such as gardens. Furthermore management can make an effort to limit the type of shampoo and soaps tourists and laundry services apply that cause damage to the environment.

- e) **Waste and removal management:** The first thing that conservation management need to undertake before animals are allowed into new land is that all structures such as old farm houses, buildings and fences are removed to ensure animal safety. These structures may injure the wild animals as the animals are not use to having these types of structures in the natural environment. There needs to be a clear definition between hard and soft waste and how to go about to remove it and where possible recycling of the waste should be done.

- f) **Green management or recycling:** a number of studies have found that green management is becoming a very important managerial aspect and especially within national parks. Therefore recycling bins and the use of more environmentally friendly products needs to be implemented. These include the use of solar panels for chalets and camping facilities and non-toxic cleaning products to name but a few.

- g) **Visitor management:** This function is mainly the responsibility of the ecotourism management team. However, the three park management categories are interrelated and conservation management also has a role to play. Conservation management has to ensure that the right educational facilities and programmes are being developed and presented to the tourist in order to ensure that conservation and protection of natural and cultural environments are promoted. Also, it is the responsibility of the conservation management team to determine the carrying capacity to prevent the park as a mass tourism destination. This is done through the control of the number of tourists entering the park at one time. Tourist carrying capacity has a huge effect on the environment as tourist numbers influence the waste, water and infrastructure.

Conservation management can make use of the following very important rules for ecotourism attractions and destination, ensuring that conservation takes place. The natural environment needs to be respected and looked well after not only by the park but also with the assistance of the tourists in preserving the park's unique and beautiful natural and cultural landscapes.

1. Be non-consumptive at ecotourism destinations by only leaving footprints and taking of photos.
2. Education and interpretation is a vital key into the understanding of ecotourism products and services, therefore take time to get educated about the destination or attraction.
3. Have respect for the local community and its traditions, make sure that permission is given for photographing of animals and/ or interacting with them as the locals may be offensive towards the tourist due to high carrying capacity.
4. Make sure that the products purchased are environmentally friendly, that no plants or animals were used or killed to produce the product, such as ivory, rhino horn, abalone and shell fish.
5. Always keep to the designated trail or road as allocated by the park management. Going off these trails or roads may cause damage to the natural environment.
6. Take part in conservation projects or conservation orientated programmes to promote the importance of conserving and protecting the natural environment.
7. Increase green awareness through making use of hiking trails, if driving switch engines off when stopping for a long durations near animal or bird sites.
8. Make use of tourism enterprises which promotes and make use of greener products and services to conserve the natural environment.
9. Travel to the nearest travel agent and ask for tourism enterprises which bound themselves to greener management strategies (Travelsense.org, 2014; Walker & Walker, 2010:391; American Society of Travel Agents, cited in Edgell, 2006:50; Wood, 2002:13).

Conservation management should keep in mind that tourists are needed to generate revenue for conservation to be sustainable. Therefore ecotourism management general management and conservation management are vital to the success of a national park's survival and competitiveness. Park management have to ensure that these three categories of park management are managed effectively and efficiently. Figure 2.3 indicates the importance of the three management categories with regards to national parks being an ecotourism destination. These three park management categories should take into consideration the four pillars of ecotourism when managing the park. To add on to this discussion, previous research on national parks has been consulted to determine the importance of managing a national park such as the Kruger National Park.

2.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter explained that national parks forms part of nature-based tourism. However, due to its complexities national parks are often referred to as ecotourism destinations. The implementation of the three park management categories could easily assist the effective and efficient management of a national park. The implementation of the three integrated managerial categories could have huge implications in the management of a park as it addresses the main concerns that a national park might struggle with or might cause to excel. It is important for the sustainability and profitability of national parks that management re-consider its current management structure and rather adapts to the three categories of management. The chapter also analysed previous research to determine which components of management have been research previously and to identify possible gaps in the literature regarding the topic. No previous research, specifically on South African national parks; competitive position, has been done. Therefore the gap was identified to determine the competitive advantage factors of the countries' national parks by using the Kruger National Park as a case study, based on the views of tourists to finally develop a competitiveness model for the parks.

The next chapter will discuss competitiveness, competitive advantage and comparative advantage in more detail. Also, more attention to tourism destination management will be given in the following chapter. This will provide clarity on the implementation and management of competitiveness within the context of a national park.

CHAPTER 3: AN ANALYSIS OF COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGES

Success isn't measured by money or power or social rank. Success is measured by your discipline and inner peace.

Mike Ditka

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the few industries across the globe that showed increased growth over the past few decades despite aspects such as the 9/11 terrorist attack, war in the middle east, and the worldwide economic recession in 2009 (UNWTO, 2014:2; Hong, 2008:1; Jones & Haven-Tang, 2005:1). However, tourism being a growing industry has millions of tourists travelling across international borders as well as within. This has resulted in the continuous growth of the industry (Vanhove, 2005:16). Dwyer and Kim (2003:370) emphasise that all tourism destinations have different types of competitive advantage factors at different times. Therefore it is important the existing advantage factors be improved and additional advantage factors being added for tourism destinations.

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) tourism has a 9% impact on the world Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Tourism have a number of impacts on the global community of which one is that one out of 11 work opportunities that are provided falls within the tourism industry. Also, tourism accounts for approximately 1.4 trillion US\$ in exports which is about 6% of the world's exports. Moreover, the increase of international tourists rose from 25 million in 1950 to an astonishing 1.087 million people in 2013. An average of 5.5 billion people represented domestic tourists. The UNWTO forecasts for 2020 a record of 1.8 billion people to travel across the globe as tourists (UNWTO, 2014:2). The National Department of Tourism (NDT) indicated that domestic trips should be increased to 32.1 million by 2018 and international arrivals should tally to 15 million by 2020. This will have an impact of R499 billion on the South African gross domestic product (GDP) and will create an estimated 225 000 new job opportunities (NDT, 2014:8).

Risteski, Kocevski and Arnaudov (2012:379) indicate that tourism is an extreme unstable, complex and aggressively competitive industry. The only way that organisations could possibly survive in such unstable and complex industries is to depend on the competitiveness of the organisation and the identification of competitive advantages (Ambastha & Momaya, 2004:45). Tourism destinations that achieve a competitive advantage have the ability to not only increase the tourist numbers to the destination but furthermore increase tourist expenditure and provide quality products and services that is of satisfactory value resulting in the tourist having a memorable experience (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:2). This should all take place in the destinations consulting and working together with the local communities and ensure that the natural and cultural environment is conserved for future generations (Coetzee & Saayman, 2009:124; Porter, 1985:3; WCED, 1978:7). Adding to the latter, Jones and Haven-Tang (2005:1) indicate that for a tourist destination to achieve a competitive advantage within the tourism industry is both unique and quite difficult, taking into account the large numbers of tourist travelling across the globe to various tourism destinations.

Therefore the argument can be made that sustainability of a tourism destination is depended on the competitive advantages of the destination itself. As indicated in Chapter 2, national parks can achieve a competitive advantage through the use of tourism as it will increase the economic development within the park and surroundings, lead to an increase in income and the employment of local community members, provide funding for the infrastructure of the park, and the most important aspect to provide funding for conservation purposes (Buultjens *et al.*, 2005:733). National parks should adapt Poon's (1993:24) strategy of placing the environment first, use the environment to make tourism a leading industry, increase the reliability of the distribution channels in the marketplace and finally, provide the necessary support to build a dynamic private sector that will drive this process. This strategy should however be adapted and implemented in conjunction with Ritchie and Crouch's (2003) competitiveness model as well as Porters five competitive forces (Porter, 2008a:25).

Therefore the aim of this chapter is to investigate the aspects pertaining to a nature-based tourism destination, such as the national parks, in obtaining and maintaining a competitive advantage that will ensure sustainability and organisational profitability within the highly competitive tourism market (Vodeb, 2012:273; Fabricius, Carter & Standford, 2007:41; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:2; Mihalic, 2000:76).

The chapter is structured to discuss the basic concepts and theories of competitiveness and competitive advantage and then explain how national parks (often regarded as nature-based tourism destinations) can enhance destination competitiveness. Following the theories and role of national parks in creating a competitive advantage, previous research on competitive advantage are discussed. The various competitive advantage strategies are also explained which the national parks could implement from a management perspective to obtain a competitive advantage.

3.2 DEFINING AND UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPT OF COMPETITIVENESS VERSUS COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

The following section discusses the concepts of competitiveness and competitive advantage with respect to the tourism industry with specific focus on national parks.

3.2.1 Competitiveness

Ambastha and Momaya, (2004:45) indicate that there are many theories regarding competitiveness. However, these are not used within the various disciplinary fields, such as strategy, economics, operations and resourced based views to enhance competitiveness. Competitiveness is one of the most popular terms applied in various academic disciplines such as economics, management and political sciences (Hong, 2008:4). Yet, within the field of tourism the various competitiveness studies that have been done were not as much on nature-based tourism destinations like national parks. Competitiveness can only be obtained once competitive advantage factors have been identified that can be managed in order to achieve a competitive market position within a specific sector or industry. According to the authors in Table 3.1, competitiveness can be obtained if the components in the definitions are followed and managed as proposed.

Table 3.1: Definitions on competitiveness

Author(s)	Definition
Report of the President’s Commission on Industrial Competitiveness (1985:5)	“Competitiveness for a nation is defined as the degree to which it can, under free and fair market conditions, produce goods and services that meet the test of international markets while simultaneously maintaining and expanding the real income of its citizens.”

Newall (1991:1)	"Competitiveness is about producing more and better quality goods and services that are marketed successfully to consumers abroad. It leads to well-paying jobs and to the generation of the resources required to provide an adequate infrastructure of public services and also support the disadvantaged. Competitiveness speaks directly to whether a nation's economy can provide a high and rising standard of living for our children and grandchildren."
Buhalis (2000:12)	"Competitiveness can be defined as the effort and achievement of long term profitability, above the average of the particular industry within which they operate as well as above alternative investment opportunities in other industries."
Ritchie and Crouch (2003:2)	"What makes a tourism destination truly competitive is its 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 well-being of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations."
Garelli (2004:730)	"Competitiveness of nations looks how nations create and maintain an environment which sustains the competitiveness of its enterprises."
Hong (2008:6)	"The relative competitiveness position (in terms of profits and growth) of a nation's tourism industry in the global market, including developed and developing countries, which could therefore increase the real income of its citizens and improve its standard of living."
Venter (2013b:230-231)	"Competitiveness can be regarded as those organisations that identified distinctive resources and/or capabilities that are of great value for customers and are regarded as being a scarce product or service to which they are willing to pay a specific price to interact, experience or take ownership of the product or service."

The definitions provided in Table 3.1 have all certain aspects that link with one another and can be regarded as the most important aspects for a destination to obtain competitiveness. Key areas that destinations should focus on to achieve competitiveness are the increase in consumers' expenditure; identifying the right target market; develop and design specific products and services that will satisfy the needs of the target market; increase the living standard of the local community; and that resources should be used in a responsible manner. Ambastha and Momaya (2004:56) add that competitiveness within an organisation is a vital process that should be followed within the strategic management, human resources management, operational management and technological management functions. This will provide management with the opportunity to manage the competitive advantage factors appropriately to the destination to be regarded as competitive within the tourism industry. However, the latter can only be achieved once the destination has identified its competitive advantage factors. The next section discusses competitive advantage and explains how it links with competitiveness.

3.2.2 Competitive advantage

Michael Porter (1985:xv), who is recognised as the father of competitiveness, indicates that organisations and business have to develop competitive strategies which can be used in order to achieve a competitive advantage (Huggins & Izushi, 2011:5; Porter, 2008c:xv; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:2). Porter (1985:1; 2008:3) indicated that competition is at the core of an organisation achieving success. The first step to developing a competitive advantage is to determine if the destination is attractive, the availability of the supporting infra- and suprastructures and whether future development can take place to increase profitability and sustainability in the long term. All of these aspects can be linked to the strategic thinking of managers within the given destination. Secondly, management will have to determine the possibility of becoming competitive within that specific sector (Porter, 1985:1; 2008:4), which in this case is the nature-based tourism sector with specific focus on the improvement of national parks as competitive destinations. In Table 3.2 there are a few definitions on competitive advantage that was derived from Michael Porter's initial definition over the years.

Table 3.2 also highlights the key aspects that destinations within the tourism industry should consider when moving towards obtaining a competitive advantage.

Table 3.2: Definitions on competitive advantage

Author(s)	Definition
Page and Connell (2014:473)	“A greater lead by an organisation gained over its other competitors by offering better value, quality, services or brands.”
Bornhorst, Ritchie and Sheehan (2010:572)	“With substitution among destinations being pervasive, competitive advantage requires the ability to effectively manage all components of the tourism system to ensure success is achieved.”
Thompson and Martin (2010:78)	“The ability of an organisation to add more value for its customers than its rivals, and thus attain a position of relative advantage. The challenge is to sustain any advantage once achieved.”
Hong (2008:54)	“Tourism competitive advantages arise from effectively using the resource endowments of a tourism destination to attract potential tourists. Additionally, competitive advantages provide insight into the reallocation strategy of different tourism resource endowments to modify existing comparative advantages.”
Dwyer and Kim (2003:372)	“For a tourism destination, comparative advantage would relate to inherited or endowed resources such as climate, scenery, flora, fauna, etc., while competitive advantage would relate to such created items as the tourism infrastructure (hotels, attractions, and transport network), festivals and events, the quality of management, skills of workers, government policy and so on.”

The definitions provided in Table 3.2 links to a few similar components that should be included in a competitive advantage definition for a national park. These include natural and cultural resources, the management of the various aspects within the destinations, adding value to products and services and sustainability. Therefore it can be said that for a national park to achieve a competitive advantage the park should ensure the conservation of the natural and cultural environment through the implementation of skilled and experienced human resources that would protect and manage the natural resources in a responsible way.

Furthermore, a national park should strive to increase the value of its products and services to the tourist through skills development and training of employees that will ensure quality being delivered as well as uplifting the community through skills development. Competitive advantage is integrated with comparative advantages and national parks should take both these aspects into consideration when working towards obtaining competitiveness.

3.2.3 Competitive advantage versus comparative advantage

According to Middleton *et al.* (2009:197) competitiveness revolves around the prospective tourists' needs and wants and not necessarily around the further development of products or services that is already on offer. Nature-based tourism destinations, especially national parks, have to understand that in order to obtain a competitive advantage within the nature-based tourism industry; national parks have to identify competitive advantage factors that are unique and specific to the national park, which in turn would satisfy the expectations and needs of tourists. In their definition of competitiveness, Dwyer and Kim (2003:372) make clear reference to the difference between comparative and competitiveness factors. However, the comparative factors lead to the destination obtaining a competitive advantage. National parks have to understand the value of natural-, cultural-, and human resources (Venter, 2013b:230) as well as the value of the products and services that the park is offering to tourists (Porter, 1985:3). Value is referred to as the relationship between quality, quantity and price and how these three aspects if combined, add value to a product or service (Du Plessis, 2002:40). Park management should be able to make a clear distinction between competitive and comparative factors (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:372). In the case of park management being negligent towards these resources it will have an impact on the competitive advantage of the park itself (Shirazi & Som, 2011:77).

Hong (2008:54) defines comparative advantages as: *“tourism exogenous comparative advantages are those resource endowments which cannot be changed by any endogenous factor in the correspondent country’s economic system. Conversely, tourism endogenous comparative advantages are those resource endowments which are more easily changed by endogenous factors, such as physical/human capital investment and technological innovation, in the correspondent country’s economic system”*.

Risteski *et al.* (2012:380) indicate that competitive advantage is the “*ability to mobilise and allocate resources – overview of inventory (governmental involvement), maintenance (industrial growth), growth and development (companies), efficiency and effectiveness (different interest groups)*”. If an organisation specialises in the production of certain products and services that is up to a standard that is maintained and hard to surpass, these products and services can be regarded as comparative advantages (Smit, 2010:109). Comparative advantages are defined as the “*availability of resources – human, natural, and physical; knowledge; capital; infrastructure and tourism superstructure; historical and cultural resources; and the size of the economy*”. Table 3.3 indicates the competitive advantage according to Hong (2009:112–115) that would assist a destinations such as national parks in identifying park specific competitive advantage factors.

Table 3.3: Competitive advantage indicators for a destinations such as national parks

Indicator	Aspects to consider
Infrastructure investments	Accessibility design, accommodation facilities, transportation network, characteristics of the food.
Strategic planning	Enhancing the tourism industry for maximum benefit and creating new and exciting tourism related activities within the park environment.
Maintaining resources	Continuous maintenance of facilities and equipment within the park, conservation protection divisions for example anti-poaching unit, managing carrying capacity during peak season, maintaining the technologically advanced equipment for protection services.
Monitoring resources	Determining the resource input and output analysis as well as monitoring the availability of resources and emergency response systems if necessary.
Growth and development	Determine the impact that the park and its resources will have on the economic as well as the social impact and development of the local community.

Operational performance	The effectiveness of the operational aspects within the park as well as the delivery of quality services and products.
Facilitating resources	Additional resources that the park can implement to make the tourist experience memorable and satisfying in the needs of tourist.

Source: Adapted from Hong 2009 (112-115)

Taking the latter into account with regards to the definition by Dwyer and Kim (2003) and Hong (2008), comparative factors that national park management would refer to include for example the exceptional wildlife viewing opportunities and biodiversity that the Park has to offer, geological and archaeological displays, cultural heritage and history of the Park and the climate which makes it an all year-round destination (Braack, 2006:29). The aspects within the national parks that will have them obtaining a competitive advantage would be aspects such as quality service delivery at restaurants, cleaning of accommodation and rest camp facilities, quality service delivery at reception, exceptional tourist management plans and policies, quality built chalets and clean camping sites, continuous maintenance on infra- and suprastructure, the promotion of educational activities with a focus on children at the various historical and natural conservation sites within the park to increase tourist awareness on the importance of conservation.

National parks should use its resources and unique attributes to design an attractive tourist specific destination that can offer products and services to international, local and regional tourists all at once (Hong, 2008:3; Mihalic, 2000:78), satisfying the tourists' expectations and needs which might lead towards the national park obtaining a competitive advantage. In order for the park to sustain its competitive advantage the identified factors have to be continuously improved and supported with innovative ideas (Thompson & Martin, 2010:207; Jones & Haven-Tang 2005:2) that is grounded on the motivations and tourists' behavioural characteristics. In an ever changing tourism environment, national parks have to consider tourist behaviour and motivations, tourists' needs and expectations when implementing competitive strategies to ensure that a competitive advantage is obtained and maintained (Poon, 1993:62) through the lifetime of a national park such as the Kruger National Park.

The park's competitive advantage factors is based on the fundamentals of the park management's manner in which the tourists' experience in the offering of quality products and services is experienced all year round. This is a powerful tool to retain visitors and have the park retaining its competitive advantage (Stankovic & Petrovic, 2007:13). Ritchie and Crouch (2003:25) indicate that a good competitiveness model can be developed from the competitive and comparative advantage factors of a destination. In order to gain a better understanding of the ways in which a competitive advantage can be reached, a few competitive advantage theories and models are discussed in the following sections.

3.3 BACKGROUND ON COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

Competitive advantage can be regarded as an organisations capability to specialise in or with specific products or services that is supported and designed through the use of special characteristics in order to achieve the desired objectives of the organisation (Hong, 2008:33). In this case conservation and sustainability of the natural and cultural biodiversity's within the national parks are the main focus. Competitive strategies, theories and models are fundamental to tourism organisations, especially national parks, mainly to ensure that continuous profitability, sustainability, globalisation and excellent market position within the tourism sector is offered (Hong, 2008:3; Venter, 2013a:200; Porter, 1985:1). Tourism destinations and organisations are in constant competition with each other as it determines whether the destination will be successful or not in the tourism industry. Based on the previous global tourist travelling information as presented by the UNWTO (2014:2), tourism destinations will have to increase its competitive advantage to attract as much of the majority of tourists as they possibly could. Competitive advantage is determined by the innovation, cohesive culture, and implementation of strategies and plans of organisations to obtain a competitive advantage. Through the achievement of competitive advantage, one of the factors that aids to maintaining the position is profitability of the destination or attraction over the long term (Mihalic, 2000:76; Porter, 1985:4).

In order for a tourism organisation to become competitive there are five major forces which tourism destination, such as national parks, can use to their advantage in order to obtain a competitive advantage (Cant, Brink & Brijball, 2006:42; Porter, 1985:4).

Hong (2008:10) adds that if tourism destinations, such as national park's managerial activities and responsibilities are focused on maintaining a positive image and experience through the development and management of current comparative factors such as wildlife, climate, geology and biodiversity, a competitive advantage would remain. Due to tourism being more of an intangible than tangible product, the quality of service delivery plays an important role. However, these managerial activities should be supported by the five forces model. Du Plessis (2002:32) adds that the additional value that organisations add to products and services head up competitive advantage. Therefore, national parks should organise and perform managerial activities in a discrete manner to ensure that a competitive advantage is established. The additional value to products and services can only be added through the analysing of the five forces that influence an organisation's managerial activities and decisions.

3.3.1 Porter's five forces of competitiveness

Porter (1985:4) emphasises the importance of attractiveness towards a product or service in obtaining a competitive advantage. However, organisations should adhere to the rules of competition that is embedded in the five competitive forces, namely the entry of new competitors, the threat of substitutes, the bargaining power of buyers, the bargaining power of suppliers and the rivalry among the existing competitors (Porter, 1985:4; 2008c:4). As Porter's five forces model was initially developed to determine the profitability of industries, it has changed in that organisations used the model as a tool to analyse the environment and determine potential competition within its respective industries (Thompson, Scott & Martin, 2014:124-125; Venter, 2013a:200). Thompson *et al.* (2014:125) add that organisations should take care not to focus only on the immediate competitors but also consider the additional four forces as the impact might still be high on the organisation if ignored. Cant *et al.* (2006:42) emphasise that tourism destination managers should use these five forces to their advantage in obtaining a competitive advantage and remain competitive within the given industry.

The five forces model that was initially designed by Michael Porter, differs from industry to industry and therefore it has been adapted for the tourism industry with a special focus on national parks (see Figure 3.1). These forces determine the ability of national parks to earn on average, and rates of return on investments in excess of the parks' capital costs (Venter, 2013a:200-201; Ehlers, 2009:78; Porter, 1985:5; 2008a:26).

The five forces rely all on the structure of the industry as well as the technical components of the industry. If changes to the industry structure occur, it might have a positive or negative effect on the profitability of the park. Therefore it is important to keep the structure stable during changes or adaption stages. National parks have to use these five forces to determine how the competitors and tourists will react to the products and services that the park wants to implement in future (Porter, 1985:7). National parks should investigate each of the five forces in advance before identifying the competitive advantage strategies that should be implemented for the park to obtain a competitive advantage. Each of these forces is discussed below and focuses on how it will affect a national park. Examples pertaining towards the case study, i.e. the Kruger National Park will also be used to illustrate the impact of these forces.

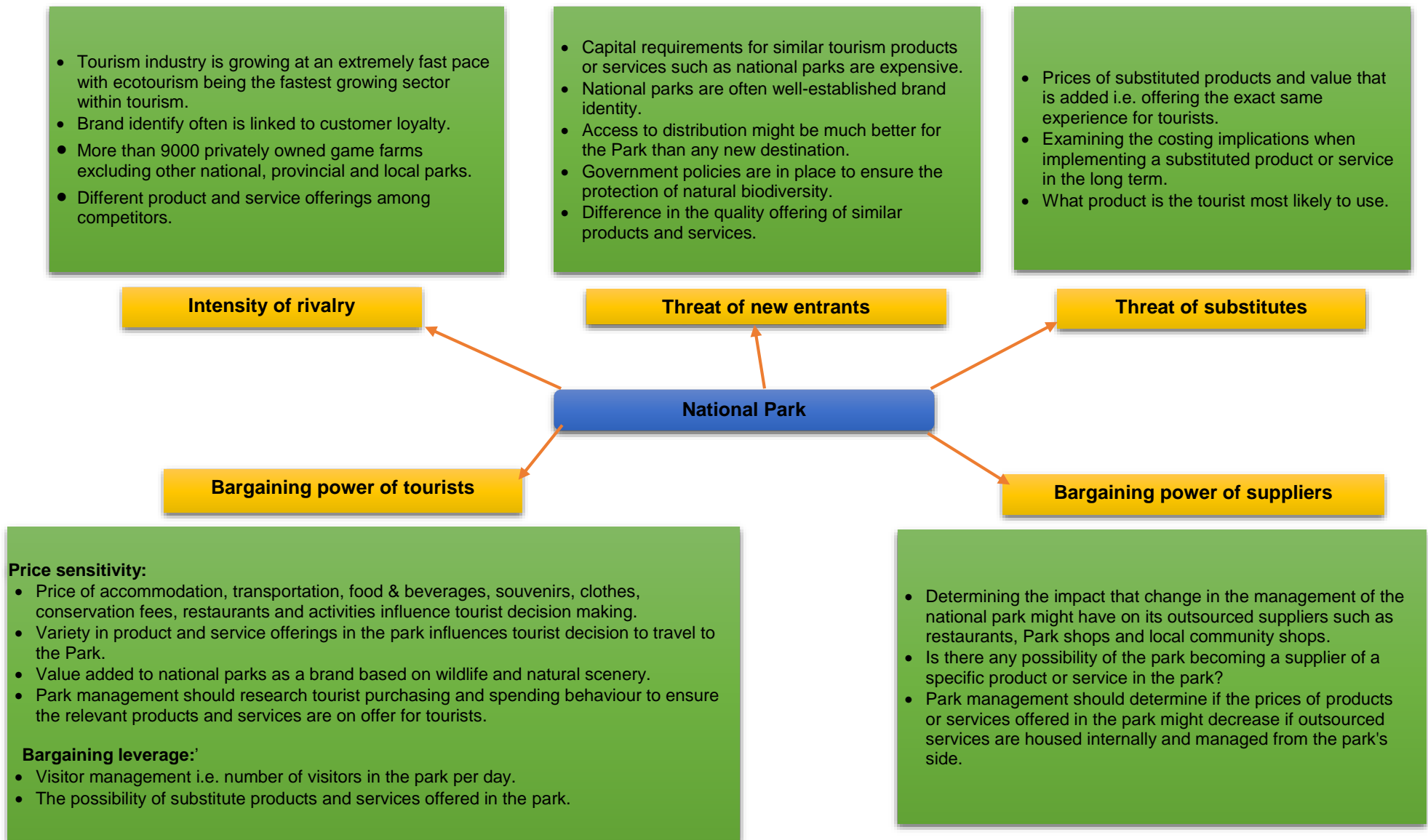


Figure 3.1: Porter's five forces of competitiveness in the view of a national park
 Source: Adapted from Venter (2013a:201); Vanhove (2005:109); Du Plessis (2002:31) and Porter (1985:5)

3.3.1.1. Threat of new entrants in the nature-based tourism sector

If there is any breakthrough in any market, sector or industry that shows significant positive profits and extreme market share growth, anyone and everyone becomes involved based on the profitability behind this new breakthrough (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Venter, 2013a:203; Ehlers, 2009:80). New entrants all strive to gain a large market share whilst bringing in a brand new facility or activity which often leads to a substantial number of resources available to support all the tourism destinations to deteriorate (Ehlers, 2009:80; Porter, 2004:7). Vanhove (2005:109) adds that new entrants have an impact on the prices of products and services as well as the differentiation that may come about in order to enter the market and obtain high market share. Therefore it is important that destinations ensure that the right barriers are set in place to minimise the entrance of new tourism organisations to the sector. Remaining competitive is a challenge for any national park, as there are substantial increases each year on new entrants in the various tourism sectors (Vanhove, 2005:110). There are a few barriers which destination managers have to be aware of and which can be used to ensure that new entrants do occur on a regular basis (Venter, 2013a:204; Huggins & Izushi, 2011:5; Ehlers, 2009:80; Vanhove, 2005:110; Porter, 2004: 7). A national park has the ability and power to use these aspects to its advantage in minimising the number of new entrants into the nature-based tourism sector. Aspects that the afore-mentioned authors have identified regarding competitiveness and competitive advantage, include:

- *Economies of scale*: In order to be profitable and sustainable in the nature-based tourism industry with similar products such as wildlife, the capital expenditure, starting costs, running costs and general expenses may be a threat to new entrants (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Venter, 2013a:203). If a new entrant wishes to join the market with limited investment the new entrant would start with a cost disadvantage of which a substantial difference would be required to have customers make use of the product or service that might be more expensive than the current product or service available (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Thompson & Martin, 2010:91).

The Kruger National Park has been in business for about 150 years. Therefore the Park's expenses are more or less fixed as well as the necessary capital that is needed to expand or increase products and services. Thus, there would be a lesser impact on the financial status as supposed to brand new entrants. However, management of the Park's financial stance is extremely important for future profitability and sustainability.

- *Product and service differentiation:* Differentiation exists in the offering of a specific, unique and high quality product that is not offered by any other competitor (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Venter, 2013a:203) and it should differentiate the new entrant completely from the current service or product provider (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Thompson & Martin, 2010:91). In order to break this barrier, the competitor would need to introduce intensive marketing and promotion which is expensive and does not guarantee a return-on- investment (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Venter, 2013a:204; Thompson & Martin, 2010:91). The case of a national park such as the Kruger National Park, the spectacular wildlife viewing, plant life as well as the variety of species both plants and animals, and climate resulted in tourist loyalty as there is no other park alike, offering all of this and more in one destination. However, an important task for the Park's management is to administer and control these products and services appropriately so that the competitive advantage is maintained and tourists loyalty ensured. Word-of-mouth also plays a key role as the Kruger National Park is an established brand with a reputation that markets itself, as the majority of tourists are aware of the Kruger National Park.
- *Capital requirements:* To enter the tourism industry especially with the focus on wildlife offering, a substantial amount of capital investment is needed which makes it even more difficult for new entrants to compete with large organisations that have been in existence for many years (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Venter, 2013a:203). New entrants may want to invest on capital equipment, research and development or advertising and promotion that is focused on the specific brand and product or service delivery which might be extremely expensive (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Thompson & Martin, 2010:91; Vanhove, 2005:110).

In the case of the Kruger National Park, for any other possible entrant it would be difficult to compete with the Kruger National Park considering the large conservation land, the variety in animal and plant species, the products and services on offer as well as the prices of these products and services. Furthermore, the Kruger National Park is a world-wide established brand, which makes it even more difficult for new entrants to compete with.

- *Switching costs:* an aspect that the customer, in this case the tourist, should consider, namely whether to change to the new entrant even if the same product or service is at an increased price compared to the previous supplier (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Thompson & Martin, 2010:91). The Kruger National Park is a well-established national park with prices that very few other private and public nature-based destinations can offer with regards to the wildlife and plant life, tourist experiences and facilities. However, smaller more focused destinations may have the same products and services on a smaller scale and much more specific at which costs might be more expensive due to quality and expertise of the specific destination.
- *Access to distribution channels:* In some cases the competitors have control over the distribution channels, in which case it is either through vertical integration or good relationships and loyalty between the organisation and suppliers that can be seen as a barrier to entry if there is only one supplier of that specific product on offer (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Venter, 2013a:204; Thompson & Martin, 2010:91). Considering the Kruger National Park as an example, the Park has a number of suppliers that not only service the Kruger National Park but also the other 21 national parks in South Africa, which may be regarded as loyalty between South African National Parks and its specific suppliers.
- *Cost disadvantages independent of scale:* This refers to those products and services that are unique and specific to a particular organisation and that cannot be produced by a new entrant. Yet, a substitute product or service might be developed and be used as a means of entering the market space (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Thompson & Martin, 2010:91).

- *Government policy and regulations:* This may impose huge barriers for new entrants as patents, copyrights or specific regulations may hinder a new entrant to provide a specific product or service to customers, in this case, tourists (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:125; Venter, 2013a:204). There are a number of legislatures that tourism destinations such as the Kruger National Park have to adhere to and manage in order to remain in business such as environmental policies as well as poaching and culling regulations.

In view of the barriers that new entrants face, it would seem that in the case of the Kruger National Park there is little possibility of new entrants to enter on the level that the Park is currently operating at. However, smaller scale more focused competitors may enter and challenge the Kruger National Park's management on specific factors being offered at the Park. This might influence the Kruger National Park's competitive advantage with competitors if not managed aptly.

3.3.1.2. Buying power of tourists

According to Porter (1985:9), buying power determines the value that is gained from the products or services, leaving the organisation with only modest returns. Tourists therefore have the power to influence the profitability of the destination (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:127; Ehlers, 2009:78). Vanhove (2009:110) indicated that there are four instances when tourists' buying power is profound:

- If a buyer purchases a product or service in large volumes which is relative to the seller sales, for example tour operators in Europe and Asia that sell safari packages and tours to large tourist groups;
- If the product that was bought, such as hotel rooms or chalets at a national park are standard;
- If products that have been purchased by the buyer have a significant proportion of the buyer's costs or purchases; and
- If there is low profit earnings from the buyer.

Thompson *et al.* (2014:127) as well as Thompson and Martin (2010:93) add to Vanhove (2005) stating that aspects that are being determined by buyer's power are the concentration and size of the buyer; the importance of quality and costs for the buyer, the degree of standardisation and the chances of designing substitute products.

Buyers continue with aspects like costs, practicality and the opportunity for buyers to change suppliers as well as the possibility of vertical integration. In the case of organisations not having the ability to minimise the buying power of tourists, aspects such as maintenance, reduced profits or even no-profits are experienced and can have a deeming effect on the tourism destination (Vanhove, 2005:111). This effect, in turn, might lead to a decrease in tourist numbers, bad word-of-mouth and dissatisfied tourists. However, Thompson and Martin (2010:93) and Ehlers (2009:80) suggest that there can be instances where specific arrangements with distributors and tourists can tend towards a positive mutual benefit for both seller and buyer. Therefore national parks have to try and minimise the tourists' buying power through high quality products and services delivery at good prices that indicate there is value for money when purchasing the product or service.

A national park such as the Kruger National Park should therefore ensure that it is aware of the tourists' buying power and manage the Park's products and services in accordance so that the Park remains profitable in all spheres of income generation. However, the buying power of suppliers to the Parks should also be considered.

3.3.1.3 Bargaining power of tourism suppliers

Tourism organisations do not necessarily determine the value of products that suppliers provide, which makes it difficult to determine the prices as suppliers know the tourists' needs (Ehlers, 2009:80; Porter, 2008a:29; Porter, 1985:9). Thus, supplies provide tourism destinations with vital aspects or components which generate and produce the specific product or service in demand. The only way the supplier can survive is to be powerful, therefore dominating other suppliers. Thompson *et al.* (2014:127); Thompson and Martin (2010:92-93) as well as Porter (2008a:29 -30) explain that there are five factors to be considered to determine if suppliers have bargaining power, namely:

- If there are concentrated numbers of possible suppliers to choose from, it makes the Parks' decision to change between suppliers limited which can have an influence on prices being similar.
- The requirements of the Park's specific products and services that should be offered might not be addressed. Therefore the use of substituted products or services should be considered.

- The possibility of vertical integration that might take place either from the supplier or the Park should be considered. However, government regulation may also prevent this type of integration.
- The Park should ensure that its suppliers regard the Park as being their most important customer, ensuring that preferential treatment when needed are provided especially in emergency cases or peak season when products might be sold out faster than expected.
- Any switching costs that might be incurred by buyers will strengthen the position of suppliers.

The Park may not always be regarded as the most important customer of the supplier and the products and services may also differentiate as the supplier provides the products and services to a variety of other industries. There are huge costs involved with suppliers and therefore destinations must ensure that the right supplier is offering the right products as needed to satisfy the tourist expectations and needs on an acceptable standard (Huggins & Izushi, 2011:5; Vanhove, 2005:111). If suppliers are not able to deliver according to the Park's expectations, the opportunity of substituted suppliers may be considered.

3.3.1.4 Threat of substitutes in the nature-based tourism sector

The elasticity of demand is determined by the availability of substituted products and services be on offer that might be at a higher price, better quality or improved distribution functionalities (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:127; Thompson & Martin, 2010:93; Porter, 2008a:31). Tourists tend to search for other products and services based on comments about a certain destination. Tourists then compare the destination with similar destinations before deciding to which destination to travel (Ye, Zhang & Law, 2009:6527). In this case, destinations' products and services not being regarded as substitutes for one another there would be less price sensitivity among competitors (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:127; Thompson & Martin, 2010:93; Ehlers, 2009:80; Porter, 2008:31). It is therefore vital that management takes the threat of substitutes seriously and that quality products and services be offered at reasonable prices to satisfy the needs of tourists.

Substitutes within the tourism industry are real and usually prices are set by firms in the industry which is still profitable but lower than its competitors. Destinations have to identify the possible substitutes and the prices that could be charge. Then, before entering the market the destinations should have implemented products and services at similar prices to that of the competitors. This will have the effect that the tourist might go to the longest standing tourism organisation due to a good reputation (Huggins & Izushi, 2011:5; Vanhove, 2005:110).

3.3.1.5 Intensity of rivalry among nature-based tourism destinations

The threat of new entrants and rivalry acts among organisations are normal and new entrants will compete for value, price and attractiveness (Thompson *et al.*, 2014:128; Ehlers, 2009:80; Porter, 2008a:32). Therefore it is extremely important for national parks to be aware of the rivalry that occurs. The problem with too many tourism destinations close to each other are slow growth in the sector, the storage cost and high, the fixed cost for the destination might become too high, the success rate of such a business is very little, over capacity might take place with a negative influence on the environment (Huggins & Izushi, 2011:5; Vanhove, 2005:111). With the current unpredictable economic conditions that the world is facing one thing which is extremely important for destinations is to continue developing new products and services in order to remain competitive and sustainable (Öztürk & Eraydin, 2010:113). According to Azzoni and De Menezes (2009:719) as well as Forsyth and Dwyer (2009:77) the overall component which influences tourist decision to travel, is price.

Three main generic strategies for organisations influence price, namely cost leadership, differentiation and focus (Middleton *et al.*, 2009:197; Porter, 1985:8). The main function behind these strategies is for the organisations to produce the value of tourists' expect from the products or services offered (Huggins & Izushi, 2011:7). Below are the three possible pricing strategies that a national park can embark on to ensure retention of the market share, remain profitable as well as sustainable and provide the necessary support to conserve and protect the natural and cultural environment.

- **Cost leadership:** If tourism destinations adopts the cost leadership strategy the value that the organisation offers to its tourists are seen as lower cost to products or services that are equivalent to its competitors (Davis, 2013:269; Huggins & Izushi, 2011:5; Ehlers, 2009:80; Middleton *et al.*, 2009:197; Porter, 2008a:33; Evans, Fox & Johnson, 1995:40). The value in cost leadership are influenced by the activities that the organisation make use of in designing the product or service, marketing, delivering the product or services and supporting the product or service offered (Huggins & Izushi, 2011:7; Evans *et al.*, 1995:40). This strategy would also allow national parks to target more price sensitive markets that do not have the option of purchasing more expensive better quality products or services (Davis, 2013:269; Ehlers, 2009:80; Porter, 2008a:33). In the case of South African national parks, aiming at increasing the number of black tourists visiting the parks, this strategy would be a good way to start with until tourists are aware of the parks' and its offerings. There are also components such as low-cost distribution systems, fast and efficient production plants and superior sales forces that can have a huge effect on the value that tourism organisations create.
- **Differentiation:** Huggins and Izushi (2011:7); Davis (2013:269); Ehlers (2009:80) and Porter (2008a:33) argue that differentiation is when the tourism destination produces products and services at a premium price that is unique to the specific destination. However, the value of the products and the unique benefits it creates is value that the tourist expects. Differentiation allows the organisation to create value through the procurement of quality materials to produce the product, a responsive order delivery system and developing unique products with specific characteristics which satisfy the needs of tourists (Evans *et al.*, 1995:40; Porter, 1985:33). According to Davis (2013:269) there are a few ways in which an organisation such as a national park can use the differentiation strategy to obtain a competitive advantage.

The aim of a national park such as the Kruger National Park is to achieve a higher market share and therefore the Park should focus on the uniqueness and value of its products and services being offered to tourists. In the case of being successful in the implementation of the differentiation strategy, the costs that the park is incurring might be yielded through the offering of improved product and service benefits.

- The increase of a slightly higher price on products and services that are unique, specific and of great quality could also lead to a competitive advantage. This will increase the profit margins and higher income will provide the Park with an opportunity to increase its investment in research and development of the Park.
- With the Kruger National Park, being an established brand among tourists, the offering of quality products and services as well as the satisfactory levels of tourists should be higher and better than that of the competitors.
- The Kruger National Park should measure the differentiation based on the Park's own competencies and capabilities.

Middleton *et al.* (2009:197) added that emphasis should also be on the intangible tourism product features, quality and sufficient services, improved destination image and trustworthiness that can be associated with a specific culture or lifestyle. In order for an organisation to create a quality and valuable product or service to the tourist, there has to be proper planning and designing to determine how the differentiation strategy will be applied within the organisation to obtain competitiveness (Huggins & Izushi, 2011:7; Evans *et al.*, 1995:40).

- **Focus or best value strategy:** This is usually the option of organisations that does not find the cost leadership and differentiation strategies as a feasible option to grow the organisation (Davis, 2013a:270; Ehlers, 2009:80; Porter, 2008a:33). Organisations which targets a specific segment and have a more narrow approach to competition use this strategy usually. An organisation using this strategy produces and supply products and services to the specific needs of its market and excludes all other possible segment needs that travel to the destination (Evans *et al.*, 1995:41; Porter, 1985:15).
 - The important aspect to consider is that organisations will have to first grow specific products or services before it can be regarded as a feasible option. In this instance, the Kruger National Park would not need to consider this strategy as it is already an established brand. However, with the implementation of new products or services it might want to consider this approach until such time that the investment made on the new product or service is regarded as successful.

- Davis (2013:270-271) indicates that when an organisation follows the focused strategy there are a number of conditions that should be considered, such as:
- Does the niche market have the potential to grow and remain profitable throughout the growth stage and saturation stages?
- Kruger National Park is regarded as one of the leaders in nature conservation among South African national parks and the Park should be constantly aware of the niche markets' expectations and satisfying those needs in order to remain successful and competitive at all times.
- New entrants would find it extremely difficult to enter a multi-segmented market like that of the Kruger National Park, as the costs involved to supply the necessary infra- and suprastructure and specific needs are high. The Kruger National Park has all this in place and is in actual fact making changes to current facilities to support those target markets with specific needs.
- New entrants is focused on specific niche markets and are therefore achieving a competitive advantage above the Kruger National Park, as its resources and capabilities only allows for a certain niche to travel to the destination. Parks only have to ensure that the expectations of that niche market is excelled. On the other hand, the Kruger National Park has multiple target markets and it is not practical to satisfy each and every target markets' expectations.
- There are a limited number of rivals that compete in one target segment that will reduce the risk of segment overcrowding.

Focusing only on specific segments and the differentiation factors between them ensure that organisations can exploit those vital needs of tourists by means of the focus strategy (Evans *et al.*, 1995:41; Porter, 1985:15). The advantage that organisations have following the focus strategy is that the organisation can determine whether the competitors are under or over performing on satisfying the needs of tourists. Through the identification of the gaps regarding the competitors, focus strategy organisations can exploit the weakness of competitors and enter the market with a competitive advantage (Evans *et al.*, 1995:41; Porter, 1985:16).

Taking the latter into consideration, a destination such as a national park needs to determine which of these strategies will allow the park to obtain a competitive advantage the fastest and best way. Even more so national parks have to determine whether these strategies can be combined to ensure a specific target market, fulfilling specific needs and provide products and services at a reasonable cost. Thus national park management will have to go deeper and search for more strategies which can be utilised to obtain a competitive advantage as a tourism destination of choice. Ritchie and Crouch were the first to adapt the competitiveness model of Michael Porter for the tourism industry. The next section discusses the model designed by Ritchie and Crouch (2003) and how it can be used within the nature-based tourism industry, specifically national parks.

3.3.2 Ritchie and Crouch's destination competitiveness model

Based on the latter, Ritchie and Crouch (2003) designed a competitiveness model for tourism destination that is based on the principles and factors of Porter's competitiveness model. The following section explains the concept behind destination competitiveness as well as the tourism destination competitiveness model.

3.3.2.1 Destination Competitiveness

Page and Connell (2014:474); Vanhove (2005:107) as well as Buhalis (2000:97) define tourism destination as a geographical area in which tourist participate in various tourism related activities leading to an experience and include aspects such as accommodation, attractions, transport, resources and infrastructure. There are a few different types and levels of tourism destinations such as countries, continents, provinces, geographical regions, any city or town areas as well as unique destinations such as national parks which draw large numbers of tourists (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:3). Buhalis (2000:97) adds that a tourism destination can be classified as an amalgamation of different tourism products and services which are integrated to provide the tourist with a memorable experience. According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003:3), national parks can be classified as a tourist destination, due to the large number of tourists it attracts every year, the unique wildlife experiences it offers and the number of activities in which tourists can participate in when visiting the Park.

Mihalic (2010:77) and Vanhove (2005:108) indicate that tourism destinations such as national parks are dependent on the three dimensions of tourism in order to be successful. These are environmental, economic and socio-cultural dimensions. Each of these dimensions contributes to the final product and services of the destination and therefore are vital to the destination's competitiveness.

Competition can be defined as an environment where more than one tourism organisation competes against one another with the same products and services targeting the same market segment (Cant, Strydom, Jooste & Du Plessis, 2006:42). A sign of competitiveness among destinations is where the tourist keeps on returning to a specific destination, due to quality products and services which are being offered (Ma, 1999:259). Therefore tourism destinations such as national parks have to integrate and develop products and services which are unique to its local culture and environment. National parks should also keep tourists returning to the destination because of its attractiveness which indicates a competitive advantage (Cracolici & Nijkamp, 2008:337; Heath, 2003:7; Hassan, 2000:240; Ma, 1999:261). Through this unique service and product offering, value is being created that determines the price that tourists will pay for a given product or service (Passemar & Kleiner, 2000:112). Sustainability and profitability of the destination only happens once the tourist satisfaction levels have been met or exceeded and when tourists return to the destination on a continuous basis (Wood, 2004:59).

A truly competitive tourism destination will have a constant flow of tourists. The increasing number of tourists will guarantee increases in revenue, the retention of market position, a higher quality of life for the local communities and the responsible management of the destination so that environmental resources are not depleted (Chen *et al.*, 2011:250; Forsyth & Dwyer, 2009:78; Mazanec *et al.*, 2007:46; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:2; Dwyer *et al.*, 2002:40). Cracolici and Nijkamp (2008:336) add that competitive destinations have the ability to combine and manage the tourist resources in an effective and sustainable way leading towards a competitive advantage. It is thus important that responsible management is implemented within a unique destination such a national park (Mihalic, 2000:78). If destinations are managed in a responsible manner the destination might become competitive. However, management has to consider certain managerial aspects.

In the case of a national park such as the Kruger National Park, it has to maintain a higher than normal profit rate with regards to the industry for a certain time period in order to be classified as sustainable (Hill & Jones, 2002:123). Together with the higher profit shares, the Kruger National Park has to ensure that the increasing and constant flow of tourists to the area does not damage the unique and prestigious natural and cultural environment (Caber, Albayrak & Matzler, 2012:44; Anderson & Vincze, 2000:76). Kruger National Park management has to determine the needs and expectations of tourists visiting the park; conduct surveys capturing the profile of tourists, determine tourist behaviours, motivations and expectations when visiting the park and identify those competitive advantage factors that keep tourists return to the park year on year. The Park should also then improve those identified factors.

Keeping the tourists satisfied and offering a memorable experience without damaging the natural or cultural environment may give the park a competitive advantage if all is done in a sustainable manner (Caber *et al.*, 2012:50; Chaharbagi & Lynch, 1999:49). The expectations and needs of tourists are satisfied by the activities that the destination offers such as cultural tours, game drives, hiking trails, guided 4x4 trails and health care facilities such as spas which tourists can use whilst visiting the destination. Once again, these activities could add to the competitive advantage of the destination. Destinations that are constantly changing its products and services to adapt to the needs and expectations of tourist are classified as sustainable, competitive destinations (Cracolici & Nijkamp, 2008:336; Hall, 1993:609). Managers have an important task of managing the environmental resources in such a way that it can be optimally used to satisfy the tourists needs as well as be sustainable for future generations (Cracolici & Nijkamp, 2008:337). Thus the park management has to ensure that attributes such as price and specifications about products and services, aesthetics, functionality, availability and image of the park are under constant change so that the tourists needs can be adapted towards the availability of the natural resources (Hall, 1993:906).

National parks can therefore be competitive based on the natural, cultural and historical resources which can be managed in such a way that the tourists' needs are satisfied (Kozak & Baloglu, 2011:9). However, there are a few other vital aspects such as good and proper infrastructure, accessibility, attractions and facilities which can also be used as a competitive advantage.

These aspects form part of the parks unique and park specific attributes which cannot be duplicated anywhere else and thus can also be used as competitive advantages (Hitt *et al.*, 2007:5). The competitive advantage factors of a national park can be determined through its environmental and cultural resources, transportation, tourism services, hospitality and the educational and interpretational activities and facilities on offer to tourists (Cracolici & Nijkamp, 2008:337). Hall and Frost (2009:11) emphasise the fact that national parks are all different, and models are designed to be park specific although it might also be adapted for other national parks. In order for a national park such as Kruger National Park to achieve a competitive advantage, the Park should relate its business towards the environment it is currently in (Porter, 2004:3). There are a few important concepts and approaches that will have to be considered when developing a competitiveness model for a nature-based ecotourism destination such as national parks.

Therefore it is important that tourism destinations such as national parks focus on providing appropriate support and structure to the various departments and employees within the park to produce high quality products and services. These products and services should be delivered effectively and efficiently to the tourist that will ensure tourist loyalty and return visits in future. Park management should also consider the development and training of human resources, increase marketing and promotional materials to the relevant tourist markets travelling to national parks, maintain a healthy organisational culture and ethos at all times. Park management should furthermore ensure that there is business integration between the suppliers as well as the various departments within the park that will assure sufficient high quality product and service delivery to tourists, and finally have sufficient information services available to employees and tourists at all given times (Hong, 2008:63). It can therefore be argued that competitive advantage can only be obtained through the national park's ability to effectively manage the resources used to deliver products and services to the tourists visiting the park (Risteski *et al.*, 2012:379).

Before a competitive model for a nature-based tourism destination such as a national park can be developed, the various frameworks and models of competitiveness within the tourism industry have to be investigated. These frameworks and models would provide the necessary information needed to develop a competitive advantage model that is specific to national parks and its management structures.

3.3.3 Tourism Competitiveness Model

According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003:62-66) there are five main components of the tourism competitiveness model. These components are all depended on each other in order to have a destination obtain competitiveness. However, for the purpose of this study, the model would assist in identifying a proposed model for national parks to identify competitive advantage factors based on the expectations and experiences of tourists visiting the national parks. Park management has the power to develop competitive strategies which will make the national park more attractive to tourists, all depending on the products and services offered (Porter, 1985:2). Figure 3.2 represents the model developed by Ritchie and Crouch (2003:63) of which the main focus is destination competitiveness. Secondary are the comparative and competitive advantages respectively, as these factors contribute to the obtaining of competitiveness. The model is furthermore divided into three sectors that cover the micro and macro environment of the tourism destination (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:62). The qualifying and amplifying determinants can be regarded as filters as it influence the factors within the other three sectors. Factors such as location, security, interdependencies and awareness are some of the qualifying determinants (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:75). In the case of the a national park, the location influences tourist travel behaviours due to distance, while the carrying capacity of tourists in the park per day is limiting the number of tourists allowed. These are clearly just filtering the other sectors' responsibilities and clarifying as to what can be expected and will be done in the park to protect and conserve the natural environment. It can be said that general management would be responsible for the quality aspects in the park. Aspects such as safety and security of tourists and wildlife, the location of the park and rest camps, awareness of the park, marketing and ensuring a good image as well as cost or value of the park are all the responsibly of general management. However, for the purpose of this study focus will be placed on the destination management and how each component can be used to increase the competitive advantage of a national park as a nature-based tourism attraction. Each of the components will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

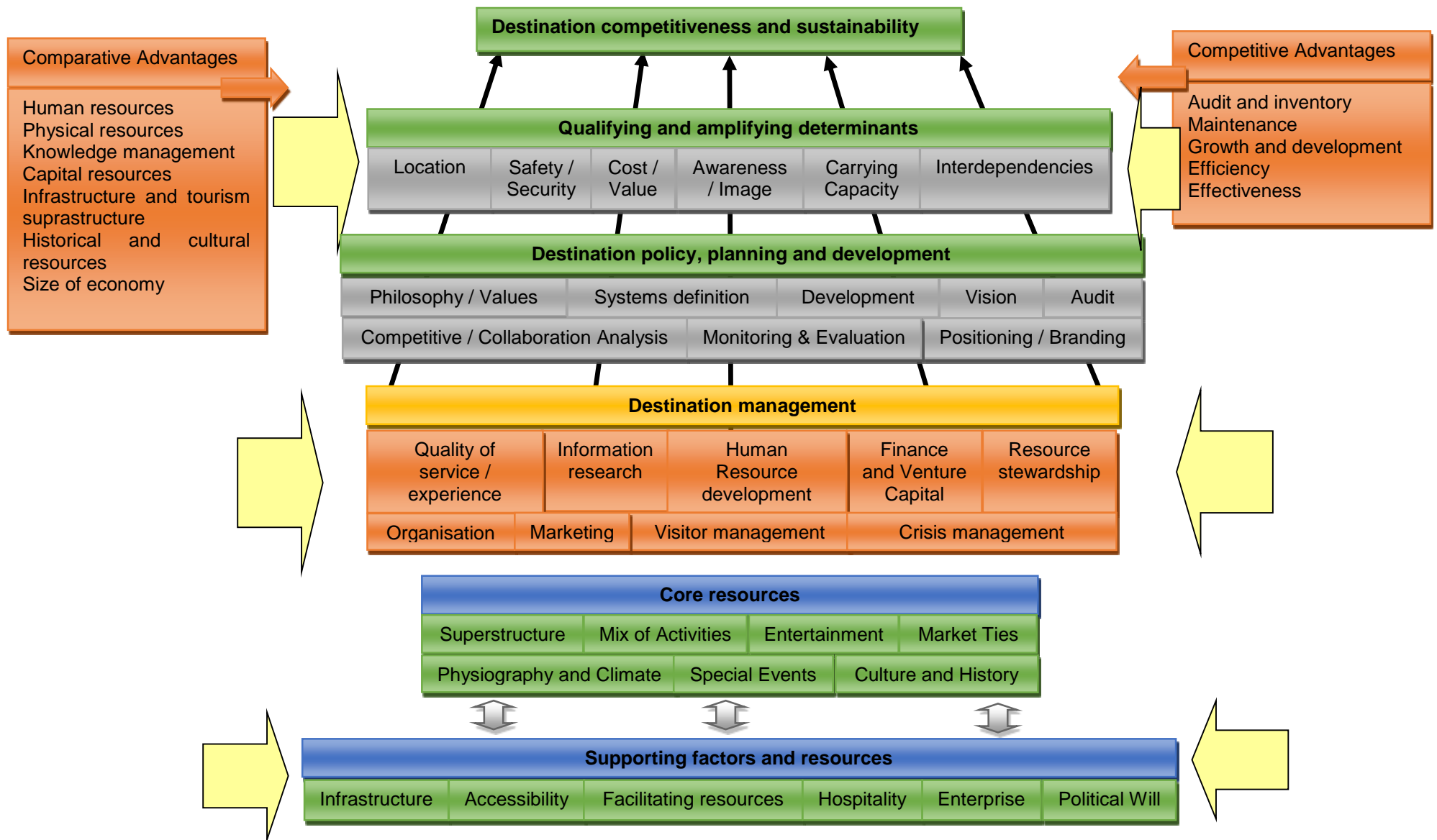


Figure 3.2: Tourism destination competitiveness model
 Source: Adapted from Ritchie and Crouch (2003:63)

3.3.3.1 Qualifying and amplifying determinants

These determinants or factors are used within destinations to enhance, strengthen and supplement the impact of all other destination specific factors (Ritchie & Crouch, 2010:1063; Hudson, Ritchie & Timur, 2004:82; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:233). Even though a destination such as a national park, may have park specific products or services, with good supporting resources and exceptional management structures, it does not mean the park has a competitive advantage (Ritchie & Crouch 2010:1064; Hudson *et al.*, 2004:82; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:233). Aspects that a destination should consider are the location, security, carrying capacity and image that are portrayed to the tourist. Mihalic (2000:77) indicates that there are various elements that determine the attractiveness of a tourism destination such as the natural features, climate, cultural and social characteristics, general infrastructure and suprastructure, transportation, pricing of products and services as well as the economic and social ties. Infrastructure seems to be a key aspect as the majority of aspects mentioned are depended on the infrastructure provided by the destination. The general infrastructure at a tourism destination should therefore be extensive and efficient to allow for all business related activities to take place without any disruptions (Sala-I-Martin, Bilbao-Osorio, Blanke, Crotti, Hanouz, Geiger & Ko, 2013:5). It is therefore important that a national park such as the Kruger National Park ensure the various qualities and attributes of a destination with specific reference to infrastructure are effective. These qualifying and amplifying determinants may have an impact on the demand and potential of tourism in the destination. However, the tourism sector cannot influence or control these determinants (Ritchie & Crouch 2010:1064; Hudson *et al.*, 2004:82).

3.3.3.2 Destination policy, planning and development

Research conducted by Dwyer and Kim (2003) indicates that tourists clearly distinguish between public and private involvement within tourism destinations. Therefore it is important that a specific governmental institution should be established that will focus on the development and management of tourism and that is committed to the training and skills development of people within the tourism industry.

In South Africa, the responsible governmental institution that is heading up this task is known as the Culture Art Tourism Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA). Its main function is to ensure that those employed or seeking employment within the various sectors mentioned receive the necessary training and skills development (Cathesseta, 2014).

Komppula (2014:367) indicates that competitive advantage can be obtained by tourism destinations in the case of public and private tourist organisations and businesses be willing to cooperate on certain levels in providing products and services to the tourists. Ritchie and Crouch (2003:148) as well as Buhalis (2000:21) suggest that the creation of an environment that delivers maximum benefits to all stakeholders whilst minimising the negative impact that tourism might have on the region is placed within the public or governmental sector. Park management should take on public-private partnerships that ensure the development of conservation policies as well as the appropriate implementation thereof. Komppula (2014:362) and Dwyer and Kim (2003) indicate that policy documents should support the development and implementation of a competitiveness model as the entire process, once completed, might lead to economic prosperity.

3.3.3.3 Destination management

There seems to be an overall increase in visitor numbers to national parks across the world. Therefore it is extremely important that park management focuses on the planning and management of these natural facilities and attractions to maintain competitive advantages (D'Antonio, Monz, Newman, Lawson & Taff, 2013:72; Dumitras *et al.*, 2012:169). Furthermore, management should also, throughout the entire process, focus to be sustainable. Khan (2003:109) suggests that ecotourism specific organisations, which include national parks, will have to become more competitive and obtain a competitive advantage among its peers in order to achieve an exceptional market place. Furthermore, Khan (2003:110) suggests that destinations can achieve a competitive advantage through the offering of quality products and services that would satisfy the needs and expectations of tourists.

Komppula (2014:367) found that the supply of products and services at destinations such as national parks should address the demands of tourists, even though the quality, accessibility and pricing might be regarded as problematic and may influence the delivering of products and services to the tourists. General management of a destination is responsible for ensuring that marketing of the park's most competitive resources and additional supporting infrastructure are done, that human resources development ensures the training and skills development of park employees, finances and venture capital is available for the purchasing of additional conservation land, that frequent research and information regarding the park takes place to ensure that the park stays competitive and satisfies the needs and expectations of tourists. General management also has the responsibility of ensuring that the park offers quality services and products and finally should manage the tourists in the park in a responsible manner that will ensure a memorable experience as well as provoke loyalty towards the tourist travelling to national parks (Cracolici Nijkamp, 2008:338; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:73).

Booyesen (2014:7) and Komppula (2014:367) define entrepreneurs as innovative, creative, committed and strong people that attract other entrepreneurs to the destination that will positively impact on the destination's socio-economic position. Therefore it can be recommended that the management of a national park should consider adopting the characteristics of entrepreneurs being creative, innovative, committed and strong in the delivering of high quality tourist products and services within the borders of the park. With an increasingly competitive tourism industry, each and every tourism organisation should sell itself as a branded product or service that will have to be managed from a strategic point of view in order to retain its competitive advantage (Beerli & Martin, 2004:623). Managing a destination can only occur if there are the necessary resources to be regarded as a tourist destination.

3.3.3.4 Core resources and attractions

Natural and cultural resources at tourism destinations should be managed in a sustainable manner (Risteski *et al.*, 2012:379) so that competitive advantage factors can be identified and resources can be used to maintain these advantages.

Cracolici and Nijkamp (2008:338) as well as Ritchie and Crouch (2003:68-69) indicate that the following components are part of core resources and attractions that the management of a national park have to use in order to become a competitor in the ecotourism sector. Physiography, local communities' history and culture, typical activities (hiking, game drive, 4x4, interpretational and educational talks), special events (traditional dances, or learning tourist making traditional cuisine), entertainment (nature videos, holiday programs) and suprastructures (tourist facilities) are all components which the ecotourism management section of a national park has to investigate in order to determine if these components hold a competitive advantage over other national parks and nature-based destinations. Khan (2003:121) indicates that an important aspect that national parks should remember is that the products and services that are being advertised and sold to the tourists should be delivered as indicated on the promotional selling items. An important component of destination management is that the national parks should always consider promotion, regulation, presentation, planning, monitoring, maintenance, coordination, strengthening and organising as means to manage the core resources effectively (Risteski *et al.*, 2012:379). Therefore park management should ensure that the relevant infrastructure is available to deliver the service suitably.

3.3.3.5 Supporting factors and resources

The right tourism infrastructure, accessibility, hospitality enterprises and resources are necessary to ensure that the tourist's needs are satisfied. Tourism destinations are dependent on the supporting factors in order to be sustainable and therefore the conservation management section takes responsibility to ensure that the supporting factors are all sustainable and damage to the environment minimal (Cracolici & Nijkamp, 2008:338; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:131). Eco-tourists specifically emphasise the abovementioned aspects when travelling to national parks (Khan, 2003:121). It is therefore crucial that park management ensures the necessary facilities and equipment is available for tourists. National parks should be committed to the improvement and maintenance of infrastructure and facilities in and around the parks (Komppula, 2014:367). This will show prospective investors that the parks are serious about conservation and sustainability with the focus remaining on the protection of the park and its natural and cultural heritage.

Research conducted by Heath (2003) can be linked to that of Ritchie and Crouch (2003) which indicate that there are six main elements that builds the foundation to sustainable competitiveness. These elements are to manage the key attractors, address the non-negotiable, provide the enablers, capitalise on the value-adders, provide appropriate facilitators and enhance the overall experience.

- **Providing and managing the key attractors**

Tourists travel to destinations which offer them different attributes, products and service which can be categorised into two main segments namely, inherited and created attractors. Inherited attractors are mainly those natural attractions such as climate, natural scenery, wildlife and plants to name but a few. Furthermore these attractions could also include cultural elements such as music, art, traditional dances and cuisine. Created attractions are important to the destination's competitiveness level as festivals and events, activities, entertainment and shopping will then determine the competitiveness of the destination (Heath, 2003:8; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:68-69). Ritchie and Crouch (2003:184) indicate that the diversity and variety of activities at tourism destinations conclude the competitiveness and that these experiences offered by the destinations should be extended into the out of season months to attract more tourists.

- **Addressing the fundamental non-negotiable**

Travelling to tourism destinations such as national parks involve a few fundamental aspects which tourists stress about. Aspects such as safety and security, health care facilities, political stability, crime rates, sanitation services and quality thereof and the availability of medical services are crucial and influence the competitiveness of the destination (Van Zyl, 2008:342; Cooper *et al.*, 2005:125; Heath, 2003:8-9). National parks have to ensure that these components are well addressed and implemented so that tourists that travel to the parks feel safe and secure at all times, whilst still enjoying the wonderful nature splendour.

- **Providing the enablers**

Tourists, especially those travelling to ecotourism based attractions, are aware that there usually are no additional services such as train systems and airports. These tourist also take note that water supply and sanitation facilities are few, financial services such as banks are not available, health care facilities are far away and electricity is usually by means of fire or batteries (Komppula, 2014:367; Sala-I-Martin *et al.*, 2013:5; Hudson *et al.*, 2004:82; Heath, 2003:10; Mihalic, 2000:77). The Kruger National Park which is based between the Limpopo river in the North and the Lebombo mountains in the South, offers tourists very little of these enablers, however most of these enablers are available at certain points in the Park.

- **Capitalising on the value-adders**

Tourism destinations situated closely to desired markets offering value for money activities and services have a huge competitive advantage over other normal destinations. The close proximity to certain attractions, activities and attributes is seen as a value added advantage for the destination and therefore has to include those attributes into the marketing campaign (Heath, 2003:10).

- **Ensuring appropriate facilitators**

The tourism industry relies on facilitators to sell the product or service as well as producing it for the tourists. Tour wholesalers, travel agencies, transportation infrastructure, accommodation and catering, tour operators and local visitors bureaus are all facilitators in the tourism produce which aim at delivering a quality service. The facilitators are vital to the industry and therefore being situated in the right place is vital. Furthermore shopping malls, food stores, car maintenance shops, petrol stations, pharmacies, bookstores, laundries and services offered are also part of the tourism industry even though it remains secondary aspects (Sala-I-Martin *et al.*, 2013:5; Hudson *et al.*, 2004:82; Heath, 2003:11; Mihalic, 2000:77).

- **Focusing on the experience enhancers**

Tourism destinations are aware that the quality of service delivery and exceptional products, especially in South Africa, is regarded as sustained competitive advantage. The local community plays an important role in the service delivery and hospitality that tourists experience whilst visiting a destination. Aspects such as friendliness and helpfulness at reception, good communication skills by locals to interact with tourists, well-educated and trained personnel, the attitudes of locals towards tourists, and the way in which locals provide information to tourist are very important. Additional aspects which destinations should include to assist the tourists whilst travelling are signage, information boards, interactive activities and educational programmes (Saayman, 2009:375; Hudson *et al.*, 2004:82; Heath, 2003:11; Mihalic, 2000:77).

3.4. PREVIOUS RESEARCH REGARDING COMPETITIVENESS

Table 3.4 indicates previous research on tourism competitiveness and tourism destinations obtaining a competitive advantage. These destinations were all countries or cities. To date, very little research has determined the factors contributing towards the competitiveness of nature-based and ecotourism destinations or products such as national parks.

Table 3.4: Previous research regarding destination competitiveness

Authors	Study title	Competitive aspects
Taplin (2012)	Competitive importance-performance analysis of an Australian wildlife park	1. Places to sit and rest 2. Availability of toilets 3. Quality food and beverage for sale 4. Well maintained facilities 5. Cleanliness of premises 6. Signposts for directions throughout the venue 7. Information concerning attractions at the venue 8. Knowledgeable staff; 9. Friendliness of staff 10. Value for money 11. Venue is good for the price paid 12. Educational experiences 13. Doing something different 14. Having a rest; 15. Spending time with friends/family 16. Seeing wildlife/birds/plants 17. Enjoying nature.
Shirazi and Som (2011)	Destination management and relationship marketing: Two major factors to achieve competitive advantage	1. Infrastructure investments; 2. Strategic planning to market ties; 3. Maintaining resources; 4. Monitoring resources allocations; 5. Growth and development; 6. Operational performance effectiveness; and 7. Facilitating resources created.
Crouch (2010)	Destination competitiveness: An analysis of determinant attributes	. 1. Core resources and attractors; 2. Supporting factors and resources; 3. Destination policy, planning and development; 4. Destination management; and 5. Qualifying and amplifying determinants.
Kozak et al. (2009)	Measuring destination competitiveness: Multiple destinations versus multiple nationalities	1. Availability of facilities and activities; 2. Cultural and natural attractiveness; 3. Quality of services; and 4. Quality of infrastructure

Cracolici and Nijkamp (2008)	The attractiveness and competitiveness of tourist destinations: A study of Southern Italian regions	1. Information and tourist services; 2. Cultural events; 3. Quality and variety of products in the shops; 4. Hotels and other accommodation; 5. Level of prices and living costs; and 6. Safety.
Gomezelj and Mihalic (2008)	Destination competitiveness – applying different models, the case of Slovenia	1. Inherited resource; 2. Created resources; 3. Supporting factors; 4. Destination management; 5. Situational conditions; and 6. Demand conditions.
Claver-Cortes et al. (2007)	Competitiveness in mass tourism	1. Tangible resource management strategy; 2. Improvement and hotel dimension strategy; 3. Specialisation and intangible resource management strategy, and 4. Distribution strategy.
Haarhoff (2007)	An analysis of the price competitiveness of South Africa as an international tourist destination	International tourists travelling to South Africa will spend most of their money on products or travel components such as international flights, accommodation, attractions and food and beverages. The study of Haarhoff (2007) furthermore indicates that the products and services such as accommodation, air transport and attractions are much more expensive than international tourists had anticipated. Five-star accommodation establishments were found to be too expensive and other establishments were perceived to offer affordable prices. The paid attractions that were visited, with the exception of the Kruger National Park, were all marked as fairly priced.

Jonker (2004)	The strategic identification and integration of critical success factors to achieve international competitiveness for South Africa as a tourism destination	1. Sustainable growth; 2. Safety and security management; 3. People development and systems development; 4. Marketing and product development; 5. Responsible management attracting international tourists; 6. Satisfying the customer; and 7. Destination strategic management process.
Enright and Newton (2004)	Tourism destination competitiveness: A quantitative approach	1. Safety; 2. Cuisine; 3. Dedicated tourism attractions; 4. Visual appeal; 5. Well-known landmarks; 6. Nightlife; 7. Different culture; 8. Special events; 9. Interesting festivals; 10. Local way of life; 11. Interesting architecture; 12. Climate; 13. Notable history; 14. Museums and galleries; 15. Music and performances.
Du Plessis (2002)	Competitiveness of South Africa as a tourist destination	1. Safety; 2. Quality of service; 3. Value for money; 4. Geographical features; 5. Attitude towards tourist; 6. Availability of information; 7. Uniqueness of local people' life; and 8. Foreign exchange.

Based on Table 3.4 there seems to be very little research on the competitiveness and competitive advantage factors of tourism destinations such as national parks. However, some of the competitiveness factors identified could be generic in tourism and be suitable for national parks. These include the quality and variety of products and services, good infrastructure, quality tourist facilities and security that are key to any tourism destination's competitiveness (Taplin, 2012; Crouch, 2011; Shirazi & Som, 2011; Kozak *et al.*, 2009; Cracolici & Nijkamp, 2008; Gomezelj & Mihalic, 2008; Claver-Cortes *et al.*, 2007; Haarhoff, 2007; Enright & Newton, 2004; Du Plessis, 2002). However, depending on the destination there would be additional factors that are distinct to that destination. Shirazi and Som (2011) add factors like strategic planning to market ties, growth and development, operational performance effectiveness and the facilitation of resources as vital in obtaining competitiveness through destination management and relationship marketing. Kozak *et al.* (2009) found that in the event of determining competitiveness across multiple destinations with multiple nationalities the cultural and natural attractions would be a major competitive advantage factor. Cracolici and Nijkamp (2008) found that in the southern regions of Italy, the tourists' view of the cultural events, hotels and other accommodation and the level of prices and living costs to be competitive factors. These were however not identified by any other supportive research up to date. Tourists regarded a variety of cultural elements such as music, cuisine, festivals, and way of life, museums, history and visual appeal as important for obtaining competitiveness (Enright & Newton, 2004). Thus it is clear that competitiveness for a national park would contain some generic aspects like the latter and then also specific national park related competitive advantage factors.

From the latter it is clear that nature-based tourism destinations such as national parks, have to increase tourist numbers and revenue, protect the environment, offer the tourists satisfying products and services and increase tourist loyalty towards the park in order to be competitive in a sustainable manner.

3.5 BENEFITS OF OBTAINING A COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

Obtaining a competitive advantage is therefore a huge task as a destination, such as a national park, would have to first of all identify and evaluate its products and services to determine which of these are regarded as distinct by the tourists for a competitive advantage. Venter (2013a:229) adds that in obtaining a competitive advantage the product or services should be distinctive, physically unique, path dependant, casual ambiguous and economically deterrent. These are the most important aspects relevant to the product or service to the market. Destinations across the tourism industry compete with each other for one main reason and that is to increase market share and tourist numbers to the destination (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:19). Poon (1993:291) adds that competitiveness is no longer just focused on the specific destination but influences the tourism dependent economies such as the local communities. It also influences the possibilities of future tourism developments and the constant change in the tourism industry has an impact on all tourism and related industries. Furthermore, the travel and tourism industry is fully tradable and suppliers from any country or region could compete in the nature-based tourism sector (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:19) which adds to the pressure for national parks to become and remain competitive.

Competitive advantage may differ from national parks due to park specific attributes and the target markets that are identified as the most viable to target. However it remains the responsibility of the park management to determine which competitive advantage factors will be implemented and used to achieve the main aim of the park's competitiveness strategy (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:26). Park management should develop strategies and plans on how to implement distinct park specific products and services to obtain competitiveness and remain a competitive tourism destination to support the depended tourism economies (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:18; Poon, 1993:29). Louw (2013:35) adds that the development of competitive strategies should always ensure that the customers' needs are catered for, competitors efforts could be countered, that it could survive in the current market conditions and that competitive advantage could be built in the single line of business.

These aspects should guide national parks into becoming competitive in the domestic and international markets. True competitiveness is when the destination continues to use resources within the environmental, economic, social, cultural and political environments (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:49) in a sustainable way that would lead to increased benefits for all stakeholders involved. These benefits include an increase in tourist expenditure, the continuous improvement and value add to products and services, exceptional quality in products and services, effective management, profitability of the destination, an increase in investment opportunities, an increase in the living standards of the local community and the assistance in the identification of possible new markets to target and to increase market share (Page & Connell, 2014:473; Venter 2013b:229; Bornhorst *et al.*, 2010:572; Thompson & Martin, 2010:78; Hong, 2008:54; Garelli, 2004:730; Dwyer & Kim, 2003:372; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:2; Buhalis, 2000:12; Newall, 1991:1).

3.6. CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to explain the concept of competitiveness, competitive advantage and comparative advantage and how it relates to nature-based tourism destinations such as national parks. Competitive advantage is obtained through management identifying specific factors within the destination that are important for the tourists in having a memorable experience and satisfying specific needs. The chapter explained the benefits of achieving a competitive advantage as destination although it goes hand in hand with effective management structures.

In the next chapter, the research methodology applied for developing a competitiveness model for South African National Parks through the use of Kruger National Park as the study focus, is discussed.

CHAPTER 4: A SYNOPSIS OF THE STUDY'S RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Eighty percent of success is showing up.

Woody Allen

4.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Cooper and Schindler (2006:51) the success of research depends on two aspects of which firstly, the research should be clearly conceptualised, and secondly the research should be clearly understandable to others. Therefore it is extremely important that the right research design is applied.

SANParks have access to an array of business information about its brand, product, services and tourists. However, it is crucial for managers of SANParks to find a relationship between the business specific information and other information available (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:7). This additional the information can be used to increase the Kruger National Park's competitive advantage. Therefore the aim of this chapter is to discuss the various statistical analyses that were applied as well as the reason for the choice of analysis. The main reason for the specific statistical analysis applied was to provide SANParks, and especially the Kruger National Park's management, with ways in which to improve the competitive advantage of the Park.

Research methodology is the process in which knowledge and understanding is established based on the survey conducted (Veal, 2011:30; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:657). The concept of research methodology covers a number of sections which assist in assuring that the collected data is valid and reliable. The sections that are covered in this chapter include the sample size, quality of the response rate, administration process for the questionnaire as well as the way in which the collected data was analysed and reported (Malhotra, 2007:108).

Therefore, this chapter discusses the research design in which the statistical analyses that was applied is explained for the purpose of developing a competitiveness model for South African National Parks' by analysing the results obtained for the case study, the Kruger National Park.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Kumar (2011:369) as well as Cooper and Schindler (2006:125) research design has no specific definition. However, it consists of a number of aspects that should be taken into consideration when planning on conducting research. The research design is regarded as the blueprint to be followed in order to collect, measure and analyse the data. It can also be used as guidance in the allocation of limited resources through the posing of a variety of methodologies (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:908; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:66; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:125). However, Welman *et al.* (2005:52) argue that research design is the process in which participants are sourced to collect information from them regarding a specific field of interest.

In the first instance, it is needed to determine the research approach to be followed in executing the study. Quantitative research is an approached which convert the data that has been gathered from a specific population group, in this case the Kruger National Park, into a numerical form and then submit it for statistical analyses. After the statistical analysis was done, the findings are quantified across the entire population (Babbie, 2014:436; Diggines, 2013a:87; Veal, 2011:35; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:657; Maree & Pietersen, 2008:145; Malhotra, 2007:143; Cooper & Schilder, 2006:46). Quantitative research also attempts to provide, as far as possible, precise predictions and conclusions on the object of interest measured (Cooper & Schilder, 2006:46). In this study specifically, quantitative research is conducted to determine the competitive advantage factors and the motivational factors that influences the behaviour of visitors to the Kruger National Park to develop and maintain a competitive advantage across all nature-based tourism destinations such as national parks (Maree & Pietersen, 2008:145; Elliot & Percy, 2007:109; Struwig & Stead, 2001:113).

The second step is to identify the research design that would best fit the research topic. The quantitative research approach can be divided into two separate designs namely, experimental and non-experimental designs (Creswell, 2014:12). This study followed a structured questionnaire based survey approach which forms part of non-experimental designs. A survey can be defined as the process in which data is collected from a representative sample population (Diggines, 2013b:110).

This approach was followed as very few research was already conducted on the competitive advantages of national parks as nature-based tourism destinations, especially within the continent of Africa and more so within the borders of South Africa with the focus being on the tourists' demands.

Thirdly the research investigated the possibility of finding new ways as to how national parks (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:54&652; Welman *et al.*, 2005:166; Struwig & Steed, 2001:7), like the Kruger National Park, can increase its competitive advantage through effective marketing campaigns, facilities management, the improvement of visitor management, the increase in educational aspects of the park as well as the inclusion of children friendly park specific activities to name but a few aspects. Table 4.1 provides a brief summary of the aspects pertaining to quantitative research.

Table 4.1: Summary of quantitative research methodology

Focus of research	Descriptions/explanations and or predictions of the object of interest
Researchers involvement	The researcher has a limited involvement in the collection of data, preventing any biases.
Research purpose	Determine a generalised finding on a specific population group through the build of a test theory and making possible predictions.
Sample design	Probability sampling (random sampling)
Sample size	Large numbers of respondents, in the case of this study a total of 436 completed questionnaires were received from the 500 that were distributed.
Research design	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determined before the study was started. • The decision to make use of a single method only. • Researcher should ensure consistency in the research. • This research made use of a longitudinal approach.
Participation preparation	There is no preparation needed as respondents were randomly selected and based on tourists' willingness and openness to complete the questionnaire and then were handed a questionnaire.

Data type and preparation	The questionnaire design provided for numerical codes for the majority of variables were to simplify the capturing and coding after the research has been conducted.
Data analysis	Microsoft Excel © was used to capture the data after which it was imported to SPSS for the statistical analysis with the use of a qualified statistician at the North-West University.
Insights and meaning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The insight gained from questionnaires was limited the time factor for completion of the questionnaire could have influenced the comprehensiveness of responses. The respondents were given the questionnaire and requested to complete within three to four hours as it was then to be collected.. • Insight and meaning of responses were further limited as the researcher could not follow up on unclear statements or incomplete questionnaires. The possibility of interaction with respondents after the completed questionnaires were collected, was difficult to impossible as there are no means of tracking the respondents at all. Therefore, the researcher could have interpreted some confusing statements incorrectly which could have affected the quality and insights of the respondents' statements.
Research sponsor involvement	Rarely, if any, direct or indirect contact with respondents at all.
Feedback and turnaround	The larger the sample size the longer it takes to collect data. The internet can be used to increase the speed of the collection period, however it is often not applicable or practical to certain studies.
Data security	All data is captured and stored by the North-West University, TREES focus group at the Potchefstroom Campus, and distributed to the relevant organisation after research is completed and findings and implications were made.

Adapted from Creswell (2014:30)

The fourth step is then to conduct an extended literature review on quantitative research design as the structured questionnaire should be based on academic literature and specific hypothesis should be developed from the literature and measured against what visitors expect.

The final step in the research design is to compare the outcomes of the research with existing literature. Once the data has been analysed it should be compared to the outcomes of other studies to determine if any new contribution to literature has been made (Creswell, 2014:30) with regards to new visitor trends of the specific population group or possible managerial aspects to improve the competitive advantage of the Kruger National Park. After the research design process was followed and a research plan was drawn, it is necessary to determine the population and sample size needed for the research to be conducted in a valid and reliable way.

4.2.1 Population and sample size

The population is regarded as the object of research in which individuals, groups or organisations are examined based on the reactions within certain environments and certain conclusions are made based on respondents' reactions (Babbie, 2013:115; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:338; Welman *et al.*, 2005:52). The research problem is directly related to the population and the individuals are the units of analysis from which information is gathered and conclusions are made (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:338; Welman *et al.*, 2005:52). For the purpose of this study the visitors to the Kruger National Park were regarded as the population and information from the visitors is analysed and discussed in Chapter 5.

The Kruger National Park attracts more than one million tourist per annum of which 400 000 of these tourist are domestic tourist. It is therefore uneconomical and impractical to conduct research in such a large population (Welman *et al.*, 2005:53). According to Cooper and Schindler (2006:338) the reasons for choosing a sample from the research population is to ensure greater accuracy of results, faster data collection, access to available elements in the population as well as keeping costs to the minimum.

A sample size should have an equal representation of the various units in the population in order to quantify the results across the entire population (Creswell, 2014:30 & 158; Babbie, 2013:115; Welman *et al.*, 2005:53). The aim of probability sampling is to provide beneficial information about a specific population that contains the same type of variations (Babbie, 2013:132).

In the case of this study, a large-scale survey was conducted and thus probability sampling was the most appropriate sampling method to apply (Babbie, 2013:115&132). The sample size can be determined statistically. However, more detailed information should be provided with regards to the population in order to have a significant number of representative respondents taking part in the research (Jankowicz, 2005:209). Probability sampling is based on a random selection of respondents to take part in the research. The use of probability sampling is beneficial to this study in terms of the respondents being more representative towards the chosen population (Babbie, 2013:134). Furthermore, probability sampling can provide possible estimates of precision (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:343). Probability sampling entails the process in which any member of the population, which is in this case, overnight visitors to the Kruger National Park, has a non-zero probability of being selected to participate in the research (Babbie, 2013:134; Smith, 2010:890; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:656; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:343; Welman *et al.*, 2005:56; Struwig & Steed, 2001:112). For the purpose of this study the formula designed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970:607) was used to determine the correct sample size of visitors to the Kruger National Park that should be included into the research. The formula is as follows:

$$s = \frac{X^2NP(1 - P)}{d^2(N - 1) + X^2P(1 - P)}$$

Evidently the formula indicates that s is the required sample. Whereas X^2 represents the desired level of confidence at 3.841 in the table value of a chi-square test for one degree of freedom. The population size is represented by N with P being regarded as the proportion (.50), and d indicates the degree of accuracy, which in actual fact indicates the confidence level at a proportion of (.05). In the case of a population being 1 000 000 the required sample size would be 384 questionnaires (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970:607).

The total population was divided by the average group travel size which was 3.8 people per travel group and resulted in 305 584 tourist (Scholtz *et al.*, 2013: 14). The sample size was determined with the total population to the Kruger National Park being 305 584 tourists during the festive season. In the case of a 95% confidence level and 5% sampling error [d is expressed as (0.05)] a total sample of 384 questionnaires would have to be completed to ensure that valid and authentic data is analysed and quantified across the visitors that travels annually to the Kruger National Park. However, Babbie (2013:142) suggested that in the case of having a 95% confidence level in the accuracy of the research, a minimum of 400 questionnaires should be obtained. The conducting of the survey however has delivered a total of 436 questionnaires, which is within the range of the proposed sample size of Babbie (2013:142) and Krejcie and Morgan (1970:607).

4.2.2 Questionnaire design

According to Babbie (2013:237) a common problem is that a questionnaire seems to be too long in which questions are then integrated and combined with respondents missing the second question or statement that can have implications on the data. Furthermore, Diggins (2013c:161) adds that the designing of the questions to be asked on that specific topic are challenging and if a question is stated incorrectly, the entire measurement instrument will be incorrect. Self-administered questionnaires like the one used in this study should be uncluttered. This means that questions should be based on the study and research should be straight to the point.

Furthermore, Diggins (2013c:162) as well as Shiffman and Kanuk (2007:30) suggest that the questions should be both substantial with specific reference to the study as well as some specific demographic questions. Therefore, the spreading of questions in the questionnaire is preferred to the squeezing questions into a questionnaire.

The self-administered questionnaire was designed with the purpose of firstly to obtain demographic and behavioural information from the respondents. Secondly it was structured to determine the motives of tourist travelling to the Park as well as discover tourists' opinion on factors that could lead the Park to obtain a competitive advantage over other similar destinations. The questionnaire was developed and designed by the researcher in conjunction with TREES at the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus and SANParks. The main themes of the questionnaire are covered in the literature chapters (Chapters 2 and 3) that specifically focus on the components of managing a national park and competitive advantage theories (Welman *et al.*, 2005:174). The questionnaire had a variety of open- and closed ended questions (see Annexure A). An open-ended question allows the respondents to develop their own response, as supposed to closed ended questions that provide the respondent with a possibility of answers to choose from (Shiffman & Kanuk, 2007:30; Welman *et al.*, 2005:174).

The following sections were covered in the questionnaire (see Annexure A):

- **Section A: Demographic Profile**

This section included aspects such as age, home language, gender, income, province and country of residence, number of people in travelling group and when the decision was made to visit the park which links closely with demographic related aspects. As part of this section, the questions were formulated to ensure that the respondents remained anonymous and that no respondent could be traced through the demographic information. The section aims to determine the profile of the tourist that travels to the Kruger National Park.

- **Section B: Travel Behaviour**

In this section the questionnaire focused on aspects pertaining to tourist travel behaviour and how the behaviour influence the decision to travel to the Park. Questions such as reasons for travelling, previous parks visited, most favourite holiday destination and if the tourist will visit the park again were asked. These behavioural characteristics can be used by park management to attract more tourists to the Park through establishing a competitive advantage. Section B's questions were based on the research of Kruger and Saayman (2010); Saayman and Saayman (2008); Saayman and Van Der Merwe (2007); Kim *et al.* (2006); and Tao *et al.* (2004).

- **Section C: Competitive advantage**

The third section of the questionnaire, focused on the measuring of the internal factors which park management can use to increase the Park's competitive advantage by means of a Likert scale. The Likert scale is the most commonly used measuring scale in research and captures the positive or negative attitude or feeling of a respondent towards a specific object of interest (Shiffman & Kanuk, 2007:31). The advantages of a Likert scale is its effectiveness as research tool in capturing the necessary data on a large scale as well as that it provides interval data (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:278).

For the purpose of this study the competitive advantage variables and motives variables were measured on a 5-point Likert scale on a level of agreement (1 = totally disagree; 2 = do not agree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; and 5 = totally agree). Aspects that were covered include park specific attributes, the variety of products and services, conservation methods, greener management, service delivery, quality products and management to name but a few. The questionnaire was designed based on the research of Taplin (2012); Shirazi and Som (2011); Crouch (2010); Kozak *et al.* (2009); Cracolici and Nijkamp (2008); Gomezelj and Mihalic (2008); Claver-Cortes *et al.* (2007); Enright and Newton (2004); and Du Plessis (2002).

Section D: Memorable experience

Section D measured the memorable experience of tourists to the Kruger National Park. Questions were based on the importance of experiences such as a first-time sighting, large numbers of a specific species, close proximity to a species, eye-to-eye experience, to have enough time to take photos, and the mystery surroundings and species amongst others. However, for the purpose of this study, this section was not used in the data analysis. The data captured on this question was used for another research project and was only combined on reasons of cost implications.

Section E: Popularity of Big 5 species

This section focused on the popularity of the Big Five animals according to tourists. The questionnaire requested tourists to rate the Big Five species according to their preference of seeing them whilst visiting the Kruger National Park. Furthermore, this section determines the Rand value that tourists are willing to pay in order to see the any of the Big Five species. Finally, Section E determined whether tourists were part of a conservation organisation or donating money for such organisations and if so, to which conservation organisation. Due to the aim of this study, this section was excluded from the data analysis. The data captured on this question was used for another research project and was only combined on reasons of cost implications.

Section F: Tourist motivations

The last section of the questionnaire measured the tourist motivations for visiting the Kruger National Park on a 5-point Likert scale based on agreement or disagreement. Questions that were asked in this section were whether the park is an all-inclusive holiday destination, travelling to the park is part of the respondent's lifestyle, the park offers a relaxing environment and escape from normal routine, a visit to the park contributes to well-being to name but a few. These questions were all based on previous research done by various authors such as Scholtz *et al.* (2013:2); Saayman and Saayman (2009b:5); Kruger and Saayman (2009:99); Van der Merwe and Saayman (2008:158); Lee and Sparks (2007:506); Luo and Deng (2007:399); Kim *et al.* (2006); and Wilkerson (2003:50).

The survey was conducted at four rest camps in the Kruger National Park in which field workers was employed to distribute the questionnaires among the overnight respondents within the rest camps of Skukuza, Olifants, Lower Sabie and Berg-and-Dal. The survey was done between 18:00 and 20:00 at night in the rest camps when all visitors were either at the chalets or tents. Before each distribution session the fieldworkers were briefed on the purpose and importance of the research as well as how to approach and explain the questionnaire to the respondents. Fieldworkers play a significant role in the quality and collection of data from respondents. The fieldworkers' approach and social interaction would influence the respondents significantly in whether to complete the questionnaire as per the request from the fieldworker (Wiid, 2013:210-211). A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed at the various rest camps between the 27 December 2013 and 4 January 2014 of which 436 completed questionnaires was obtained and used in the data capturing.

Figure 4.1 shows that the highest response rate was at Skukuza with 49%. The Skukuza rest camp is the biggest rest camp in the Kruger National Park and is the administrative headquarters of the Kruger National Park. Thus also the high response rate, as it hosted many visitors. Skukuza offers tourists some additional services that might not be found at the other rest camps in the park, such as vehicle repairs and tow-in, banking, car rental and postal services (Braak, 2006:33). Lower Sabie, situated on the banks of the Sabie River with the Lebombo Mountains in the backdrop offering exceptional wildlife viewing, had the second highest response rate at 22%. Seventeen percent (17%) of the questionnaires were returned at Olifants rest camp, which is situated on a hill top with the Olifants River several hundred feet below. The Olifants rest camp offers tourists an eagle's view over the African landscape. Berg and Dal, the only rest camp in the Kruger National Park that is within a rugged mountain setting, made up 12% of the questionnaires that were distributed and returned during the survey (www.sanparks.org).

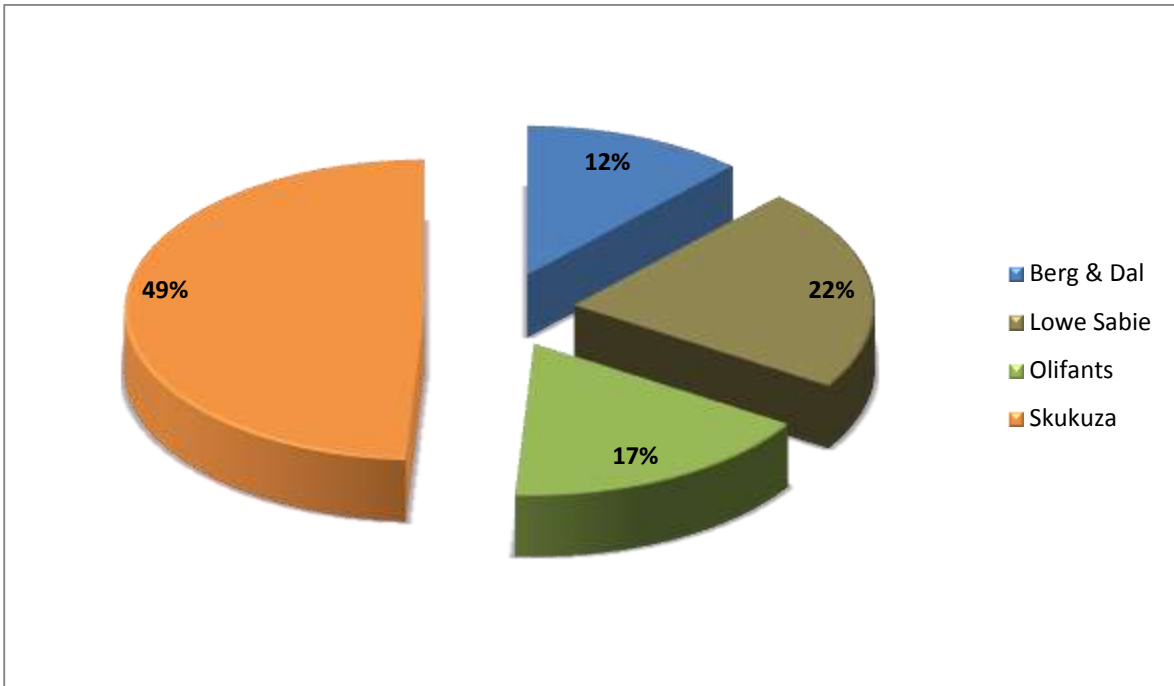


Figure 4.1: Response rate at the surveyed rest camps in the Kruger National Park

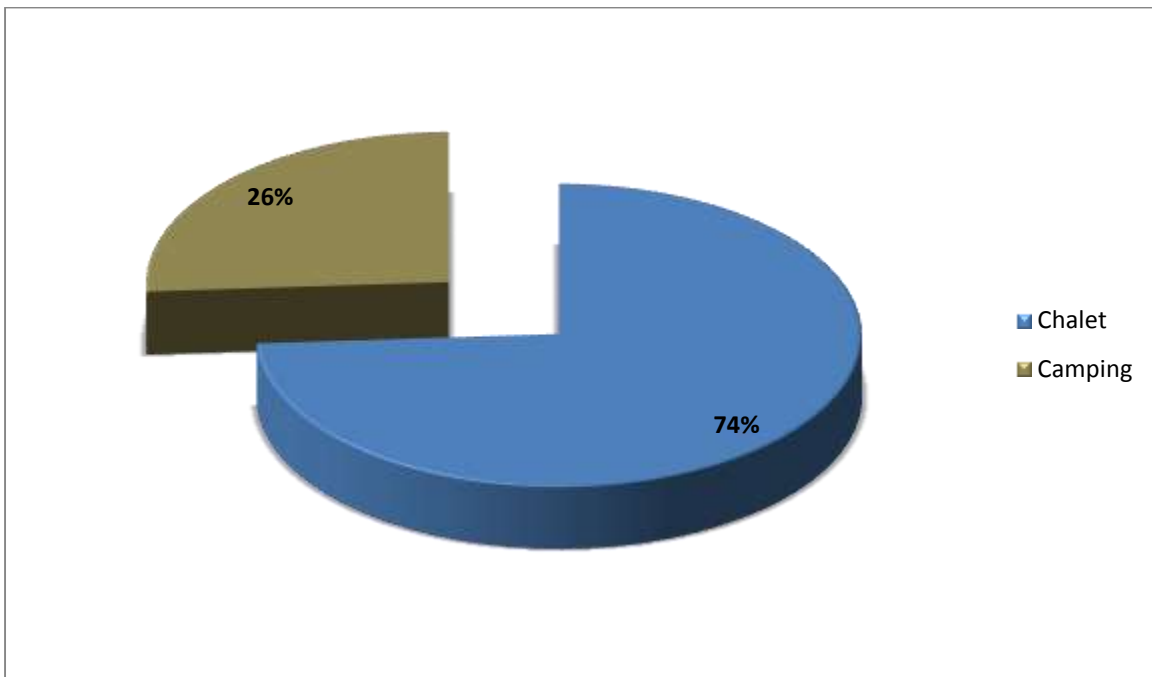


Figure 4.2: Type of accommodation

Visitors to the Kruger National Park have two main accommodation options to choose from, namely chalets and camping. The chalets at the Kruger National Park vary in sizes of two bed, three bed and six bed chalets (Tourism Update, 2014). The majority of respondents to the Park (74%) made use of chalets for accommodation as shown in Figure 4.2. Only 26% of the respondents made use of the camping facilities such

as camp sites and tented chalets in the various rest camps in the Park. Based on the response rate at the various rest camps the data was analysed through the use of various statistical analyses in order to determine the most competitive advantage and motivational factors that can be applied to develop a competitiveness model for the Kruger National Park in order to distinguish itself with a competitive advantage from competitors. ‘

4.3 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

A variety of statistical analyses were used to analyse the data and determine the components that the Kruger National Park could use to develop a competitiveness model. The next sections discuss, in full detail, the following analyses, namely descriptive statistics; factor analyses; ANOVA's; *t*-tests; correlation coefficients and Structural Equation Modelling. All were applied to confirm the competitive advantages that should be included in a competitiveness model for South African national parks.

4.3.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are used in cases where a single variable has to be discussed or the way a specific variable connects to another need to be explained (Babbie, 2013:460; Cooper & Schidler, 2006:656). This refers usually to demographic aspects like, gender, age, income and province of residence to name but a few. According to Malhotra *et al.* (2013:108) descriptive statistics are used to describe the profile and identify specific characteristics of the sample population that you have researched. It estimates the specific percentage of the sample population on a specific demographic or behavioural component, determines tourists' perception on a specific service or product, determines how the marketing variables influence the tourists' decision making and finally gives specific conclusions and recommendations on the data analysed. In this section of the statistical analysis, SPSS was used to analyse the data captured in Section A, the demographic profile, and Section B, the behavioural characteristics of visitors to the Kruger National Park. This was done by means of two-way frequency tables. These results are illustrated with the help of tables and graphs and discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

4.3.2 Factor Analyses

A factor analysis is known for the grouping of a large number of similar variables for the better and easier managing of variables (Bradley, 2013:321; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:897; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:593 Pietersen & Maree, 2008:222; Malhotra, 2007:609; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:657). The factors are regarded as independent techniques as all factors are examined according to their different relationships (Brace *et al.*, 2013:354; Bradley, 2013:321; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:622; Malhotra, 2007:610).

A factor analysis is used for three main reasons which are to:

- Examine the set of variables which is grouped under specific factors and determine the correlation that those variables have;
- Identifying a smaller set of uncorrelated variables to replace the original set of correlated variables in subsequent multivariate analysis; and
- Determine a manageable number of variables form a larger set of variables to use in subsequent multivariate analysis (Gerber, 2013a:254; Gerber, 2013b:289; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:622; Malhotra, 2007:610-611).

For the purpose of this study an exploratory approach was followed with the factor analyses and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) which is discussed in detail later. Exploratory research can be defined as a way in which research is conducted to discover patterns/factors/components that is not based on previous knowledge (Davies, 2014:12; Bradley, 2013:38). In the case of this research, determining the factors that would increase the competitive advantage of national park such as the Kruger National Park is typical to exploratory questions (Davis, 2014:6-9). The use of an exploratory factor analyses (EFA) was chosen to develop a greater understanding of what the possible competitive advantage factors and motives might be. This in turn would assist park management to manage the Park as effective and efficiently as possible to remain competitive and sustainable. These factors might also be tested later on through the designing of hypothesis, as in the case of the SEM, to determine how these factors relates towards each other (Monroecollege, 2012:28; Lacobucci & Churchill, 2009:60).

The pattern matrix of the principal axis factor analysis, using an Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalisation identified five competitive advantages (Section C) and four motivational factors (Section F) with both factor analyses having KMOs higher than 0.6. Chapter 5 discusses the factor analyses for both competitive advantage factors and motive factors in detail. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy of 0.95 was used to indicate that the pattern of correlation are relatively compact and yield distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2005:640, 684-685). The KMO is an index that is used to determine the relevance of the factor analysis. If the KMO is between 0.5 and 1.0 the factor can be regarded as suitable. However, if below 0.5 the factor analysis is regarded as not suitable for further analysis (Field, 2013:687). The factor analyses were furthermore tested by Bartlett's test of sphericity in which the hypothesised variables are statistically examined in order to determine if there are any uncorrelated variables in the population (Field, 2013:695).

The correlation matrix shows the relationship between the various factors, in the case of this study it thus pointed out the relationship between competitive advantage factors against each other, competitive advantages against motive factors and motive factors against each other. The correlations that have a 1.0 correlation are all omitted. The factor loadings are regarded as the simple loadings of each variable within the factor which makes it significant. The majority of the variables in both factor analyses had factor loadings higher than 0.3 that leads to a practically high correlation among the various factors identified. Bradley (2013:321) indicated that a factor analyses can be categorised into three levels of loading. In the case of a factor loading > 0.6 = very high factor loading, while > 0.3 represents a high factor loading and lastly < 0.3 the factor should be ignored. An inter-item correlation proves that there is internal consistency among the factors and the variables of which the competitive advantage factors had values between 0.37–0.53 and the motive factors values ranged between 0.37–0.88. An eigenvalue is defined as the amount of variance associated with the factor (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:622; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:594; Malhotra, 2007:617). Eigen values are used to test and determine if the data can be used in the research, and therefore the eigenvalue should be greater than 1.0.

4.3.2.1 Reliability and Validity

Cohen (1969:6) argues that the reliability of any value is regarded as the closest that the data can be generalised from the sample population onto the entire population. Cooper and Schindler (2006:260) add that reliability should be regarded as an important factor towards validity, but that reliability is not a sufficient condition for validity. According to Brace *et al.* (2013:382) it is advisable to analyse the reliability of the captured data as it measures the internal consistency (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:305; Pietersen & Maree, 2008:215; Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008:133). The manner in which the reliability can be tested is to provide the same test to the participants on a separate occasion and determine if there are any differences between the two samples collected. Internal consistency is the measuring of homogeneity, meaning that the same component is measured in a different manner to determine the reliability (Gray, 2014:154; Brace *et al.*, 2013:382; Bradley, 2013:59; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:318; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:306; Malhotra, 2007:248; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:260). Any source of error would not have an adverse impact on the data collection, as the measurement is formed in a constant way that would not lead to any inconsistencies (Malhotra, 2007:248). The reliability of a factor is in the majority of cases not reliable and therefore is measured as a correlation coefficient (Gray, 2014:154).

Previously the *split-half reliability* measure was used in which two halves of the items are summed and then the correlation between the two halves was calculated. In more recent years, *Cronbach's alpha* emerged, also known as coefficient alpha, which is easily determined through computerised programmes. A factor analysis can be categorised into four categories of reliability. If the *Cronbach alpha* is between 0.8–0.95 the reliability would be regarded as very good, in the case of the *Cronbach alpha* being between 0.7–0.79 the reliability would be regarded as good. A fair *Cronbach Alpha* reliability would have a loading of between 0.6–0.69 and a poor *Cronbach alpha* is any loading lower than 0.59 (Brace *et al.*, 2013:382; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:318; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:305-306; Gomm, 2008:46; Malhotra, 2007:285).

Reliability represents the consistency of a measure within the various measures used. However, validity is to determine the accuracy with which the measuring took place in order to represent a truthful score and concept (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:307; Malhotra, 2007:286). Instances where the measure is not that reliable the chance of errors occurring in the observed values are great (Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008:133). Validity is used as an instrument to provide accurate measures of what it purport to be measuring (Gomm, 2008:33). There is a variety of validity concepts such as content validity, criterion validity, construct validity and convergent validity. Content validity determines whether the content of the scale is an accurate representation of the suggested measurement task. Criterion validity reflects the scale of performance as expected in relation to other selected variables as a meaningful criterion. These scales can either be demographic, psychographic characteristics or behavioural and attitudinal measures. Construct validity refers to the questions of the construct that is being measured. Thus, the theoretical interpretation for the reasons to choose the mentioned scale was addressed as proposed earlier in the study. Lastly, the convergent validity is the extent to which the scale correlates positively with other measures of the same construct (Gray, 2014:150–151; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:319; Pietersen & Maree, 2008:217; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:257–259).

4.3.3 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

An ANOVA is defined as using the dependent variable and examining its mean values with that of the controlled independent variables which is then furthermore predicted from the levels of knowledge of the independent variable (Creswell, 2014:178; Bradley, 2013:320; Gerber, 2013b:277; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:521; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007:53; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:454). The technique commonly used to determine effect sizes would be Cohen's *d* or *f* tests.

An F-ratio is calculated which represents the variance between the groups. Instances where there is a large F-ratio, the variability between groups are more which is influenced by the independent variable (Brace *et al.*, 2013:194; Cohen, 1969:267; Creswell, 2014:178; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:521; Pallant, 2007:186; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:454; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:454). If there is a small variance due to the independent variables, the F-ratio would be greater than 1. However, if the F-ratio is

smaller than 1 it means that there is no significance, because the error variance is larger than the variance due to the manipulation of the independent variables (Brace *et al.*, 2013:195; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:521; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:546; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:454).

Therefore, if the F-ratio is large it would have a significant effect on the independent variables compared in the data. If the F-ratio is equal to 1 or less than 1 it means that there is no significance between the compared variables (Brace *et al.*, 2013:195; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:521; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:454). For example, Home Language can be measured in terms of Afrikaans, English and Other as indicated on the research questionnaire. If the significant level of the ANOVA is less or equals (\leq) .05 it means that there is a difference among the mean scores on the dependent variable for the groups measured. However, this does not indicate where the difference among the groups is on the competitiveness and motivational factors (Brace *et al.*, 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Table 5.8, in Chapter 5, indicates the differences based on the analysis of variance. The post-hoc test is specifically designed to ensure that Type 1 errors are minimalised in the case of large comparisons being made such as in Table 5.8. However, achieving significance is much harder when the sample is small or if a great number of scores is captured within a large group. A post-hoc comparison was conducted on the ANOVA analysis to determine if there were any significant differences among the groups of factors, respectively competitiveness and motivation. An overall F-ratio was calculated in which the significant difference among the groups has been identified. For the purpose of this study Tukey's Honestly Significant Different test (HSD) was used to determine the differences between groups (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:485; Pallant, 2007:174-175; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:435-436).

Tukey's HSG test is based on the honestly significant difference test. In the test the q -distribution ensures that the largest set of mean differences of the same population are evaluated using the same sampling distribution, which makes Tukey's HSD a conservative approach to significant differences (Gerber, 2013b:279; Abdi & Williams, 2010:1). Achieving significant results should be assessed through the identification of the various effect sizes to indicate the significant difference between the means of the groups that were compared (Pallant, 2007:176).

4.3.4 T-tests

Due to the importance of ensuring statistical significance the correlation coefficients was tested through a t -test (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:564). Statistical significance is referred to as the p -value that is determined through SPSS by means of a theoretical distribution from the original statistical test (Gerber, 2013a:259). T -tests can be divided into two types which are:

- Independent sample t -test to be used in cases where the mean scores of the different groups of people or conditions are compared; and
- Paired sample t -test to be used in cases where the same group of people's mean scores are compared on different occasions (Gerber, 2013b:280-281; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:905; Pallant, 2007:177; Cooper & Schindler, 2006:447).

In the case of this study independent sample t -tests were used. Due to the research collection that took place over a specific time within a specific population measuring the differences between two distinct groups, the independent sample t -test was the best way to determine differences among the continuous variables and effect sizes. Non-parametric tests are usually conducted when the variables in the questionnaire are measured against a nominal, ordinal or combination of both scales. With the latter in mind, the most common statistical analysis to conduct when having only two dependent variables which is measured according to non-parametric characteristics would be chi-square test (Malhotra, 2007:478). T -tests determine whether there are significant differences between two independent variables or group of individuals (Brace *et al.*, 2013:119).

The effect sizes can be derived from the *t*-test through the deduction of the two variables' mean values and then dividing the value with the highest standard deviation value (Brace *et al.*, 2013:124). Effect sizes indicates the significance between the two variables measured with effect sizes being between 0.2–0.4 as small, medium effect sizes are 0.5–0.8 and large effect sizes are categorised as being greater than 0.8 (Brace *et al.*, 2013:125; Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008:328; Pallant, 2007:175; Dancey & Reidy, 2004:211; Cohen, 1969:277-279). In the case of variables having little differences between groups the scores would overlap substantially (Dancey & Reidy, 2004:211).

4.3.5 Correlation Matrix

The correlation matrix is used to describe the linear relationship between two variables. However it does not indicate whether one variable causes the other (Malhotra, 2007:536; Pallant, 2007:112&115). It is furthermore used to report the observed correlations that exist among the multiple variables (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:562). The correlation design is used in cases where the relationship between two or more variables is determined (Creswell, 2014:12). In some instances the correlation between variable A and B could be due to the fact that A causes B, that B causes A, or there might be an additional variable C which is the reason for A and B. Where there is a third or fourth variable involved it should always be considered in the observation (Malhotra, 2007:538; Pallant, 2007:112).

The Pearson correlation coefficients (*r*) only accept values which are between -1 and +1. A positive correlation means that if one variable increase, the other would also increase. Therefore any correlation between 0.0 and 1.0 is positive. On the other hand, if a correlation is anything between -1.0–0.0 it has a negative effect meaning that if one variable increase the other variable will decrease. It should be noted that the value of the correlation gives a clear indication to the strength of the relationship. The perfect correlation would be if the correlation has a value of 1 or -1 and when drawing a scatter plot, it would show a straight line in the relationship between the two variables with an easy prediction what the influence might be. However, if the correlation has a 0.0 value, it means that the relationship between the two variables is non-existent.

Therefore it is impossible to make any predictions between the two variables (Gerber, 2013b:283; Pallant, 2007:134). Furthermore Cohen (1988:79-81; 1969:77) as well as Gerber (2013b:283) indicated that there are three levels of interpreting the values in the correlation matrix with all values between 0 and 1 classified as a small effect $r = 0.1$; medium effect with $r = 0.3$ and large effect $r = 0.5$. Spearman's (ρ) non-parametric technique was used to tabulate the correlation between the competitiveness factors and motivational factors (Table 5.7 and Table 5.8 in Chapter 5) as the data was collected on the basis of a nominal scale. The non-parametric techniques do not require any rigorous requirements or make any assumptions with regard to the primary population (Pallant, 2007:255).

4.3.6 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

In addition to the multiple statistical analyses that were conducted, the researcher wanted to confirm the findings that were identified and therefore conducted a structural equation modelling analysis. Although a SEM is known as a statistical methodology used for confirmatory approach (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:710; Kline, 2011:8; Byrne, 2010:8), in the case of this study it was used as an exploratory approach as it was not part of the original research methodology. But it was against an analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon which takes into account two important aspects, namely (1) the variables of the study are represented by a series of structural equations and (2) structural relations can be built into a model to have a clear conceptual representation of the theory that is being studied. The hypothesis can then be tested statistically in a combined analysis of all the variables to identify the commonalities that it has with regards to the data captured (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:710; Briggs, Coleman & Morrison, 2012:377; Byrne, 2010:3). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011:692) and Malhotra *et al.* (2013:710) a SEM is a technique used to develop and measure models against each other and determining which would be the best to implement.

There are some aspects that should be considered when conducting a SEM analysis. Firstly, that a SEM is more of a confirmatory approach than exploratory through the nature of the multivariate being descriptive of nature. Secondly, "*the SEM provides explicit estimates of these error variance parameters*" (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:710;

Byrne, 2010:3). Thirdly, a SEM can include both observed and unobserved variables in the analysis. Finally, the best possible way to determine multivariate relations among variables or factors is through the SEM methodology. In order to make use of the SEM methodology accordingly Hair *et al.* (2010:653-678) five steps should be followed to complete the SEM analysis. To follow is a discussion on the steps that describe the process in which a SEM analysis should be conducted.

Phase 1: Defining individual constructs

The first step in the SEM is to define the individual constructs to be included in the model. These constructs are defined through an analysis of a relevant theory on the subject of different variables and constructs as well as their interrelations. In Chapters two and three the relevant literature regarding the individual constructs were discussed in detail and are included in the statistical analysis as discussed in Chapter five. Based on the theoretical relationship as identified in the relevant literature chapters, as well as in the results a number of relationships were hypothesised and tested (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:715).

Phase 2: Developing and specifying the measurement model

Only if the constructs have been recognized and the observed variables measured a measurement model can be developed to determine the specified relationships between the latent and observed variables (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:715; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009:311; Tomarken & Waller, 2005:32; Whitman & Woszczyński, 2004:49).

Phase 3: Designing a study to produce empirical results

It is important to notice that a SEM analysis is the most effective if conducted on a large sample size (Kline, 2011:11; Hair *et al.*, 2010:740) with the data being multivariate when performing a SEM with AMOS in particular (Arbuckle, 2007). However, Malhotra *et al.* (2013:716-717) indicate that the SEM depends on a number of aspects such as the complexity of the model, estimation techniques, amount of data that is missing, the amount of average error variance among the indicators or measured variables, and lastly the distribution of the multivariate data.

In phase three, there are a variety of aspects that can influence the outcomes of the SEM such as type of data analysed, sample size, model estimation and computer software (AMOS v 21.0.0) used in the study.

Phase 4: Assessing Measurement Model Validity

The goodness-of-fit (GOF) within the SEM is calculated to indicate construct validity as well as to compare the model fits of different models (Byrne, 2010:3; Hancock & Mueller, 2010:371). In the current study different SEM models were not compared. Instead the GOF was used to interpret the model fit. The following GOF indexes were used to interpret the model fit:

- **Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)** is a measure used to validate whether the model is fitting. THE RMSEA is the square root of the mean of these squared residuals (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:718; Biswas, 2008:179). An advantage of making use of the RMSEA measurement is that the confidence interval can be constructed in providing a range of RMSEA between 0.03 and 0.08 for example with a 95% confidence level (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:718; Hair *et al.*, 2006:748).
- **Normed Fit Index (NFI)** is also a widely used measurement model that represents the incremental fit indices for a specified model if compared to a Chi-square null model in which the variables are assumed to be uncorrelated (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:719; Hair *et al.*, 2006:748–74). In the case of the NFI value being greater than 0.90 it signifies the model fit.
- **Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)** is a proposed index to be used to compare the proposed model against the null model (Schermelele-Engel & Moosbrugger, 2003:23-74). According to Hair *et al.* (2006:749) the comparative fit index is similar to that of a mathematical comparison of a specified theoretical measurement model and the baseline null model.
- **Expected Cross Validation Index (ECVI)** determines the estimated model fit that would be achieved if another sample size is to be used. The estimated number of parameters for the given model is taken into account. The ECVI can be regarded as the most useful in the comparison of two models (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010:182-183).

Phase 5: Specifying the structural model

In this step, the constructs are assigned to a different proposed model of which then the model is determined through the proposed hypothesis that was set by the researcher (Hair *et al.*, 2010:673). According to Malhotra *et al.* (2013:723) the validity of the structural model should be assessed according to the assessing fit, comparison with competing models and testing hypothesised relationships. The model fit is measured according to the measurement model of which the chances of more parameters are less likely to occur, however it can be equal to the measurement model. In most cases the model fit has less parameter which makes it easier to describe and to discuss the exact model. It should then be motivated as to why this specific model fits better with the competing models and include the necessary alternatives and considerations to be considered. The hypothesis developed should be transformed into empirically tested hypothesis, which is fully described in Chapter 5 of this study Malhotra *et al.* (2013:723).

The Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation method was used to estimate the possible viability of the model. This method is much more vigorous than the weighted least squares and generalised least square methods (Olsson, Foss, Troye & Howell, 2000:557). Furthermore the ML is also used to include the problem of missing data.

Phase 6: Testing Structural Model hypotheses

The last and final step is to determine how well the theorised constructs measure to that of reality. The manner in which the structural model fit the observed data to the extent in which the equilibrium is reached between the empirical covariance matrix and model implied covariance matrix, determines whether the model fits (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:724; Whitman & Woszczyński, 2004:56).

4.4 CONCLUSION

The aim of this study is summarised in one question, namely what do tourists regard as aspects contributing to the competitive advantage of the Kruger National Park? This chapter described the method of quantitative research and statistical analyses that were used to answer the focus question of the study. The main analyses therefore included a factor analysis to determine the main factors that may lead the Park to

increase its competitive advantage; *t*-tests and ANOVA's to determine the comparison that the factors from the competitive advantage and motives have on the behavioural aspects of tourist travelling to the Kruger National Park; correlation matrixes that indicated the variance between the factor analyses and lastly, a structural equation model. In the next chapter the results and findings based on the various statistical analyses conducted are discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

*Success is like reaching an important birthday and finding you're exactly the same.
Audrey Hepburn*

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the results that were obtained from the survey that was done at the Kruger National Park from 27 December 2013 to 4 January 2014. The areas that were covered during the survey included obtaining the demographic profile of tourists that travel to the Kruger National Park during the festive season of the year, determining tourists' behaviour at a national park; identifying the key factors that tourists view important with regards to their motives when visiting the Kruger National Park and determining the factors which tourists consider important for a competitive advantage. Furthermore, a correlation between the motives and competitive advantage factors was conducted to determine which factors are closely interrelated to one another, and how these factors impact on the Kruger National Parks' management in terms of tourists.

5.2 RESULTS

The following section discusses the results obtained from the data collected. The first section discusses the demographical details of visitors to the Kruger National Park in order to design a specific profile of a tourist visiting the park. Thereafter two factor analyses were conducted to determine the competitive advantage and motivational factors of the Kruger National Park. An ANOVA and *t*-test follows which emphasise the significant differences between the competitive advantage factors, motivational factors, behavioural characteristics and demographic details. A correlation matrix determines the significant correlations between the competitive advantage factors and motivational factors. The correlation matrix was supported with a SEM analysis to verify the outcomes of the competitive advantage factors that were influenced by the motivational factors.

5.2.1 Demographic Profile

This section discusses the demographic components of visitors to the Kruger National Park. The section entails information such as home language, age, province and country of residence, highest level of education, annual income, average spending, number of times the Kruger National Park have been visited over the past three years, average of nights staying in the park and the media through which information about the Kruger National Park was obtained.

5.2.1.1 Gender

Figure 5.1 shows that the majority of respondents (58%) were male, while 42% of the respondents at the Kruger National park were female. However, both genders were good represented as visitors to the Park.

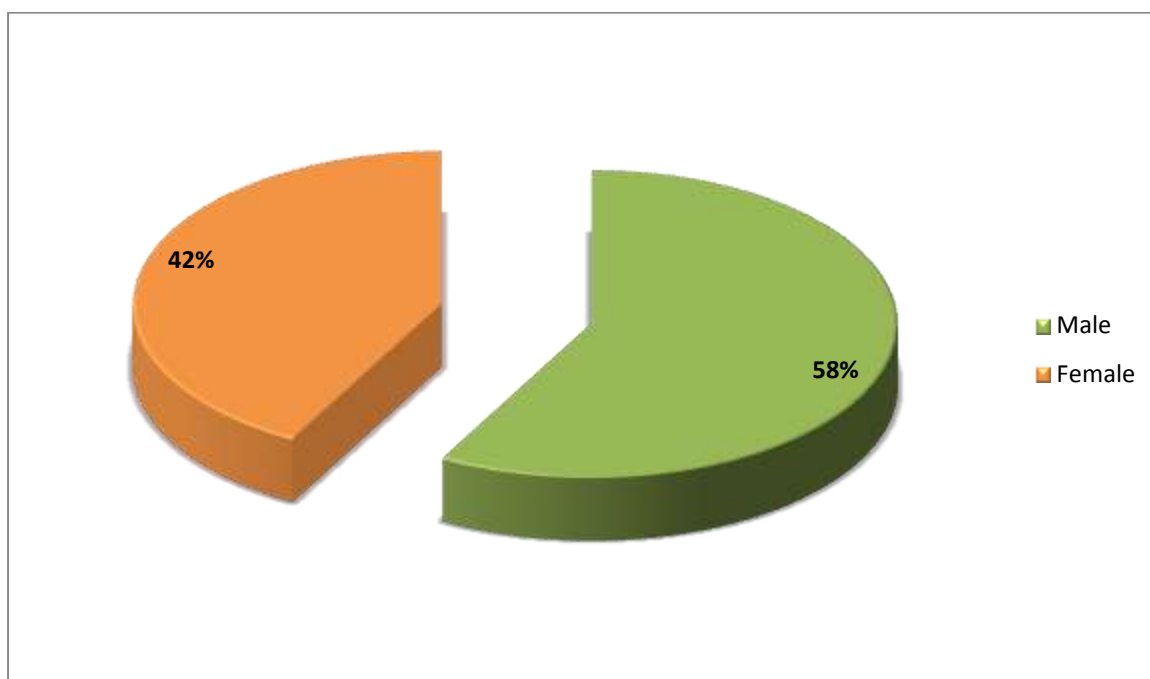


Figure 5.1: Gender

5.2.1.2 Age group

Figure 5.2 shows that the majority of respondents that visited the Kruger National Park were between the ages of 45 to 59 years old (35%). Twenty three per cent (23%) of the respondents that visited the Kruger National Park was between the ages of 35 to 44 years old. The age group 25 to 34 years represented 18% of the respondents and 17% of the respondents was from the age group 60 years and older.

A mere 7% of the respondents were between 18 and 24 years. The average age of tourists visiting the Kruger National Park over the festive season for 2013/2014 was 45 years.

Research at the Kruger National Park for a period from 2002 to 2013, indicated that for this period, 1% to 3% of respondents are from the age group 18 to 24 years (TREES, 2014:7). However, in 2014 an increase to 7% was evident. The average age of visitors to the Kruger National Park during 2002–2013 were between 42.5 and 51 years of age. Only one questionnaire per travelling group has been distributed among visitors to the Kruger National Park. Only visitors above 18 years completed the questionnaire. Therefore, it can be argued that the average age of respondents would most of the times be significantly high, as children are mostly travelling with their parents and not requested to complete the questionnaire. Thus, the Park cannot only appeal to the markets within older age groups, as the children’s views on the park were not measured, especially in this survey. This age gap is known as the *Baby Boomers* which represent a large age group that comprises of the majority of managerial and professional occupations and have at least a tertiary qualification (Cant *et al.*, 2006:102). This age group is characterised by high levels of education, higher disposable income and dual-career households (Cant *et al.*, 2006:104).

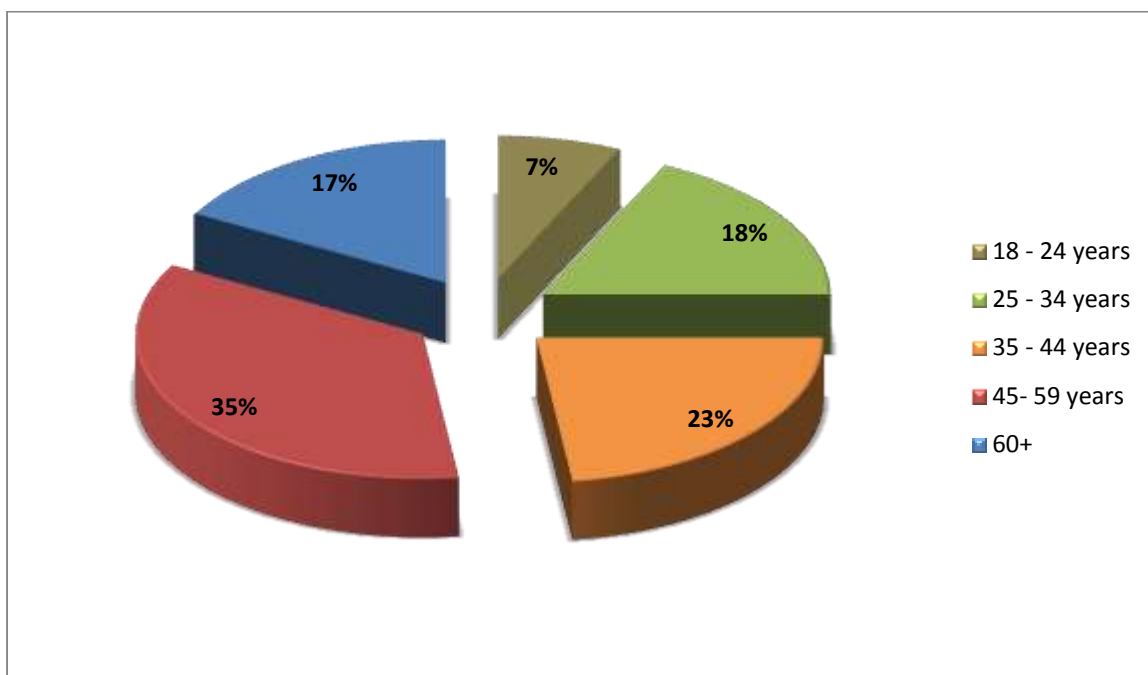


Figure 5.2: Age group

5.2.1.3 Home language

Figure 5.3 shows an even representation from both Afrikaans (44%) and English (40%) speaking visitors. The other languages that made up 16% of the response rate included French, German, Tshivenda, Tsonga and Zulu. The other languages provide an indication of the number of international tourists that visited the Park during the survey period.

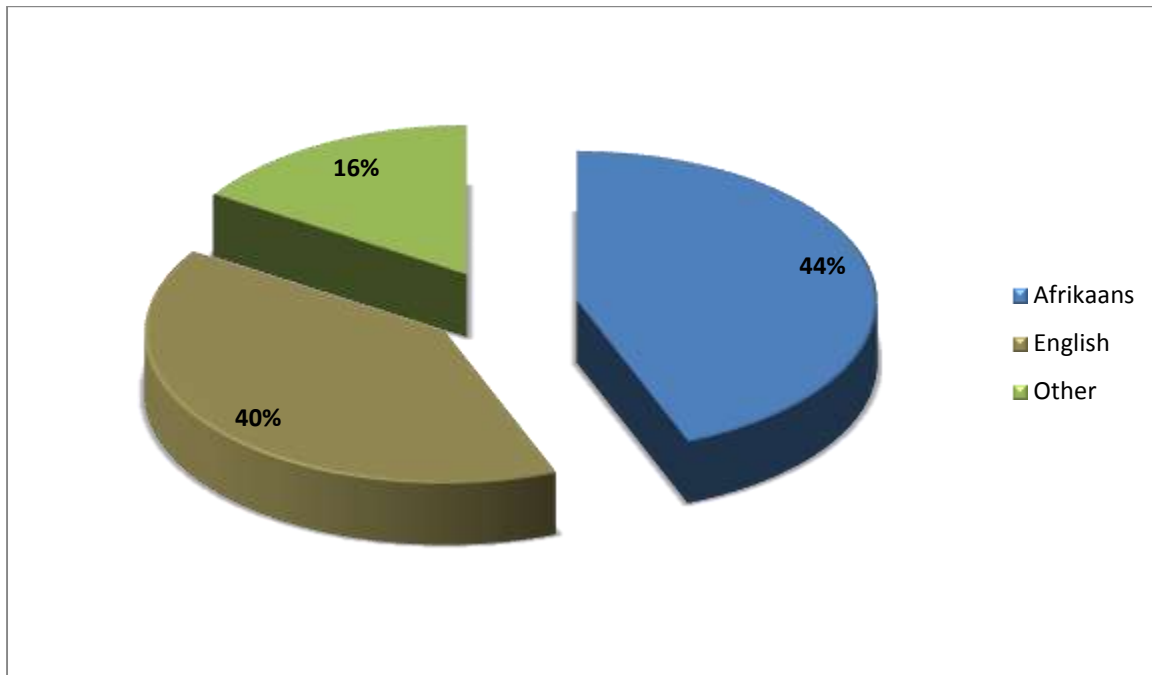


Figure 5.3: Home language

5.2.1.4 Marital status

Figure 5.4 indicates that the majority of respondents were married (69%) and the second highest numbers of respondents were single (14%) (Figure 5.6). Eleven percent (11%) of the respondents indicated living together and 5% divorced. Only one percent (1%) of the respondents was widow/ed. Thus, corresponding to the age group best represented (see Figure 5.4) it can be concluded that most visitors to the Kruger National Park are married.

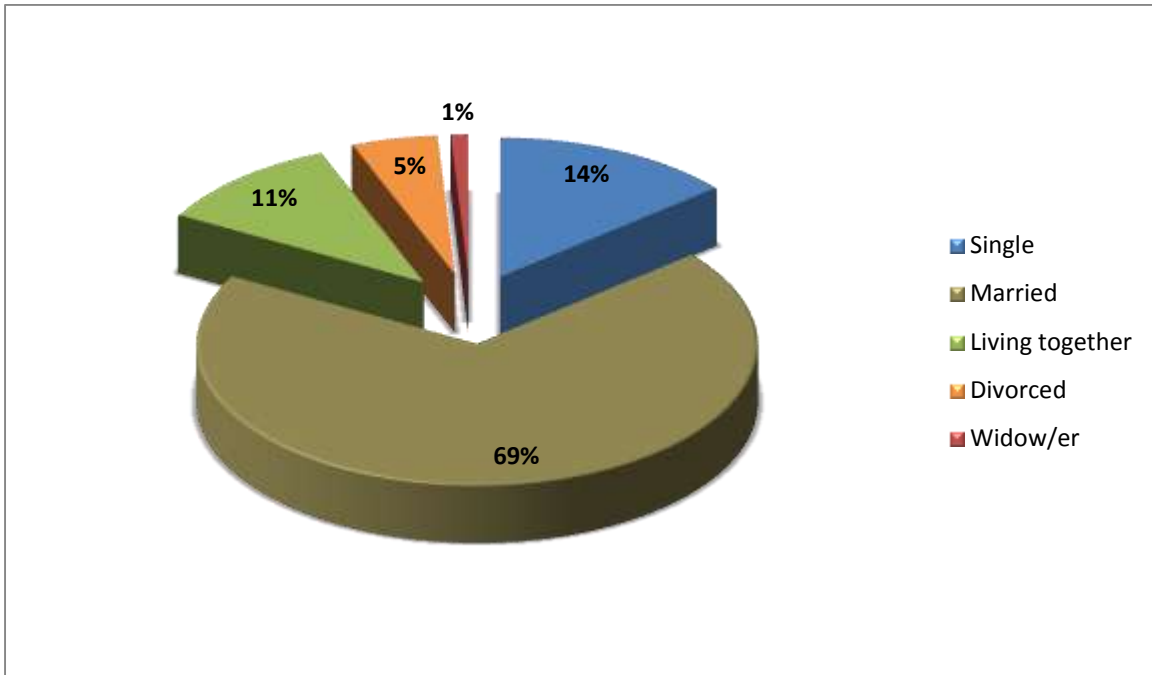


Figure 5.4: Marital status

5.2.1.5 Average travel group size

Figure 5.5 below, indicates that the majority of the respondents (38%) travelled in a group of two people. The second largest number of tourists to the Park travelled in groups of four people (21%) which is also calculated as the average size of travelling group to the Kruger National Park during the December 2013 and January 2014 festive season. Twelve percent (12%) of the respondents travelled in a group of three people and 10% in a group of six. Groups of five people only represented 9% of the respondents and respectively 4% of the respondents travelled in groups of seven or eight and more.

The average travel group size may be linked to the average age of respondents and their marital status as the respondents do not have children or travel without the children as they might not be living with parents anymore. Based on the information in Figure 5.5 there are two types of markets that the Kruger National Park can target to obtain a competitive advantage over its competitors. The majority of tourists are between the ages of 45 and 59 years, married and travel in groups of two people. This target group of visitors can be described as being part of the post-parenthood household life cycle.

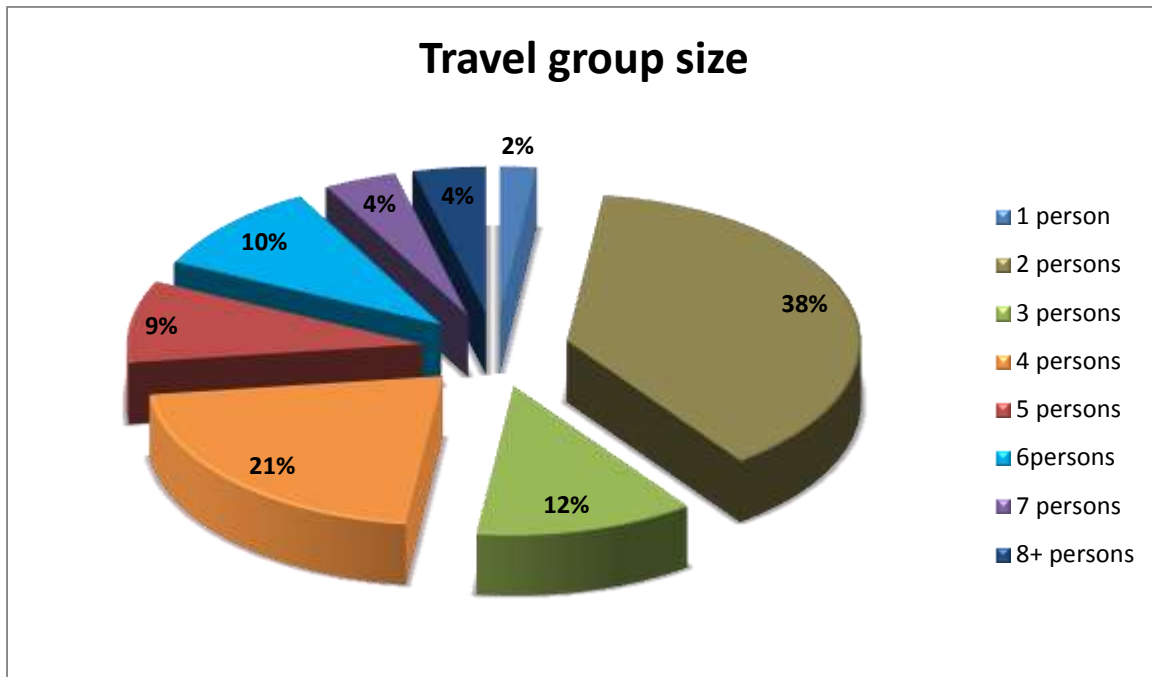


Figure 5.5: Travel group size

The post-parenthood stage in the traditional life cycle is when the children have left home. This stage is often referred to as the “empty nest” stage. Parents often experience this as extremely traumatic and start to take part in certain activities which were not possible while the children were still living with them (Parumsur & Roberts-Lombard, 2012:277). The positive side of the coin is that during these life cycle stage, people tend to be more financially stable (Shiffman & Kanuk, 2007:346). Banes and Fill (2013:68) suggest that the post-parenthood or empty nest stage be also sub-categorised into two stages, namely the older married couples, no children living at home, chief income earner or both working (Empty I) and the older married couples with no children living at home, chief income earner or both retired (Empty nest II).

The second market that the Kruger National Park can target is that of the travel group size of four people. This group of people might be parents together with children travelling to the Park. In the traditional life cycle, this group refers to the parenthood stage, in which the structure of the household changes gradually as the children grows up and become independent. However, a significant change takes place in the financial resources of the household (Parumsur & Roberts-Lombard, 2012:276; Shiffman & Kanuk, 2007:346).

The parenthood stage continues for approximately 20 odd years in which various life changes take place. This stage is therefore subdivided into the preschool stage or full nest I; elementary school phase or full nest II; the high school and tertiary education stage or full nest III (Banes & Fill, 2013:68; Parumsur & Roberts-Lombard, 2012:277).

5.2.1.6 Number of people paid for

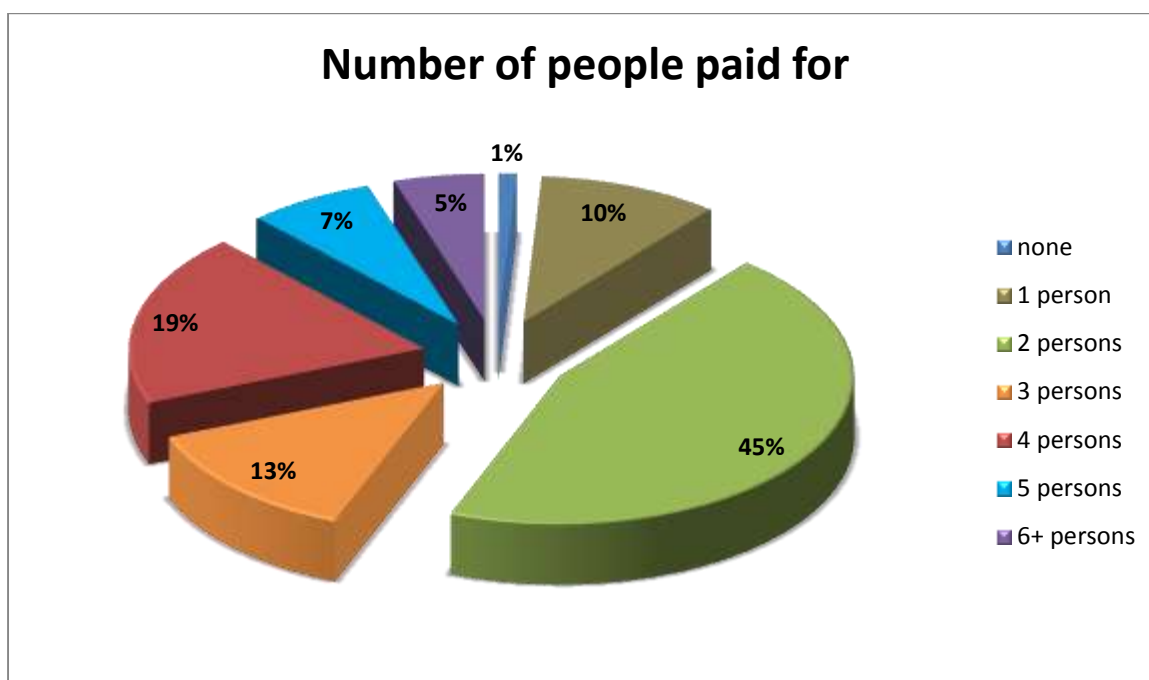


Figure 5.6: Number of people paid for

Figure 5.6 illustrates that 45% of the respondents paid for two people including themselves, which can be linked to the marital status with 69% of the respondents being married. Nineteen percent (19%) of the respondent paid for four persons in the travel group and 13% of the respondents paid for three persons including themselves. People that paid for only one person, including themselves, made up 10% of the response rate with only 7% of people paying for up to five persons. Five percent (5%) of the respondents paid for persons who were travelling in groups of six or more. A mere 1% did not pay for anyone except themselves. One could argue that most people travel in groups of two and more, of which the spending in the Park then decreases among the travel group (Saayman & Saayman, 2009:501).

Park management should shift its focus to promote the Park as an all-inclusive family destination and provide discounts to large groups when travelling to the Park. Therefore, Park management should consider the travel group size and apply it to its competitive advantage. The average group size of visitors to the Kruger National Park is four persons per group. Figure 5.6 indicates that this forms the second largest size of persons per group travelling to the Kruger National Park.

5.2.1.7 Province of residence

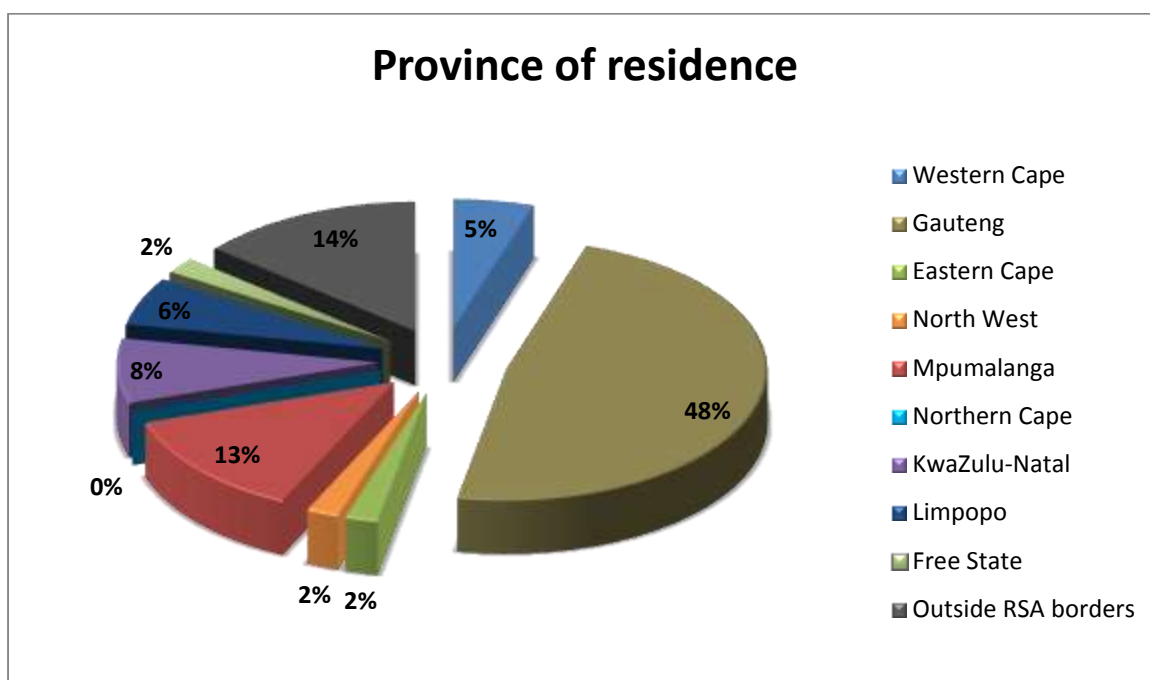


Figure 5.7: Province of residence

Figure 5.7 indicates that the majority of respondents reside in Gauteng (48%) with the second highest percentage of respondents residing outside the borders of South Africa (14%). Thirteen percent (13%) of the respondents lives in Mpumalanga in which the Kruger National Park is situated. Respondents that live in KwaZulu-Natal made up 8% of the response rate and 6% were from Limpopo which also borders with the Kruger National Park. There was a 5% response rate from visitors residing in the Western Cape. Respectively, 2% of the respondents were from the Eastern Cape, North West and Free State. The Northern Cape had shown no representation during the period of data collection. It is therefore clear that visitors from Gauteng make up the majority of overnight tourists to the Kruger National Park. It might be argued that tourists from the least representative provinces' income per capital is less and therefore cannot afford

the pricing structures and additional costs involved in travelling to and in the Park for a certain period of time as the distance to the Kruger National Park may also have an influence on tourists' travel behaviour (Saayman & Saayman, 2009:501).

5.2.1.8 Country of residence

The majority of respondents that travelled to the Kruger National Park was South Africans (91%) and only 9% of the respondents resided outside of the South African borders in countries such as Germany, France, Italy, Denmark, Austria, Netherlands, Australia and New Zealand. Previous research by TREES (2014:8) between 2009 and 2014 support this finding, which indicated the domestic market as most visitors to the Park. It is thus clear that the Kruger National Park's highest number of tourist is domestic travellers (Figure 5.8). The low participation rate from international tourists might be due to the time the research was conducted, which was within the South African summer holiday and festive season-break. Park management should take this opportunity and develop specific products for the domestic market with prices and activities that is affordable for the domestic market. Kim, Lee and Klenosky (2003:169) suggest that due to the increase in nature-based tourism destinations, national parks should focus on both the domestic and international markets.

Park management should consider ways in which the South African summer season can be marketed together with exceptional wildlife encounter activities for international tourists. The tourism division of the Park should collaborate with tour operators and design special holiday packages for overseas tourists during this time to attract more international travellers. The low number of responses from international tourists may be seen as a limitation to the study, in the sense that there is no representative number of international tourists involved in the distribution and completion of the questionnaires. As the Kruger National Park is a well-known international tourism destination, a large number of international tourists visit the park each year and should be included in research on motivational factors and aspects that could add to the Park's competitive advantage.

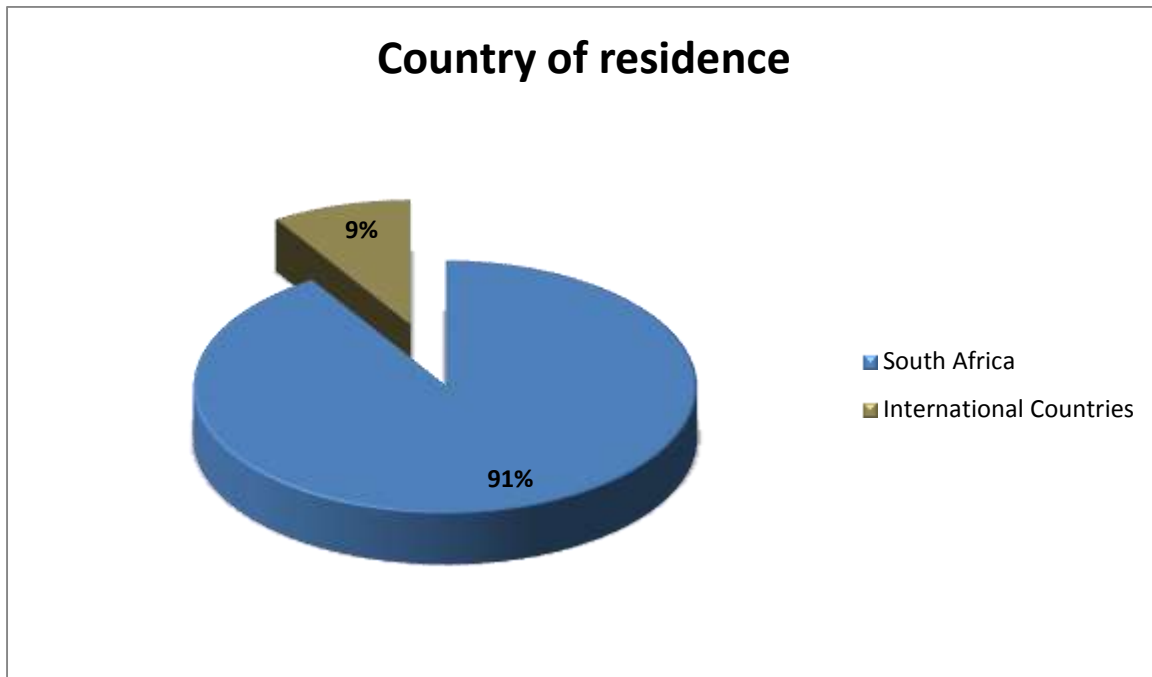


Figure 5.8: Country of residence

5.2.1.9 Age of first visit to Kruger National Park

Figure 5.9 indicates that the majority of respondents (32%) were between 6 and 15 years old when they first visited the Park. Twenty-eight percent (28%) of respondents visited the Kruger National Park when they were between 0 to 5 years old and 18% was between 16 and 24 years old when first visiting the Park. Sixteen percent (16%) of the respondents indicated that their first visit to the Kruger National Park was between the ages of 25 and 39 years. Only 5% of the respondents indicated that they were between 40 and 59 years when first visiting the Park. One (1%) of the respondents indicated that their first exposure to the Kruger National Park was at the age of 60 or older. The average age of people visiting the Kruger National Park for the first time is 15 years old.

It can be argued that, if the respondents visited the park for the first time at a younger age with more follow-up visits as they grow older, these respondents have developed an understanding and appreciation for national parks which resulted in visits to the Kruger National Park as part of the tourists' lifestyle. Therefore, the earlier tourists are exposed to national parks the more likely it is that these tourists will become loyal and repeat visitors to that specific natural environment. Thus the exposure of children while still at a young age to national parks such as the Kruger National Park, is important.

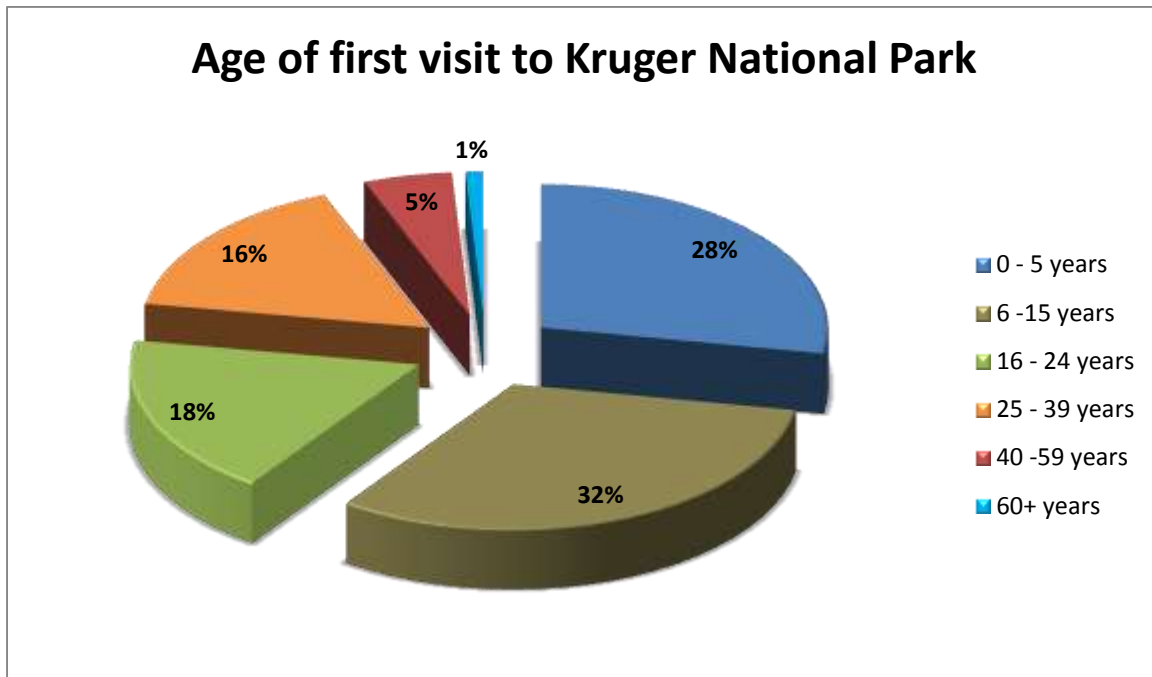


Figure 5.9: Age of first visit to Kruger National Park

5.2.1.10 Highest level of education

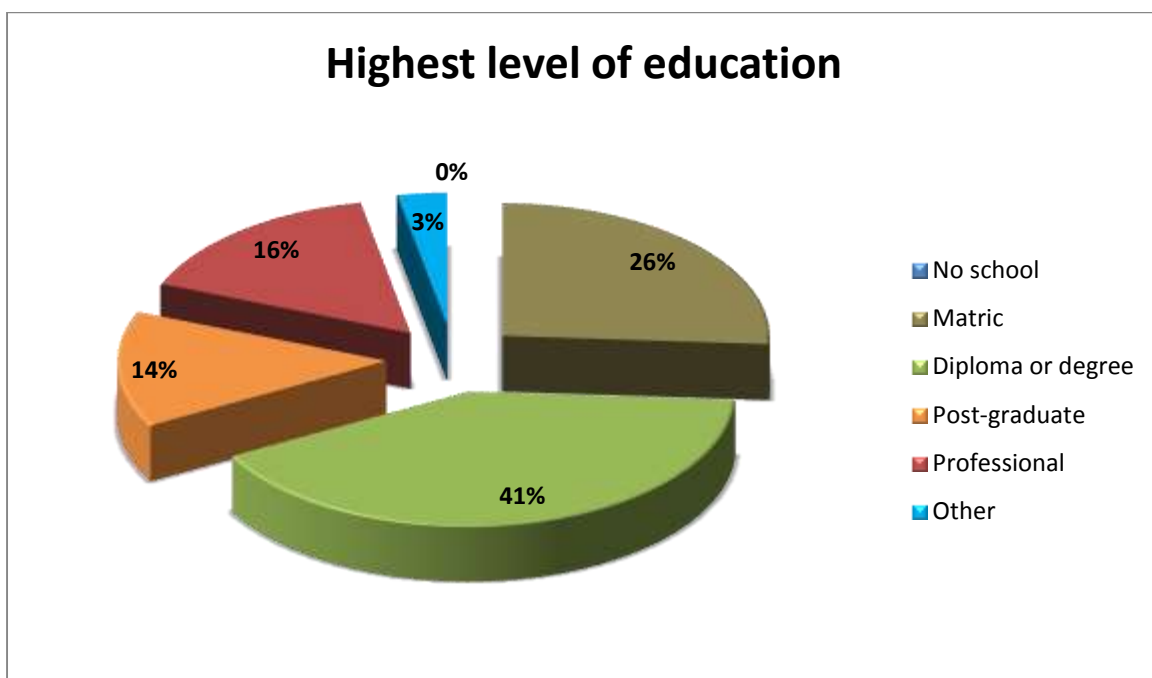


Figure 5.10: Highest level of education

As illustrated in Figure 5.10, the majority of the respondents (41%) obtained either a diploma or a degree with 26% of respondents holding a matric certificate. Sixteen percent (16%) of the respondents indicated that they obtained a professional qualification and 14% a post-graduate qualification. Only 3% of the respondents obtained some sort of other qualification such as National Vocational Certificate

(for example a N4/N5 or N6). No respondents were without any qualification. Personal characteristics, of which education is one, have a huge role in the way in which respondents experience the national park (Beerli & Martin, 2004:623). Visitors to nature-based destinations such as national parks, have a tendency to learn and behave in a more natural environment and socio-cultural respected manner (Jurdana, 2009:270; Hammit, 1984; Luo & Deng, 2007:393; Orams, 1997). Do Valle, Silva, Mendes and Guerreiro (2006:28&38) support this and indicate that the majority of tourists have tertiary education qualifications which influences the decision on the travel destination.

Therefore, it can be reasoned that tourists travelling to the Kruger National Park might hold some sort of higher education qualification, which could play a role in tourists expectations of learning more about sustainable living. Pedersen (2002:23) adds that eco-tourists are mostly young and highly educated with professional and managerial positions. Baloglu and McClearly (1999); MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997) as well as Stern and Krakover (1993) all found that the level of tourist education influenced the respondents' perceived image of tourism destination. In this case, tourist education level might influence the way in which the visitors perceive the Kruger National Park. Orams (1997:295) argues that if tourists are educated in an effective manner, the management of visitors to natural areas such as national parks would be much more effective.

5.2.1.11 Annual gross income

Figure 5.11 shows that the majority of respondents (28%) receive an annual income which is more than R552 001. Sixteen percent (16%) of the respondents receives an annual income between R221 001 to R305 000. Respondents that receive an annual income between R140 001 to R221 000 and R 305 001 to R431 000 respectively, made up 15% of the sample size. Eleven percent (11%) of the respondents receive an annual income between R20 001 to R140 000 and 10% between R431 001 to R552 001. A mere 5% of the respondents receives less than R20 000 per annum. The annual income can be categorized with the respondents' level of qualification and province of residence. It is clear that people with a higher level of education earn more with higher spending. It can therefore be contended that Gauteng is South Africa's

economic business hub, and the majority of people residing in the province would have a relevant high qualification that enable them to have a higher disposable income. These findings can furthermore be linked to the age group of visitors to the Kruger National Park. As already indicated, the age group comprises older married couples, suggesting that these visitors have relative high occupational positions within their respective fields of occupation.

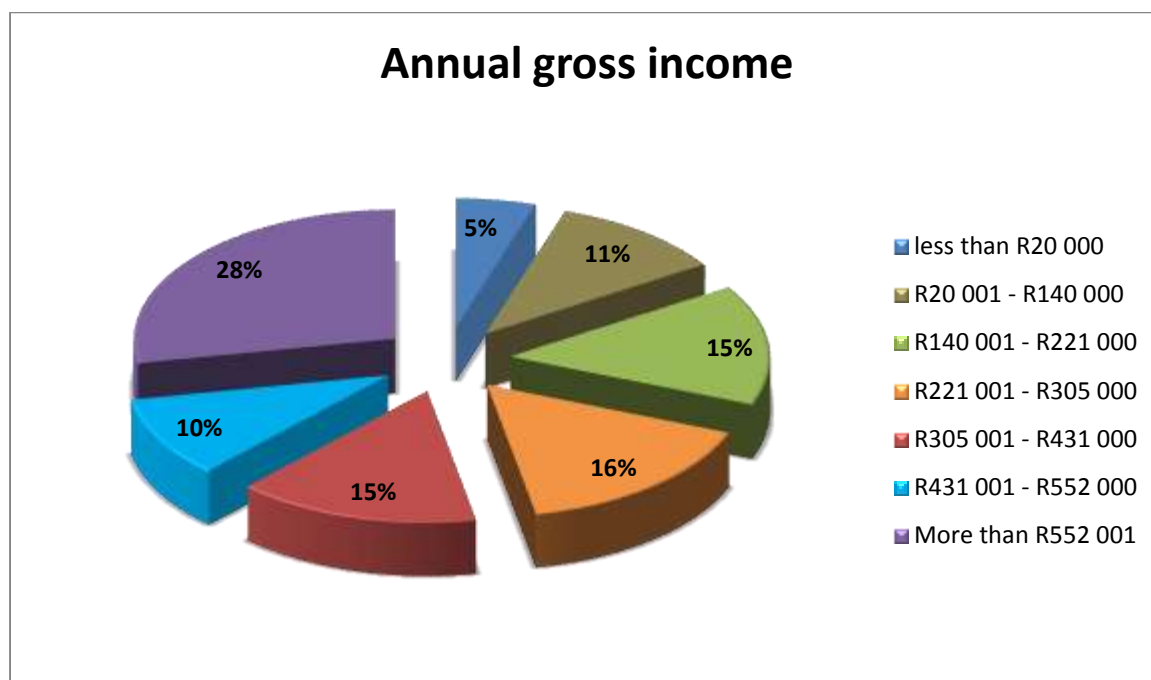


Figure 5.11: Annual gross income

5.2.1.12 Decision made to visit Kruger National Park

The majority of respondents (68%) indicated that their decision to travel to the Kruger National Park was taken more than a month in advance. Cant and Van Heerden (2013:70) explain that this type of decision maker is referred to as a habitual decision maker and means that the tourists are brand loyal visitors. The brand loyal visitors will be sure to book their visit to the Park well in advance. Nineteen percent (19%) of respondents indicated that their decision to travel to the Kruger National Park is based on it being an annual event. A few respondents (7%) made their decision a month before travelling and for 6% of the respondents, it was a spontaneous decision. Apparently, most respondents plan their trip to the Kruger National Park long in advance to ensure availability of accommodation due to the Park's popularity among visitors, especially over the festive season.

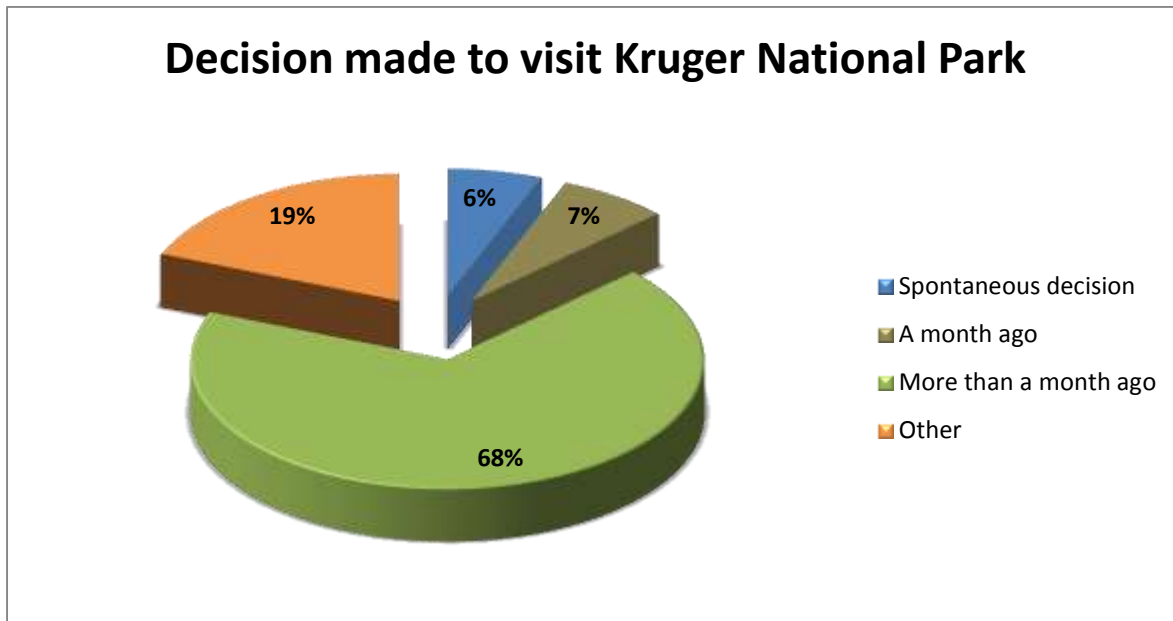


Figure 5.12: Decision made to visit Kruger National Park

5.2.1.13 Mode of transport

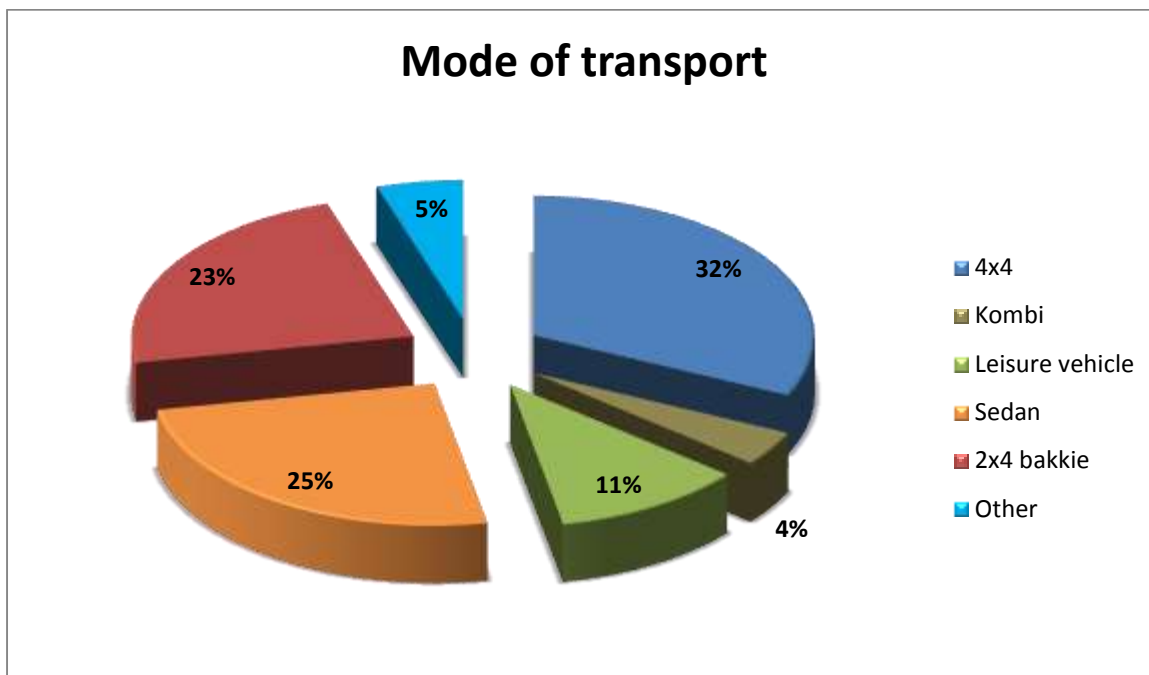


Figure 5.13: Mode of transport

Figure 5.13 illustrates that the majority of the respondents (32%) made use of a 4x4 to travel to the Kruger National Park, as it is a leisure type vehicle and build for all types of terrain. The Kruger National Park has a variety of routes to choose from of which 4x4 vehicles can access all of them such as tarred roads, gravel roads and off road tracks.

Some respondents (25%) travelled with a sedan and 23% with a 2x4 bakkie. Respondents that made use of a leisure vehicle were 11%. The other means of transport that the respondents used, included busses and SUVs and made up 5% of the response rate. A mere 4% of the respondents travelled to the Kruger National Park with a kombi.

5.2.1.14 Initiator of decision made to travel to the Kruger National Park

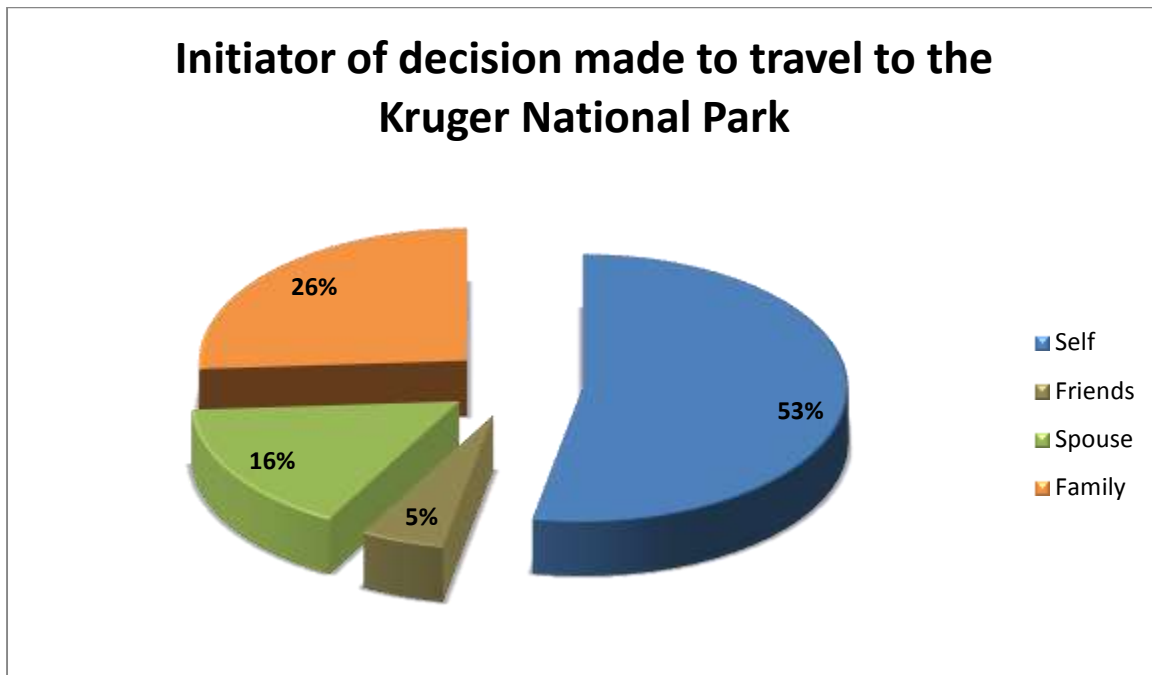


Figure 5.14: Initiator of decision made to travel to the Kruger National Park

It is evident from Figure 5.14 that the majority of the respondents (53%) initiated the decision to travel to the Kruger National Park themselves. One could argue that the 26% that was influenced by family to visit the Park is due to the fact that the respondents have been travelling to the Park from a young age. The other 16% of respondents indicated that their spouses made the decision to travel to the Park and only 5% was influenced by friends.

5.2.1.15 Children accompanying visitors to the Park

Although the majority of respondents (52%) had children accompanying them to the Kruger National Park, quite a large part of the response rate (48%) visited the Park without children. Thus, there is an even distribution between respondents with children and those without, which indicates that facilities for both segments of the market are

catered for. Figure 5.15 links with Figure 5.7 which indicates that the average travelling group sizes are either people of two or four, and that the travelling groups included children.

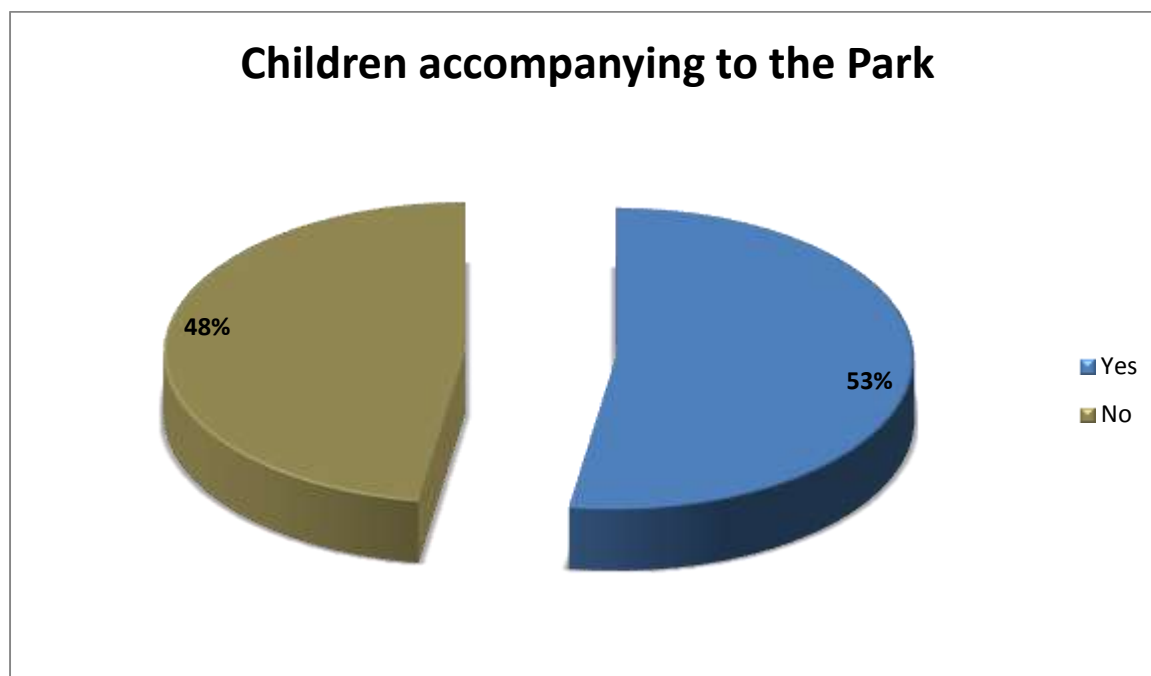


Figure 5.15: Children accompanying visitors to the Park

5.2.1.16 Average spending at the Park

Table 5.1: Average spending at the Park

Category	Average Rand value
Entrance & conservation fee	R 717.44
Accommodation	R 5 592.63
Restaurants	R 798.71
Food	R 1 113.57
Beverages	R 468.00
Clothes and footwear	R 231.24
Transport to and at the park	R 2 092.10
Souvenirs and jewellery	R 203.62
Other expenses such as wood, ice and charcoal.	R 1 040.48
Total Average Spending per travel group	R 10 697.69
*Total Average Spending per person	R 2 674.24

*The total average spending was divided by the average number of people per travelling group which were four persons (See heading 5.2.1.5)

Table 5.1 reflects the average total spending of respondents travelling to the Kruger National Park from 27 December 2013 to 4 January 2014. The most money was spent on accommodation at R 5 592.63 with transportation to and in the park the second highest spending at R 2 092.10. Respondents indicated that they spend on average R 1 113.57 on food while in the Kruger National Park and about R 1 040.48 on other expenses such as wood, ice and charcoal. Furthermore, respondents spend about R 798.71 on average at the restaurants in the Park. The average entrance and conservation fees spend at the Kruger National Park was R 717.44. The average spending on beverages at the Park was R 468.00. Only R 203.62 was spend on souvenirs and jewellery. The total average spending to the Kruger National Park for the time of the survey was R 10 697.69 per travelling group. The average spending per person visiting the Park during the time of the survey, was R 2 674.24.

5.2.1.17 Wildcard holders

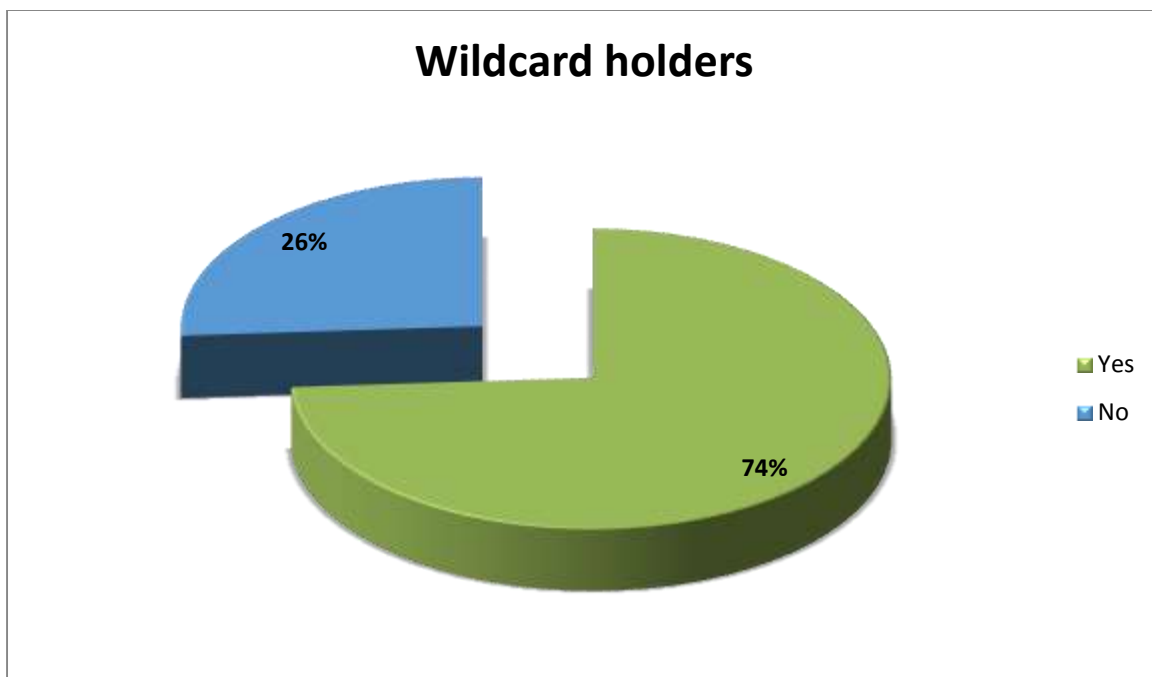


Figure 5.16: Wildcard holders

Figure 5.16 shows that the majority of respondents (74%) that travelled to the Kruger National Park own a Wildcard (loyalty card). Twenty-six percent (26%) of the respondents do not have a Wildcard. The high number of respondents that hold a Wildcard could result in these respondents to also travel to other nature-based destinations that are part of the Wildcard foundation.

Thus, it could be said that the majority of visitors to the Kruger National Park are regular visitors to national, provincial and local parks as the Wildcard fees are structured to cover various parks. Saayman and Saayman (2009:497) argue that the reason for tourist having a Wildcard is to receive the discount on conservation fees when entering any park in South Africa, or to be able to spend more time within a park. Therefore, the Wildcard is a very popular access card for loyal park visitors as the average expenditure on conservation and entrance fees are lower with regards to the other expenses that occur whilst in the park. This might be a motivation for the majority of visitors to hold a Wildcard, as it is a money-saver.

5.2.1.18 Number of times that you visited the Park over the past three years as a day visitor and overnight visitor

The most respondents (70%) indicated that they have not visit the Park as day visitors over the past three years. Thus, it could be concluded that the majority of these respondents are regular visitors to the Kruger National and prefer to stay over within the Park's borders. Some of the respondents (11%) indicated that they have visited the Park as day visitors six times or more. Another 7% indicated that they have visited the Park only once as a day visitor within the last three years. Four percent (4%) of respondents visited the park two or four times as day visitors. In the past three years, few respondents (2%) have travelled three and five times to the Kruger National Park. The average number of day visitors to the Kruger National Park over the past three years was 1.8 visits, which can be rounded off to an average of two visits to the Park in a three year period.

In the past three years, the majority of respondents (32%) stayed over in the Park twice. Nineteen percent (19%) of the respondents specified that they lodged three times in the Park the last three years. Seventeen percent (17%) of respondents indicated to have only stayed over once in the Park for the last three years. Twelve percent (12%) stayed over for four occasions in the Park. Eleven percent (11%) of the respondents stayed over in the Park six times or more and 9% for five instances within the past three years.

These results confirm tourist returns to the Park on an annual or bi-annual cycle which adds to the competitive advantage tourists being loyal visitors to the Kruger National Park. The average number of times that visitors have stayed overnight in the Park within a three year cycle, was 4.6 times (rounded to five times within three years). However, it is lower than the number of times that respondents have visited the Park as day visitors.

Table 5.2: Number of times that you visited the Park over the past three years as a day visitor and overnight visitor

	Day Visitors	Night visitors
None	70%	-
Once	7 %	17%
Twice	4 %	32 %
Three times	2 %	19 %
Four times	4%	12 %
Five times	2 %	9 %
Six and more times	11 %	11 %
Average visits	1.8 times	4.6 times

5.2.1.19 Number of nights staying in the Kruger National Park

The majority of the respondents (27%) indicated that they stay on average more than 10 nights in the Kruger National Park. Respondents that overnight in the Park for five days made up 12% of the respondents. A few respondents (11%) has respectively overnight in the Kruger National Park for three, four and seven nights. 9% of the respondents stayed on average for two nights and 8% for six nights. 5% of the respondents overnight in the park for eight nights, while 3% respectively, stayed for one and nine nights in the Kruger National Park. The average number of nights that tourists have stayed over in the Park was seven nights.

Table 5.3: Number of nights staying in the Park

Number of nights to staying in the Park	
One night	3 %
Two nights	9 %
Three nights	11 %
Four nights	11 %
Five nights	13 %
Six nights	8 %
Seven nights	11%
Eight nights	5 %
Nine nights	3 %
Ten and more nights	27 %
Average nights stayed	7.24 times

5.2.1.20 Information obtained about the Park

The majority of the respondents (59%) indicated that word-of-mouth is the most commonly source of information. This means that respondents have heard from family and/or friends about the Park's offerings. Another 55% indicated that visits to the park are based on previous travelling to the Park. The Park can furthermore increase visitor numbers by being present at shows and through mass media such as television and radio (see Table 5.4). Such media will increase awareness among the wider public. If the park ensures that visitors' needs are satisfied with the products and services on offer, positive word-of-mouth may become evident which the Park can then use to increase its competitive advantage.

Advertising and marketing through print media could also be increased for example in magazines, SANParks' newsletters and park specific websites. Park management should make use of social media (Twitter, Facebook, Instagram) to lure possible new markets to the Park. Table 5.4 clearly indicates that the Kruger National Park should increase its application of social media such as Facebook, Twitter and Internet blogs to increase awareness of the Park, especially among the younger generation.

Organisations that decide on targeting the younger generation should make use of symbols, issues, language, images and media that are appropriate and related to them. The same is true for the more matured market, namely that Park management should find ways to engage with this market and sell the Park to them (Cant *et al.*, 2006:107).

Table 5.4: Information obtained about the Park

	Yes	No
Website	23%	77%
Shows	9%	91%
Friends & Family	59%	41%
Radio	5%	95%
Television	10%	90%
Magazines	17%	83%
SANParks	24%	76%
Previous visits	55%	45%
Facebook	8%	92%
Twitter	4%	96%
Internet Blog	7%	93%

The next section discusses the factor analyses regarding the competitive advantage and motivational factors of the Kruger National Park that is based on the view of tourists that have travelled to the Park.

5.3 RESULTS FROM THE FACTOR ANALYSES

In this section two factor analyses are discussed. Firstly, the competitive advantage statements followed by the motives for tourists to travel to the Kruger National Park.

5.3.1 Competitive Advantage Factor Analysis

The pattern matrix of the principal axis factor analysis, using an Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalisation, identified five factors that were grouped together based on similar characteristics. All factors had comparatively high reliability coefficients, which ranges between 0.78 (the lowest) and 0.87 (the highest) (Brace *et al.*, 2013:382; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:305-306; Malhotra, 2007:285).

The average inter-item correlation proved that there is internal consistency between the factors with the values ranging from 0.37 to 0.53. The majority of the variables loaded higher than 0.3 on the factor analysis which clearly shows that there is a reasonably high correlation between the factors and the component items. The eigenvalues of each factor must be greater than 1.0 in order to be retained and used in the data discussion. An eigenvalue is defined as the amount of variance associated with the factor (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:594; Malhotra, 2007:617). The sampling acceptability was measured with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of 0.95. This ensured that the patterns of correlation are relatively compact and yield distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2013:684–685). The factors were all tested against Barlett’s test of sphericity, meaning that if a factor had a loading that is ($p < 0.001$) it has a statistical significance which in turns supports Pallant’s (2007:197) factorability of the correlation matrix.

Table 5.5 indicates the variables and mean values of factors that have been identified as being competitive advantage factors for the Kruger National Park. These five factors are also discussed in detail in the next section.

Table 5.5: Factors regarded as important for a competitive advantage for the Kruger National Park

Competitive Advantage Factor Analysis				
	Factor Loadings	Mean Value	Reliability coefficient	Average Inter- item correlation
Factor 1: Accommodation & Retail		4.05	0.79	0.50
The number and variety of rest camps.	0.66			
The variety in accommodation options that vary in price and style: from rustic to luxurious.	0.56			
A wide range of accommodation facilities.	0.44			
The availability of Park shops in the Kruger National Park rest camps offering tourists the necessary day-to-day essentials	0.38			
Factor 2: Wildlife Experiences		4.29	0.85	0.41
The Big 6 birding: Ground Hornbill, Kori Bustard, Lappet-faced Vulture, Martial Eagle, Pel's Fishing Owl and Saddle-billed Stork.	0.73			

The variety of endangered species such as wild dog, rhino and sable antelope that can be viewed in the park.	0.69			
The variety of fauna and flora species.	0.67			
The presence of the Big 5.	0.57			
One of the richest biodiversity of any national park.	0.55			
The variety of trees including the Baobab, Fever Tree, Knob Thorn, Marula and Mopane.	0.53			
The ideal game viewing in the park.	0.49			
Northern and Southern regions which offer a different wildlife and biome experience for the tourist.	0.46			
Factor 3: Suprastructure & Amenities		3.79	0.78	0.42
Its high quality conference facilities on offer.	0.59			
The park's rich cultural heritage.	0.43			
The implementation of green initiatives in the parks rest camps such as recycle bins and solar panels.	0.42			
The fact that the park is in its 115 th year of existence (one of the oldest national parks).	0.40			
Its universal accessibility facilities (disabled friendly).	0.35			
Factor 4: Marketing & Branding		4.18	0.87	0.53
The parks' world-renowned image and reputation.	0.83			
Its status as the flagship park of South Africa National Parks.	0.80			
It being a well-branded tourist destination.	0.70			
Its status as one of the largest national parks in Africa.	0.52			
The massive expanse of the Kruger National Park.	0.36			
The variety of activities such as guided hiking tours, guided game drives, self-drives, 4x4 routes and bush walks.	0.27			
Factor 5: Visitor Management		3.76	0.84	0.37
Well maintained national park infrastructure, such as roads and picnic sites.	0.63			
The well-maintained and updated information boards at the rest camps.	0.58			
Easy access for different types of vehicles.	0.53			

The well-designed interpretation centres at the rest camps.	0.45			
The Kruger National Park is a leader in conservation methods and strategies.	0.43			
The well-designed wilderness and 4x4 trails.	0.37			
Well-designed routes and layout of the Kruger National Park.	0.33			
The management of tourist numbers during peak seasons.	0.30			

The factor scores were calculated as the average of all items contributing to a specific factor in order to be interpreted on the original 5-point Likert scale of measurement (1 = Totally disagree, 2 = Do not agree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Totally agree). Consequently, the identified factors are discussed in more detail.

Factor 1: Accommodation and Retail

The number and variety of rest camps, the variety in accommodation options, a wide range of accommodation and the availability of Park shops in the rest camps are all categories of Factor 1 and labelled *Accommodation and Retail*. *Accommodation and Retail* was considered to be the least important factor contributing towards a competitive advantage for the Kruger National Park. However, it obtained a mean value of 4.05, a reliability coefficient of 0.79 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.50. Engelbrecht (2011:50) and Erasmus (2011:77) also identified this factor as critical success factors for managing visitor experience at a national park and a national arts festival, respectively. Yet, Erasmus (2011:77) rated these factors as the least important while Engelbrecht (2011:50) rated it as the second least important factor. This confirms that, from a managerial point of view as well as a competitive advantage perspective, *Accommodation and Retail* is not regarded as that important among visitors when visiting national arts festivals and national parks.

Factor 2: Wildlife Experiences

Wildlife Experience was considered to be the most important factor to contribute towards the Kruger National Park establishing a competitive advantage. This factor comprises of variables such as the Big 5; Big 6 birds; number of endangered species; variety of fauna and flora; one of the richest biodiversity of any national park; and the ideal game viewing in the Park. The mean value was loaded at 4.29, with a reliability coefficient of 0.85 and an inter-item correlation of 0.41. Previously, Scholtz, Kruger and Saayman (2013:6) identified the factor, *Wildlife Experience*, as a motivational importance factor and indicated that despite the recession, visitors kept on travelling to the Kruger National Park as it forms part of the tourists' lifestyle. Furthermore, Engelbrecht (2011:50) also identified *Wildlife Experience* as an important aspect to manage the visitor experience. However, to the authors' knowledge, it has not yet been recorded as a competitive advantage in previous literature.

Factor 3: Suprastructure and Amenities

Suprastructure and Amenities (Factor 3) included the Park's high quality conference facilities on offer; its rich cultural heritage; the implementation of green initiatives in the Park's rest camps such as recycle bins and solar panels; the 115th year of existence (one of the oldest national parks); and its universal accessibility facilities (disabled friendly). *Suprastructure and Amenities* was rated the fourth most important competitive advantage factor and obtained a mean value of 3.79, a reliability coefficient of 0.78 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.42. Ritchie and Crouch (2003:130) explained that supporting factors such as *Suprastructure and Amenities* is the foundation for any destination that wants to obtain a competitive advantage. Therefore it is important that the Kruger National Park management focuses on this factor and grow it into one of the competitive features that the Park offers tourists.

Factor 4: Marketing and Branding

Factor 4 was labelled *Marketing and Branding* and comprises the following aspects, namely the Parks' world-renowned image and reputation; its status as flagship of SANParks; well-branded tourist destination; its status as one of the largest national parks in Africa; the massive expanse of the Kruger National Park; and the variety of activities in the park. *Marketing and Branding* was regarded as the second most

important factor that may contribute to the Kruger National Park obtaining a competitive advantage over its peers. The *Marketing and Branding* factor obtained a mean value of 4.18, a reliability coefficient of 0.87 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.71. Ritchie and Crouch (2003:188-189) expressed their concerns about the important role that marketing plays within a tourism destination. Therefore, marketing should be applied to achieve a competitive advantage over other parks. Beerli and Martin (2004:623) indicated that organisations such as the Kruger National Park, which is regarded as a brand on its own, should be managed from a strategic point of view.

Factor 5: Visitor Management

Ritchie and Crouch (2003:206) argue that the tourism industry might be the only service industry that has the potential of tourists reacting in a strong emotional and experiential way. *Visitor Management* (Factor 5) comprises the following variables, namely well-maintained national park infrastructure such as roads and picnic sites; well maintained and updated information boards at the rest camps; easy access for different types of vehicles; well-designed interpretation centres at the rest camps; Kruger National Park as a leader in conservation methods and strategies; well-designed wilderness and 4x4 trails; well-designed routes and layout of the Kruger National Park; and the management of tourist numbers during peak seasons. This factor is regarded as the third most important factor which the Kruger National Park can apply to obtain a competitive advantage. The *Visitor Management* factor obtained a mean value of 3.76, a reliability coefficient of 0.84 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.37. Friendliness, hospitality, respect and courtesy are some of the general aspects that tourists regard as important when travelling to tourist destinations such as national parks (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:139). It is crucial that the Park employees are at all times helpful, friendly and courteous to tourists in the Park.

The next section explains the motivational factors that tourists identified as important reasons for visiting the Kruger National Park.

5.3.2 Factor analysis of motives to travel to the Kruger National Park

The pattern matrix of the principal axis factor analysis, using an Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalisation, identified four factors that were grouped together based on similar characteristics. Barlett's test of sphericity was used to test all the factors and determine if any had a statistical significance ($p < 0.001$) supported by Pallant's (2007:197) factorability of the correlation matrix. The factors all had remarkably high reliability coefficients ranging between 0.797 (the lowest) and 0.84 (the highest). The average inter-item correlation verified that there is internal consistency between the four factors with the values ranging from 0.37 to 0.88. The majority of the variables were loaded higher than 0.3 on the factor analysis which clearly shows that there is a rationally high correlation between the factors and its components. In order for a factor to be retained and discussed in the data, the eigenvalues of each individual factor must be greater than 1.0. An eigenvalue can be defined as the total amount of variance that is associated with the factor (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:594; Malhotra, 2007:617). The sampling acceptability was measured with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of 0.91. This ensured that the patterns of correlation are relatively compact and yield distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2013:684-685). Table 5.6 provides the statistical values of the motives variables in the four main factor categories.

Table 5.6: Factor analysis results of tourist motives

Motivation Factor Analysis				
	Factor Loadings	Mean Value	Reliability coefficient	Average Inter- item correlation
Factor 1: All Inclusive Destination		3.93	.797	.440
The park is an all-inclusive holiday destination.	0.70			
The park is an all-year-round destination due to its climate.	0.67			
The park is the ideal family holiday destination.	0.53			
The quality of well-informed educational experiences it offers to the whole family.	0.48			
Travelling to the park is a part of my lifestyle.	0.38			

Factor 2: Experience and Relaxation		4.39	.800	.682
The memorable experience it offers.	0.88			
The relaxing environment and escape from normal routine it offers.	0.69			
The park offers ideal photographic opportunities (animals, plants and landscape).	0.38			
A visit to the park contributes to my well-being.	0.37			
Factor 3: Lifestyle		4.02		
Travelling to the park is a part of my lifestyle.	0.67			
Factor 4: Value		3.81	.836	.440
The park offers a variety of products and services.	0.75			
Its status as a must-see destination.	0.42			
The park is a value for money destination.	0.42			

The factor scores were calculated as the average of all items contributing to a specific factor to be interpreted on the original 5-point Likert scale of measurement (1 = Totally disagree, 2 = Do not agree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Totally agree). The motive factor with the lowest factor reliability loading of 0.797 is still being regarded as having a good reliability (Brace *et al.*, 2013:382; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:305-306; Malhotra, 2007:285) with the highest reliability loading at 0.836 regarded as extremely good. Therefore, Park management can apply these distinct motives to increase the competitive advantage of the Kruger National Park.

Factor 1: All Inclusive Destination

All-Inclusive Destination (Factor 1) included aspects such as the Kruger National Park being regarded as an all-inclusive holiday destination; the Park is an all-year-round destination due to its climate; the Kruger National Park is an ideal family holiday destination; the Park offers quality, well-informed educational experiences to the whole family; and travelling to the Park is part of tourists' lifestyle. Factor 1 is regarded as being the third highest motivation factor for tourists travelling to the Kruger National Park. Factor 1 has a reliability coefficient of 0.797 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.440. This factor, that the Kruger National Park is regarded as an all-inclusive destination, is for the first-time identified as a motivation factor.

Factor 2: Experience and Relaxation

Factor 2, *Experience and Relaxation*, grouped variables such as a memorable experience offered at the Park; relaxing environment and escape from normal day-to-day routine; ideal photographic opportunities; and a visit to the Park contributes to the tourists' well-being. *Experience and Relaxation* was recorded as being the highest motivation factor that tourists regard as important when travelling to the Park. The reliability coefficient of 0.800 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.682 were achieved through the factor analysis. Park management should use these variables to position the park to achieve a competitive advantage over its peers.

Saayman and Saayman (2009:5); Kruger and Saayman (2009:99); Van der Merwe and Saayman (2008:158); Luo and Deng (2007:399); Kim *et al.* (2006); Swanson and Horridge (2006); Toa *et al.* (2004), Kozak (2002:225); Oh, Uysal and Weaver (1995) and Uysal, McDonald and Martin (1994); reveal in their research that escape and relaxation is the highest motivational factors for tourists travelling to national parks. The latter confirm that the tourists travelling to national parks do so in order to escape from the normal routine and to experience the relaxation that the Park has to offer. Park management should thus apply this component, namely the tourists' *Experience and Relaxation*, as a competitive marketing tool to increase tourist numbers to the Park.

Factor 3: Lifestyle

Tourists regarded travelling to the Park as part of their *Lifestyle* (Factor 3). Factor 3 only loaded one variable indicating the importance of this factor as the second highest motivation factor according to visitors to the Kruger National Park. The reliability of this variable is measured at 0.69 and a mean value of 4.02. Tourists therefore maintain that travelling to the Park forms part of their *Lifestyle*. Wilkerson (2003:50) Lee and Sparks (2007:506) and Scholtz *et al.* (2013:2) indicate that even though the 2009 recession had a huge impact on global economies, it did not have that large impact on tourists travelling to national parks across the globe. The reason for this lesser impact on tourists travelling, is that tourists regard holidays as extremely important.

It can be debated that people view holidays as a must have and therefore the accommodation occupancy at the Kruger National Park showed a significant increase of 1.6% during the recession (Scholtz *et al.*, 2013: 2) as the respondents regard it as part of the tourists' *lifestyle*. Woodside and Pitts (1976) suggest destinations that segment its tourist market according to the tourists lifestyles will have an impact on the prediction of domestic and international tourist behaviour (Lee & Sparks, 2007:506). This is furthermore supported by Lee and Sparks (2007:506) stating that the rapid growth of tourism across the globe can be due to the interest and cultural influences of tourists on their travel behaviour. Thus it could be argued that the tourists' lifestyle will have an impact on the way in which they travel.

Factor 4: Value

Factor 4, *Value*, is made up of the following items, namely the Park offering a variety of products and services; the Park's status as a must-see destination; and the Park is a value for money destination as a whole. Factor 4 was rated as the fourth highest motivational factor with a reliability coefficient of 0.836 and an average inter-item correlation of 0.440. Park management should make use of this motivational factor to increase its competitive advantage by adding more value to its products and services. Thus, be reasoned that Park management should identify the different tourist motivations so that an improved understanding of the products and services needed to satisfy the tourist's values, preferences and behaviour (Kim, 1999; Kozak, 2002:222).

The results obtained in the two factor analyses were used to determine the relationships between the tourists' demographic and behavioural characteristics to that of the competitive advantage and motivational factor analyses and how these analyses influence one another. A One-Way-Analysis of Variance (ANOVA's) and *t*-tests were applied for these analyses.

5.4 RESULTS OF ANOVA ANALYSES

A One-Way-Analysis of Variance (ANOVAs) was used in this research to determine how the independent variables measure against the dependent continuous variables when there are three or more variables to measure against (Brace *et al.*, 2013:14; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:541; Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008:317; Malhotra, 2007:505; Pallant, 2007:187). An inferential statistical test that allows for an analysis with more than two experimental conditions and with at least one factor or more is regarded as an ANOVA. If parametric data has been collected the ANOVA is the most appropriate statistical measure to use. The use of an ANOVA is supported by the questionnaire design as some questions had more than three variables to which respondents had to respond to in order to determine the demographic and behavioural characteristics of visitors to the Kruger National Park. The advantage of using ANOVA's is that the data can be investigated to determine where there are significant differences that affect the variables (Brace *et al.*, 2013:191).

ANOVA analyses were conducted to determine whether there are any significant demographic and behavioural characteristics in terms of the competitive advantage factors and motives.

5.4.1 ANOVA results for competitive advantage factors

There are respectively five competitive advantage factors and four motive factors involved in the ANOVA design as displayed in Table 5.7. Therefore, a total of nine factors were tested for significant differences among the independent variables. Only the results that had a statistical significance are discussed in this section.

5.4.1.1 ANOVA results for competitive advantage factors

- There were statistically significant differences based on **language** in terms of *Wildlife Experience* ($p = 0.001$) and *Suprastructure and Amenities* ($p = 0.011$). Concerning *Wildlife Experience*, Afrikaans and English speaking respondents regarded this factor as a more important factor (mean values of respectively 4.41 and 4.27) contributing towards the competitive advantage of the Kruger National Park compared to other language speaking respondents (mean value of 3.94).

This is an interesting finding since the majority of respondents with another mother tongue than Afrikaans or English were foreign visitors. Thus, one would assume that for foreigners, this factor would be important as influencing motivation to visit the Kruger National Park. With regard to *Supra-structure and Amenities*, Afrikaans speaking respondents differed significantly from English speaking visitors and regarded this factor as more important (mean value of 3.90 compared to 3.66).

- The **province of residence** provided a significant difference in two competitive advantage factors in terms of the *Accommodation and Retail* ($p = 0.015$) and *Wildlife Experience* ($p = 0.001$). In terms of the *Accommodation and Retail* factor, Tukeys post hoc test indicated no significant difference between the domestic and international market. However, the mean values indicated that the visitors from the Western Cape and International countries rated this factor similarly. There seems to be a significant difference between the Western Cape and international visitors and the other domestic markets with regards to the *Accommodation and Retail* factor with the other provinces rating this factor as more important. According to Tukey's post hoc test, the factor *Wildlife Experience* indicated significant differences between the domestic and international markets. The provinces of KwaZulu-Natal (mean value of 4.50) and North-West (mean value of 4.50) differed significantly from international visitors (mean value of 4.06) and the domestic market regarded this factor as more important. This is a strange anomaly since one would expect foreign visitors to place a higher importance on wildlife than the domestic visitors.
- Based on Tukey's post hoc test there were statistically significant differences on the **highest level of education** in terms of a *Suprastructure and Amenities* ($p = 0.001$) and *Marketing and Branding* ($p = 0.009$). With regards to *Suprastructure and Amenities* visitors that held a matric qualification (mean value of 4.04) differed significantly with those respondents that had other types of qualification (mean value of 4.36) such as a National Vocational Certificate. Visitors with a matric qualification rated this factor less important.

Tukey's post hoc test indicated that with regard to the factor *Marketing and Branding*, other levels of education (mean value of 4.70) regarded it as more important than those visitors that held a diploma/degree (mean value of 4.22), a post-graduate qualification (mean value of 4.01) and professional qualification (mean value of 4.06). This is a strange variance as though all respondents are highly qualified, it would be expected that visitors' level of education will differ with regards to the experience and ratings of importance of the competitive advantage factor *Marketing and Branding*.

Table 5.7: ANOVA results for competitive advantage factors

Socio-demographic and behavioural variables	Competitive Advantage Factors																								
	Accommodation and Retail					Wildlife Experience					Suprastructure and Amenities					Marketing and Branding					Visitor Management				
Language	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Afrikaans	179	4.0982	1.086	0.339	a	180	4.4056	14.511	0.001	a	179	3.9016	4.538	0.011	a	180	4.2326	1.307	0.272	a	180	3.7495	0.635	0.531	a
English	163	4.0404			a	164	4.2714			a	162	3.6623			b	163	4.1663			a	164	3.7336			a
Other	62	3.9355			a	63	3.9380			b	62	3.8083			ba	62	4.0559			a	63	3.8471			a
Marital status	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Single	58	4.0072	1.223	0.301	a	59	4.2103	0.789	0.501	a	58	3.7227	0.877	0.453	a	58	4.1305	1.235	0.296	a	59	3.7601	0.523	0.666	a
Married	288	4.0347			a	290	4.3076			a	287	3.7904			a	289	4.1551			a	290	3.7393			a
Living together	44	4.1648			a	44	4.1903			a	44	3.8443			a	44	4.2924			a	44	3.8291			a
Divorced	27	4.2778			a	27	4.3056			a	27	3.9889			a	27	4.3951			a	27	3.8865			a

In the case of an ANOVA having a p value of less or equal (\leq) to 0.05, it means that there is a significant difference based on the difference between the mean scores on the dependent variable for the groups measured (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Tukey's Honestly Significant Different test (HSD) was used to determine between groups. Therefore a differs from b which will differs from c. However, ab is not similar to either a or b. The variables with the same alphabet letter indicate that those variables regards the competitive advantage factors in the same light.

Table 5.7: ANOVA results for competitive advantage factors (continued)

Socio-demographic and behavioural variables	Competitive Advantage Factors																								
	Accommodation and Retail					Wildlife Experience					Suprastructure and Amenities					Marketing and Branding					Visitor Management				
Province	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Western Cape	31	3.8468	2.657	0.015	a	31	4.2990	3.900	0.001	ab	31	3.6387	1.323	0.245	a	31	4.1892	0.438	0.853	a	31	3.5672	1.352	0.233	a
Gauteng	198	4.0758			a	198	4.3623			ab	197	3.7766			a	19	4.1425			a	198	3.7396			
North-West	17	4.2794			a	18	4.500			b	17	4.0853			a	18	4.3500			a	18	3.9414			
Mpumalanga	56	4.0298			a	56	4.1245			ab	56	3.8979			a	56	4.1452			a	56	3.6709			
KwaZulu-Natal	32	4.3047			a	32	4.4983			b	32	3.8656			a	32	4.2885			a	32	3.8763			
Limpopo	25	4.3167			a	25	4.2464			ab	25	3.9440			a	25	4.2773			a	25	3.9233			
International	54	3.8256			a	56	4.0559			a	54	3.6901			a	55	4.1709			a	56	3.8547			
Highest level of education	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Matric	101	4.1617	1.21	0.306	a	101	4.3613	0.821	0.512	a	101	4.0351	6.823	0.001	a	10	4.3112	3.402	0.009	ab	101	3.8217	0.657	0.623	a
Diploma / Degree	163	4.0394			a	163	4.3078			a	163	3.7938			ab	16	4.2160			a	163	3.7711			
Post-graduate	54	3.9861			a	54	4.2292			a	54	3.5731			ab	54	4.0068			a	54	3.7042			
Professional	63	3.9828			a	66	4.2057			a	62	3.6347			ab	64	4.0604			a	66	3.7693			
Other	11	4.3636			a	11	4.3074			a	11	4.3591			b	11	4.697			b	11	4.0426			

In the case of an ANOVA having a p value of less or equal (\leq) to 0.05, it means that there is a significant difference based on the difference between the mean scores on the dependent variable for the groups measured (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

^a Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^b is indicated

^b Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^c is indicated

^c Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^b is indicated

Table 5.7: ANOVA results for competitive advantage factors (continued)

Socio-demographic and behavioural variables	Competitive Advantage Factors																								
	Accommodation and Retail					Wildlife Experience					Suprastructure and Amenities					Marketing and Branding					Visitor Management				
Decision made to visit the park	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Spontaneous decision	27	4.1914	0.863	0.460	a	27	4.4815	1.382	0.248	a	27	4.0074	1.577	0.194	a	27	4.3123	0.587	0.624	a	27	3.8328	0.892	0.445	a
A month ago	28	3.8839			a	28	4.2487			a	28	3.6214			a	28	4.0464			a	28	3.5828			a
More than a month ago	288	4.0706			a	290	4.2605			a	288	3.7774			a	289	4.1850			a	290	3.783			a
Other	80	4.0240			a	81	4.3418			a	80	3.8638			a	81	4.1930			a	81	3.7243			a
Who initiated the visit to the Park	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Self	211	4.0703	0.762	0.516	a	212	4.3395	1.274	0.283	a	211	3.7859	0.079	0.972	a	212	4.1676	0.222	0.881	a	212	3.7468	0.699	0.553	a
Friends	20	4.225			a	20	4.17			a	20	3.8525			a	20	4.2133			a	20	3.9750			a
Spouse	67	4.0597			a	67	4.2284			a	66	3.8197			a	66	4.2414			a	67	3.7829			a
Family	103	3.9733			a	105	4.2272			a	103	3.7953			a	104	4.1522			a	105	3.7454			a

In the case of an ANOVA having a p value of less or equal (\leq) to 0.05, it means that there is a significant difference based on the difference between the mean scores on the dependent variable for the groups measured (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

^a Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^b is indicated

^b Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^c is indicated

^c Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^b is indicated

5.4.1.2 Discussion on the results of the ANOVA analysis of the motive factors

The ANOVA analysis is illustrated in Table 5.8 that follows after the discussion.

- There were statistically significant differences on the motivational factors based on **language** in terms of *Experience and Relaxation* ($p = 0.003$) and *Lifestyle* ($p = 0.001$) and *value* ($p = 0.001$). Regarding the factor *Experience and Relaxation* respondents that spoke Afrikaans and English (mean values of respectively 4.42 and 4.48) regarded the factor as a more important motive to travel to the Kruger National Park compared to the respondents that spoke other languages (mean value of 4.12) such as French, German, Tshivenda, Tsonga and Zulu. The factor concerning *Lifestyle* showed that the Afrikaans speaking respondents (mean value of 4.31) regarded it as a more important factor than those respondents that speak English and other languages (respective mean values of 3.85 and 3.58). Similarly with regards to the fourth motivational factor, *Value*, the Afrikaans speaking respondents indicated that this is a more important factor (mean value of 4.00) compared to the respondents speaking English and other languages (mean values of respectively 3.68 and 3.69).
- There were no statistical significant differences based on the **marital status** of respondents to the Kruger National Park impacting on the importance of the motivational factor *an All-Inclusive Destination* ($p = 0.057$). However, Tukey's post hoc test indicated that there are some practical differences between marital status and *an- All-Inclusive Destination*. Respondents that were divorced (mean value of 4.24) regarded the motivational factor as more important than other respondents that were either living together (mean value of 3.79) or were single (mean value of 3.77). Divorced respondents might value this factor as more important as they previously travelled with family and children and therefore still regard it as important.

- There is a statistically significant difference in terms of **province of residence** in terms of the motivational factor *Lifestyle* ($p = 0.001$). The domestic travel market differed significantly from the international market. This statistical significance indicated that all domestic tourists regarded travelling to the Kruger National Park as part of their *Lifestyle*. In order of importance, visitors from North West (4.35), Mpumalanga (4.29), Gauteng (4.21), Limpopo (4.08), KwaZulu-Natal (3.91) and Western Cape (3.90) regarded this motivational factor as more important compared to the international visitors (3.04). This is an interesting finding as the province that was only representing two percent of the visitors to the Kruger National Park, followed by the two highest representing provinces of Mpumalanga and Gauteng, regarded this factor as much more important than other provinces' respondents. Therefore it might be suggested that visitors from the North-West province have less opportunities to travel to a world renowned national park like the Kruger National Park compared to its counterparts from the other provinces in South Africa.
- There were statistically significant differences on the motivational factors based on **highest level of education** in terms of *All-Inclusive Destination* ($p = 0.023$); *Lifestyle* ($p = 0.012$) and *value* ($p = 0.015$). Concerning the factor *All-Inclusive Destination* the respondents that obtained other (4.32) educational qualifications such as National Vocational Certificate regarded this factor as much more important than those respondents that obtained a post-graduate (mean value of 3.75) and professional educational background (mean value of 3.80). The factor *Lifestyle* showed that the respondents with other educational qualifications (mean value of 4.67) regarded this factor as more important than respondents with a professional educational qualification (mean value of 3.70). The *Value* factor indicated that the respondents with other educational qualifications (mean value of 3.67) regarded it as a more important motivational factor than respondents with a professional (mean value of 4.31) educational qualification.

Thus, it could be said that respondents' educational level will determine their involvement in the Park and involve them to learn and know more about the natural environment that will change the perception and motivations of tourists that would want to travel to the Park (Jurdana, 2009:270).

- There was a statistical significant difference between the motive, *Lifestyle*, based on **who initiated the visit to the park**. Unsurprisingly, respondents whose visit to the Kruger National Park was initiated by friends (mean value of 3.21) regarded this variable not as important compared to the other options such as self-initiation (4.22), spouse (3.95) and family (3.73). This shows that visiting the Kruger National Park forms part of tourists' lifestyle. Therefore, if tourists have travelled to the Park from a young age it would have influenced the way in which tourists think about the Park as well as future visits to the Kruger National Park.

Table 5.8: ANOVA results for motivational factors

Socio-demographic and behavioural variables	Motivational Factors																			
	All-Inclusive Destination					Experience and Relaxation					Lifestyle					Value				
Language	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Afrikaans	179	3.9807	0.503	0.605	a	179	4.4204	6.045	0.003	a	179	4.3128	12.911	0.001	a	179	3.9972	7.259	0.001	a
English	161	3.8953			a	162	4.4758			a	460	3.8500			b	162	3.6811			b
Other	57	3.9211			a	57	4.1170			b	57	3.5789			b	56	3.6905			b
Marital status	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Single	56	3.7741	2.527	0.057	a	56	a	0.426	0.735	4.4464	55	4.0182	0.180	0.997	a	56	3.7411	1.230	0.298	a
Married	283	3.9473			ab	284	a			4.3671	283	4.0177			a	283	3.7951			a
Living together	43	3.7942			a	43	a			4.4651	43	3.9767			a	43	3.7442			a
Divorced	27	4.237			b	27	a			4.4259	27	4.0000			a	27	4.0864			a

In the case of an ANOVA having a p value of less or equal (\leq) to 0.05, it means that there is a significant difference based on the difference between the mean scores on the dependent variable for the groups measured (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

^a Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^b is indicated

^b Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^c is indicated

^c Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^b is indicated

Table 5.8: ANOVA results for motivational factors (continued)

Socio-demographic and behavioural variables	Motivational Factors																			
	All-Inclusive Destination					Experience and Relaxation					Lifestyle					Value				
Province	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Western Cape	31	3.9500	1.504	0.175	a	31	4.5806	1.432	0.201	a	31	3.9032	8.821	0.001	a	31	3.9247	0.99	0.432	a
Gauteng	198	3.9500			a	199	4.4535			a	198	4.2121			a	198	3.8628			a
North-West	17	4.0559			a	17	4.4265			a	17	4.3529			a	17	3.7059			a
Mpumalanga	55	3.9431			a	55	4.2470			a	54	4.2930			a	55	3.8576			a
KwaZulu-Natal	32	4.0563			a	32	4.4922			a	32	3.9063			a	32	3.6823			a
Limpopo	24	4.1313			a	24	4.3125			a	24	4.0833			a	24	3.8889			a
International	49	3.6490			a	49	4.2959			a	49	3.0408			b	49	3.5986			a
Highest level of education	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Matric	102	4.0946	2.865	0.023	ab	102	4.4779	3.249	0.012	a	102	4.2451	3.244	0.012	ab	102	3.9085	1.696	0.015	ab
Diploma / Degree	162	3.9722			ab	162	4.4444			a	161	3.9627			ab	162	3.8210			ab
Post-graduate	51	3.7529			a	51	4.4755			a	51	3.9412			ab	51	3.7974			ab
Professional	62	3.8048			a	63	4.1468			a	63	3.6984			a	62	3.6667			a
Other	10	4.3200			b	10	4.525			a	9	4.6667			b	9	4.3148			b

In the case of an ANOVA having a p value of less or equal (\leq) to 0.05, it means that there is a significant difference based on the difference between the mean scores on the dependent variable for the groups measured (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

^a Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^b is indicated

^b Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^c is indicated

^c Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^b is indicated

Table 5.8: ANOVA results for motivational factors (continued)

Socio-demographic and behavioural variables	Motivational Factors																			
	All-Inclusive Destination					Experience and Relaxation					Lifestyle					Value				
Decision made to visit the park	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Spontaneous decision	27	3.8722	0.120	0.948	a	27	4.3056	0.749	0.523	a	27	3.9630	0.799	0.495	a	27	3.6914	2.073	0.103	a
A month ago	28	3.9929			a	28	4.3125			a	28	4.2500			a	28	3.8214			a
More than a month ago	281	3.9436			a	282	4.4344			a	281	3.9751			a	282	3.8664			a
other	80	3.9250			a	80	4.3500			a	79	4.1266			a	79	3.6139			a
Mode of transport	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
4x4	129	3.8981	0.524	0.758	a	130	4.3750	0.49	0.783	a	130	4.0923	1.066	0.378	a	128	3.7344	0.677	0.641	a
Kombi	20	3.9000			a	20	4.3375			a	20	4.0500			a	20	3.7917			a
Lesiure vehicle	45	4.0067			a	45	4.3444			a	44	3.8182			a	46	3.7101			a
Sedan	98	3.9862			a	98	4.4668			a	97	4.1443			a	98	3.8333			a
2x4 bakkie	97	3.9603			a	97	4.4433			a	97	4.0103			a	97	3.9175			a
Other	21	3.731			a	21	4.3095			a	21	3.6667			a	21	3.8095			a

In the case of an ANOVA having a p value of less or equal (\leq) to 0.05, it means that there is a significant difference based on the difference between the mean scores on the dependent variable for the groups measured (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

^a Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^b is indicated

^b Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^c is indicated

^c Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^b is indicated

Table 5.8: ANOVA results for motivational factors (continued)

Socio-demographic and behavioural variables	Motivational Factors																			
	All-Inclusive Destination					Experience and Relaxation					Lifestyle					Value				
Who initiated the visit to the Park	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B	N	Mean	F-ratio	Sig. Level	Tukey's B
Self	209	3.9612	0.442	0.723	a	209	4.4426	0.817	0.485	a	208	4.2212	7.993	0.001	a	210	3.7905	0.43	0.732	a
Friends	19	3.8737			a	19	4.3158			a	19	3.2105			b	19	3.6316			a
Spouse	65	3.8654			a	66	4.3725			a	66	3.9545			a	65	3.8718			a
Family	102	3.8701			a	102	4.3235			a	101	3.7327			a	101	3.7888			a

In the case of an ANOVA having a p value of less or equal (\leq) to 0.05, it means that there is a significant difference based on the difference between the mean scores on the dependent variable for the groups measured (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

^a Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^b is indicated

^b Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^c is indicated

^c Group varies significantly from the variable (in row) where ^a and ^b is indicated

5.5 T-TESTS RESULTS

T-tests were conducted to determine if there were any statistical significant differences between the independent variables or group of individuals (Brace *et al.*, 2013:119) based on the respondents' demographic and behaviour characteristics with regards to the competitive advantage and motivational factors. The *t*-tests might provide the Kruger National Park management with more detailed information as to how the competitive advantage of the Park can be increased by taking the respondents' characteristics into consideration.

5.5.1 T-test comparison of gender vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

Table: 5.9: Gender

Variables	Male			Female			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std. Dev	N	Mean	Std. Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	4.0665	0.70069	232	4.0463	0.83162	171	0.257	0.798	0.0*
Wildlife Experiences	4.2625	0.56428	234	4.3152	0.6691	172	0.836	0.404	0.1*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.7945	0.66527	232	3.8059	0.78618	171	0.154	0.877	0.0*
Marketing and Branding	4.1762	0.71959	234	4.1867	0.81124	171	0.135	0.892	0.0*
Visitor Management	3.7365	0.65416	234	3.7947	0.74639	172	0.817	0.414	0.1*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	3.9107	0.78349	228	3.9799	0.75759	167	0.884	0.377	0.1*
Experience and relaxation	4.3828	0.63712	229	4.4451	0.66401	167	0.938	0.349	0.1*
Lifestyle	4.0088	1.11455	228	4.0361	1.15413	166	0.236	0.814	0.0*
Value	3.7800	0.84779	228	3.8413	0.78276	167	0.734	0.458	0.1*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace *et al.*, 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

Based on the effect sizes in Table 5.10 there are no statistically significant differences (small effect sizes) between males and females with regard to how both genders experienced the competitive advantage and motivational factors. It is evident that both genders rated the factors similarly. The competitive advantage factor that was regarded as the most important to males and females was *Wildlife Experiences* (mean value being respectively 4.26 and 4.32). The most important motivational factor for both genders was *Experience and Relaxation* (mean values being respectively 4.38 and 4.44). In both instances the females rated these two factors as more important than the males.

5.5.2 T-test comparison of children accompanying parents to the Park vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

Table 5.11 shows that there is only a statistically significant difference between respondents who travel with children and those who do not in terms of the motivational factor *All Inclusive Destination* ($p = 0.010$; small effect size difference). Unsurprisingly, visitors who travel with children regard this motive as more important (mean value of 4.03) compared to those who travel without children (mean value of 3.82). Park management should therefore encourage the mature market to have the children also come to the Park on visits. This can be done through the offering of children friendly educational activities and special discounts for children visiting the Park. Luo and Deng (2007:400) suggest that nature-based tourism destinations such as national parks should make use of environmental educational knowledge activities in which the younger generation are engaged into the wonders and importance of the natural environment.

Table: 5.11: Children accompanying parents to the Park

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
	Competitive Advantage Factors								
Accommodation and Retail	4.0583	0.75922	213	4.0381	0.76306	199	0.269	0.788	0.0*
Wildlife Experiences	4.3057	0.60854	216	4.2614	0.60907	199	0.741	0.459	0.1*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.8528	0.68993	212	3.72	0.78019	199	1.823	0.069	0.2*
Marketing and Branding	4.1967	0.7251	214	4.1494	0.79645	199	0.63	0.529	0.1*
Visitor Management	3.7817	0.72173	216	3.7301	0.67549	199	0.752	0.453	0.1*
	Motivational Factors								
All inclusive destination	4.025	0.73876	212	3.8197	0.84662	193	2.589	0.010	0.2*
Experience and relaxation	4.3675	0.96113	212	4.4141	0.68579	194	0.681	0.496	0.1*
Lifestyle	4.0521	1.13058	211	4.0000	1.12899	194	0.464	0.643	0.1*
Value	3.8412	0.83139	211	3.7861	0.85029	194	0.659	0.510	0.1*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

5.5.3 T-test comparison of a tourist as a Wildcard holder vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

From Table 5.12, it is evident that there are statistically significant differences between Wildcard holders and non-holders based on the competitive advantage factor *Wildlife Experience* ($p = 0.006$, small effect size difference) and the motivational factors *All Inclusive Destination* ($p = 0.009$; medium effect size difference), *Experience and Relaxation* ($p = 0.005$; small effect size difference) and *Lifestyle* ($p = 0.010$; large effect size difference). Unsurprisingly, *Wildlife Experience* was regarded as a more important competitive advantage factor (4.34) for wildcard holders compared to non-holders (4.14).

With regard to the motivational factors Wildcard holders regarded *All Inclusive Destination* (4.00), *Experience and Relaxation* (4.41) and *Lifestyle* (4.24) as more important motives to travel to the Park compared to non-wildcard holders. This might be due to the Wildcard holders being aware of the benefits that are being offered when travelling to a national parks which encourages the tourists to travel more often to national parks across the country.

Table: 5.12: Tourist as a Wildcard holder

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	4.0892	0.72005	311	3.9662	0.87263	106	1.308	0.193	0.1*
Wildlife Experiences	4.3414	0.5758	312	4.1447	0.65666	108	2.766	0.006	0.3*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.8030	0.69571	311	3.7606	0.85431	105	0.459	0.647	0.1*
Marketing and Branding	4.1780	0.74492	312	4.1811	0.79525	106	0.036	0.972	0.0*
Visitor Management	3.7351	0.69042	312	4.118	0.68096	103	1.502	0.135	0.6**
Motives									
All inclusive destination	4.0013	0.71895	306	3.7365	0.93324	104	2.639	0.009	0.3*
Experience and relaxation	4.4061	0.63258	307	4.2171	0.79171	104	2.838	0.005	0.2*
Lifestyle	4.2353	0.96336	306	3.3654	1.34423	104	6.089	0.010	0.7**
Value	3.8393	0.80458	305	3.7063	0.92667	105	1.310	0.192	0.1*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

Influential media

The following section of *t*-test analyses explains the influence of the various forms of media on the competitive advantage and motivational factors of the visitors to the Kruger National Park. These analyses also indicate the differences and most influential media based on the tourist profile which is relevant to the Park management.

5.5.4 T-test comparison of website vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

Table: 5.13: Website

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
	Competitive Advantage Factors								
Accommodation and Retail	4.1031	0.74979	97	4.0397	0.76433	319	0.726	0.469	0.1*
Wildlife Experiences	4.2993	0.54351	97	4.2928	0.62345	322	0.101	0.920	0.0*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.7928	0.74986	97	3.7947	0.73507	318	0.022	0.983	0.0*
Marketing and Branding	4.1780	0.7001	97	4.183	0.77281	320	-0.06	0.952	0.0*
Visitor Management	3.7931	0.69079	97	3.7509	0.69996	322	0.526	0.600	0.1*
	Motives								
All inclusive destination	3.9344	0.74608	93	3.9285	0.80797	316	0.066	0.947	0.0*
Experience and relaxation	4.4731	0.51666	93	4.3596	0.72428	317	1.687	0.093	0.2*
Lifestyle	3.9140	1.17636	93	4.0508	1.10757	315	0.999	0.320	0.1*
Value	3.8406	0.76153	92	3.795	0.86135	317	0.491	0.624	0.1*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

Table 5.13 illustrates that there are no statistical significant differences between respondents using a website or respondents not making use of a website to gain information about the Park. However, the competitive advantage factor *Wildlife Experience* were regarded as being more important to respondents that use a website (mean value 4.30) as supposed to respondents that do not (mean value 4.29) make use of websites to get information about the Park. The motivational factor *Experience and Relaxation* were also regarded as being the more important factor for respondents that uses a website (4.47) compared to those respondents that do not use a website (4.36).

5.5.5 T-test comparison of shows vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

There were no statistical significant differences in the comparison between respondents that gathered information about the Kruger National Park from those who do not. Table 5.14 indicates that the respondents that do use shows to gather information about the Park regard the competitive advantage factor *Wildlife Experiences* (mean value 4.33) as more important than those respondents not gathering information from shows (mean value 4.29). Regarding the motivational factor *Experience and Relaxation* the respondents that do gather information from shows indicated it as being more important (mean value 4.53) as those respondents not using shows for information (mean value 4.37). Thus, in general the two factors remain similar throughout.

Table: 5.14: Shows

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
	Competitive Advantage Factors								
Accommodation and Retail	4.1090	0.78387	39	4.0489	0.75893	377	0.457	0.650	0.0*
Wildlife Experiences	4.3317	0.53454	39	4.2905	0.61257	380	0.452	0.653	0.1*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.8462	0.69153	39	3.7888	0.74293	376	0.489	0.627	0.1*
Marketing and Branding	4.1846	0.74817	39	4.1816	0.75746	378	0.024	0.981	0.0*
Visitor Management	3.8273	0.61191	39	3.7538	0.70579	380	0.704	0.485	0.1*
	Motives								
All inclusive destination	4.0744	0.74964	39	3.9146	0.79735	370	1.258	0.215	0.2*
Experience and relaxation	4.5256	0.44719	39	4.3706	0.7029	371	1.929	0.058	0.2*
Lifestyle	4.0526	0.98495	38	4.0162	1.13804	370	0.214	0.832	0.0*
Value	3.9060	0.80186	39	3.7946	0.84344	370	0.821	0.416	0.1*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

5.5.6 T-test comparison of family and friends vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

Table 5.15 confirms that there are no statistical significant differences between respondents receiving information about the Park from family and friends. However, the competitive factor *Wildlife Experiences* (mean value 4.30) and motivational factor *Experience and Relaxation* (mean value 4.43) were identified as being the most important factors for respondents that request information from family and friends regarding the Kruger National Park.

Table: 5.15: Family and friends

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	4.0713	0.74908	243	4.0296	0.78	172	0.546	0.585	0.1*
Wildlife Experiences	4.3018	0.56725	244	4.2840	0.65802	174	0.289	0.773	0.0*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.8029	0.70616	242	3.7808	0.78359	172	0.294	0.769	0.0*
Marketing and Branding	4.2174	0.69597	242	4.1287	0.83153	174	1.146	0.252	0.1*
Visitor Management	3.7139	0.64966	244	3.7139	0.76014	174	1.113	0.266	0.0*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	3.9132	0.7392	234	3.9517	0.8648	174	0.472	0.637	0.1*
Experience and relaxation	4.4273	0.61979	235	4.3281	0.76167	174	1.408	0.160	0.1*
Lifestyle	3.9319	1.16007	235	4.1453	1.06339	172	1.924	0.055	0.2*
Value	3.8298	0.81305	234	3.7692	0.87582	174	0.713	0.476	0.1*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

5.5.7 T-test comparison of radio vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

Table: 5.16: Radio

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	4.0326	0.97498	23	4.0553	0.74854	392	0.11	0.914	0.0*
Wildlife Experiences	4.4203	0.56727	23	4.2871	0.60804	395	1.09	0.286	0.2*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.8152	0.75309	23	3.7925	0.73856	391	0.141	0.889	0.0*
Marketing and Branding	4.3043	0.79876	23	4.1730	0.7538	393	0.769	0.449	0.2*
Visitor Management	3.8219	0.86148	23	3.7565	0.68844	395	0.358	0.724	0.1*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	4.0455	1.03451	22	3.9231	0.77971	386	0.546	0.59	0.2*
Experience and relaxation	4.3750	0.62559	22	4.3857	0.68858	387	0.077	0.939	0.0*
Lifestyle	4.0952	1.17918	21	4.0181	1.12223	386	0.293	0.773	0.1*
Value	3.9091	0.81118	22	3.7979	0.8421	386	0.624	0.539	0.1*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

There are no statistical significant differences in Table 5.16 regarding the respondents that listen to radio and/or not. It is however, evident that respondents listening to radio regard the competitive advantage factor *Marketing and Branding* (mean value 4.30) as more important compared to the other competitive advantage factors. Once again the motivational factor *Experience and Relaxation* (mean value 4.38) were regarded as the most important factor with regards to the other motivational factors for respondents listening to radio.

5.5.8 T-test comparison of television vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

Table 5.17 proves that there are no statistical significant factors with regards to respondents making use of television to obtain information about the Kruger National Park. However, it is clear that respondents who do make use of a television regards the competitive advantage *Wildlife Experience* (mean value 4.37) as more important than those respondents that do not use a television for sourcing information. With regards to the motivational factors, *Experience and Relaxation* (mean value 4.43) were again regarded as more important than the other motivational factors.

Table: 5.17: Television

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	4.0536	0.82738	42	4.0562	0.75466	372	0.02	0.984	0.0*
Wildlife Experiences	4.3686	0.55555	42	4.2902	0.60787	375	0.859	0.394	0.1*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.8393	0.76362	42	3.7896	0.73717	371	0.401	0.690	0.1*
Marketing and Branding	4.3381	0.72544	42	4.1661	0.75713	373	1.45	0.153	0.2*
Visitor Management	3.779	0.72357	42	3.76	0.69158	375	0.162	0.872	0.0*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	4.0375	0.85028	40	3.9199	0.78417	367	0.837	0.407	0.2*
Experience and relaxation	4.425	0.51329	40	4.3845	0.69956	368	0.455	0.651	0.1*
Lifestyle	3.925	1.20655	40	4.0328	1.11725	366	0.54	0.592	0.1*
Value	4.0083	0.7826	40	3.7861	0.8444	367	1.692	0.097	0.3*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

5.5.9 T-test comparison of magazine vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

Table: 5.18: Magazine

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	4.129	0.77729	73	4.0404	0.7582	340	0.887	0.377	0.1*
Wildlife Experiences	4.411	0.53016	73	4.2717	0.61985	343	1.976	0.051	0.2*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.8603	0.76739	73	3.7799	0.73428	339	0.817	0.416	0.1*
Marketing and Branding	4.2393	0.70278	73	4.1702	0.76552	341	0.750	0.455	0.1*
Visitor Management	3.7795	0.71141	73	3.7548	0.69585	343	0.270	0.787	0.0*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	4.093	0.70677	71	3.8934	0.80916	335	2.104	0.038	0.3*
Experience and relaxation	4.545	0.47702	71	4.3552	0.71632	336	2.754	0.007	0.3*
Lifestyle	4.1549	1.07767	71	3.991	1.13499	334	1.153	0.252	0.1*
Value	3.9155	0.80419	71	3.7836	0.84779	335	1.243	0.216	0.2*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

Table 5.18 points out that there is statistical significance based on the motivational factors with regards to respondents reading magazines to gather information about the Park. The motivational factor *Experience and Relaxation* (mean value 4.55) was regarded as being more important contrary to respondents that do not read magazines (mean value of 4.36). The other statistical significant factor that was regarded as more important to respondents gathering information from magazines counter to those not using magazines for information (mean value of 3.89), was *All Inclusive Destination* (mean value of 4.09) .

Although there are no statistical significant differences in the competitive advantage factors, respondents regard *Marketing and Branding* (mean value 4.24) as more important than the other competitive advantage factors.

5.5.10 T-test comparison of SANParks vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

Table: 5.19:SANParks

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	3.9992	0.8135	102	4.0719	0.74412	313	0.800	4.250	0.1*
Wildlife Experiences	4.2815	0.61684	102	4.2986	0.60337	316	0.244	0.808	0.0*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.7363	0.72242	102	3.8125	0.74382	312	0.918	0.360	0.1*
Marketing and Branding	4.0239	0.81634	102	4.2311	0.72943	314	2.285	0.024	0.3*
Visitor Management	3.6510	0.7760	102	3.7952	0.66841	316	1.686	0.094	0.2*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	3.8889	0.79178	99	3.9427	0.79608	309	0.588	0.557	0.1*
Experience and relaxation	4.3434	0.68566	99	4.3984	0.68488	310	0.697	0.488	0.1*
Lifestyle	4.0707	1.04249	99	4.0065	1.14997	308	0.52	0.604	0.1*
Value	3.7738	0.83736	98	3.8134	0.84179	310	0.408	0.684	0.0*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

Table 5.19 shows that there is only a statistically significant difference between respondents who use SANParks information and those who do not based on the competitive advantage factor *Marketing and Branding* (mean value of 4.23).

It can therefore be argued that visitors that became aware of the Park from SANParks regarded *Marketing and Branding* as a less important competitive advantage factor compared to visitors who did enquire from SANParks on the Kruger National Park. Although there were no statistical significant differences in terms of the motivational factors identified, the factor *Experience and Relaxation* (mean value of 4.40) was regarded as less important to respondents that have heard about the Park through SANParks, compared to those respondents that did not make contact with SANParks for information purposes.

5.5.11 T-test comparison of previous visits vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

Table: 5.20: Previous visits

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	4.0298	0.75418	229	4.0829	0.77317	185	0.702	0.483	0.1*
Wildlife Experiences	4.2791	0.62764	231	4.3144	0.58063	186	0.595	0.552	0.1*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.7499	0.70344	229	3.8471	0.78021	184	1.314	0.190	0.1*
Marketing and Branding	4.0911	0.79872	231	4.2897	0.6861	184	2.723	0.007	0.2*
Visitor Management	3.6522	0.69991	231	3.8892	0.67333	186	3.51	0.001	0.3*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	3.9436	0.76443	226	3.9075	0.83159	181	0.451	0.652	0.0*
Experience and relaxation	4.3743	0.71433	226	4.3993	0.64947	182	0.37	0.712	0.0*
Lifestyle	4.0929	1.03933	226	3.9333	1.22178	180	1.396	0.164	0.1*
Value	3.7709	0.8412	227	3.8472	0.84063	180	0.909	0.364	0.1*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

In Table 5.20 it is evident that the competitive advantage factors *Marketing and Branding* as well as *Visitor Management* were regarded as being statistical significant. Respondents indicated that because of previous visits *Marketing and Branding* (mean value of 4.09) was less important compared to respondents that have not travelled to the Park on a previous occasion (mean value of 4.29). The factor *Visitor Management* was also regarded as less important (mean value of 3.65) to respondents that have previously travelled to the Park compared to respondents that have not (mean value of 3.89). There was no statistical significant difference based on the motivational factors identified, however the most important motivational factor was *Experience and Relaxation* specifically for respondents that have not visited the Park before (mean value of 4.40) compared to respondents that have previously visited the Park (mean value of 4.37).

5.5.12 T-test comparison of Facebook vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

There were no statistical significant factors identified for respondents that made use of Facebook to gather information about the Park. This might be due to the average of the visitors being about 51 years of age, and that the younger generation who are known to make more use of social media, was not part of the survey due to them being younger than 18 years. However, the most important competitive advantage factor was *Wildlife Experiences* for respondents that did not make use of Facebook (mean value of 4.30) compared to those respondents that do use Facebook for information purposes (mean value of 4.26). The motivational factor, *Experience and Relaxation* (mean value of 4.38) was more important to respondents not using Facebook to gather information about the Park, compared to respondents that do use of Facebook (mean value of 4.41).

Table: 5.21: Facebook

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	3.9688	0.86077	32	4.0654	0.74949	381	0.616	0.542	0.1*
Wildlife Experiences	4.2613	0.60456	32	4.2967	0.60809	384	0.318	0.752	0.1*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.7281	0.71752	32	3.8018	0.74016	380	0.557	0.581	0.1*
Marketing and Branding	4.0615	0.76866	32	4.1886	0.75659	382	0.900	0.374	0.2*
Visitor Management	3.6853	0.70928	32	3.7675	0.69429	384	0.631	0.532	0.1*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	3.8548	0.93089	31	3.9333	0.78405	375	0.456	0.651	0.1*
Experience and relaxation	4.4113	0.59002	31	4.383	0.69424	376	0.253	0.802	0.0*
Lifestyle	4.0667	1.2299	30	4.016	1.1852	375	0.219	0.828	0.0*
Value	3.8172	0.7974	31	3.8004	0.84411	375	0.112	0.911	0.0*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

5.4.13 T-test comparison of Twitter vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

Table 5.22 points out that no statistical significant differences were identified although there were two factors that respondents regarded as more important than the rest. The competitive advantage factor, *Wildlife Experiences*, (mean value 4.30) was more important to respondents not using Twitter compared to respondents that do use Twitter to gather information (mean value of 4.22). The motivational factor, *Experience and Relaxation* (mean value 4.47) was regarded as much more important by respondents using Twitter compared to respondents not using Twitter (mean value of 4.38). It clearly indicates that some forms of experience were regarded as extremely important for both yes and no respondents.

Table: 5.22: Twitter

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	3.8158	1.01667	19	4.065	0.74764	395	0.055	0.305	0.2*
Wildlife Experiences	4.2184	0.60543	19	4.2985	0.60724	398	0.563	0.580	0.1*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.7693	0.8102	19	3.7944	0.73681	394	0.132	0.896	0.0*
Marketing and Branding	3.9491	0.90631	19	4.1902	0.74812	396	1.141	0.268	0.3*
Visitor Management	3.6535	0.82835	19	3.7629	0.69137	398	0.566	0.578	0.1*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	4.0737	0.9480	19	3.9204	0.78665	388	0.693	0.496	0.2*
Experience and relaxation	4.4737	0.55836	19	4.3811	0.69135	389	0.697	0.493	0.1*
Lifestyle	4.3889	1.09216	18	4.0052	1.12522	388	1.455	0.162	0.3*
Value	3.8246	0.96461	19	3.8037	0.83564	388	0.93	0.927	0.0*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

5.5.14 T-test comparison of internet blogs vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

There were no statistical significant differences identified in respondents making use of Internet blogs. However, the competitive advantage factor *Wildlife Experiences* (mean value of 4.30) was much more important to respondents using Internet blogs compared to respondents that do not use Internet blogs (mean value of 4.22). The motivational factor, *Experience and Relaxation*, once again proved to be more important to respondents that make use of Internet blogs (mean value of 4.46) compared to respondents that do not make use of Internet blogs (mean value of 4.38). It clearly indicates that some forms of experience were regarded as extremely important for both yes and no respondents.

Table: 5.23: Internet blogs

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	3.9052	0.85933	29	4.0652	0.75358	386	0.975	0.337	0.2*
Wildlife Experiences	4.2182	0.65251	29	4.3004	0.60283	389	0.658	0.515	0.1*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.7431	0.74423	29	3.7975	0.73887	385	0.380	0.706	0.1*
Marketing and Branding	4.1241	0.7539	29	4.1849	0.7572	387	0.419	0.678	0.1*
Visitor Management	3.6188	0.82435	29	3.7689	0.68631	389	0.956	0.346	0.2*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	3.9214	0.9275	28	3.9282	0.78385	380	0.037	0.970	0.0*
Experience and relaxation	4.4643	0.46004	28	4.3799	0.69837	381	0.897	0.375	0.1*
Lifestyle	3.8889	1.33973	27	4.0289	1.10966	380	0.530	0.600	0.1*
Value	3.9167	0.80954	28	3.7978	0.84281	380	0.748	0.460	0.1*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

5.5.15 T-test comparison of member of a conservation organisation vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

From Table 5.24 it is evident that there is a statistical significant difference in terms of the competitive advantage based on the factor *Wildlife Experiences* as part of a conservation organisations (mean value of 4.40), compared to respondents that are not part of a conservation organisation (mean value of 4.26). Also, it proves that respondents part of a conservation organisation regard *Experience and Relaxation* ($p = 0.008$ and a mean value 4.53) as more important compared to respondents who are not part of a conservation organisation (mean value of 4.36).

Table: 5.24: Member of conservation organisation

Variables	Yes			No			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	4.107	0.69928	116	4.0678	0.76275	295	0.499	0.618	0.1*
Wildlife Experiences	4.4024	0.55541	116	4.2585	0.59744	295	2.313	0.022	0.2*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.8040	0.72783	116	4.1628	0.76795	294	0.090	0.929	0.5**
Marketing and Branding	4.2325	0.69277	116	4.1628	0.76795	294	0.889	0.375	0.1*
Visitor Management	3.8049	0.69079	116	3.7521	0.68547	295	0.699	0.485	0.1*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	4.0105	0.80522	114	3.9104	0.77277	294	1.14	0.256	0.1*
Experience and relaxation	4.5326	0.52932	115	4.362	0.69593	294	2.67	0.008	0.2*
Lifestyle	4.1754	1.00658	114	3.9762	1.16378	294	1.715	0.088	0.2*
Value	3.9094	0.81594	114	3.7863	0.8264	294	1.362	0.175	0.1*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

5.5.16 T-test comparison of chalets and campers vs. competitive advantage factors and motives

Table 5.25 shows statistical significance exist between respondents making use of chalets ($p = 0.017$ and a mean value of 3.81) versus respondents using the camping section of a rest camp (mean value of 3.62) based on the competitive advantage factor *Visitor Management*. *Visitor Management* is clearly more important to respondents staying over in chalets compared to campers. Furthermore, it also indicated that there are significant differences between the motivational factor *Lifestyle* as regarded more important to respondents at the camping sites ($p = 0.001$ and a mean value of 4.29) than for the respondents that stays in chalets (mean value of 3.92). This is not an unsurprising finding as camping can be regarded as a *Lifestyle*.

Table: 5.25: Chalets and campers

Variables	Chalets			Campers			t-value	p	Effect Sizes
	Mean	Std.Dev	N	Mean	Std.Dev	N			
Competitive Advantage Factors									
Accommodation and Retail	4.0389	0.78964	304	4.0804	0.67295	113	0.533	0.595	0.1*
Wildlife Experiences	4.2712	0.62975	306	4.3186	0.54201	114	0.762	0.447	0.1*
Suprastructure and Amenities	3.8004	0.7673	303	3.7968	0.63565	113	0.049	0.961	0.0*
Marketing and Branding	4.2183	0.75596	304	4.0684	0.74711	114	1.821	0.070	0.2*
Visitor Management	3.8101	0.68232	306	3.6217	0.72351	114	2.410	0.017	0.3*
Motives									
All inclusive destination	3.9220	0.82353	298	3.9263	0.74435	112	0.051	0.959	0.0*
Experience and relaxation	4.3771	0.71638	299	4.433	0.58122	112	0.813	0.417	0.1*
Lifestyle	3.9226	1.17292	297	4.2857	0.95322	112	0.217	0.001	0.3*
Value	3.7740	0.84721	298	3.8884	0.77446	112	1.298	0.196	0.1*

*Statistical significant difference: $p \leq 0.05$ (Brace et al., 2013:195; Pallant, 2007:190).

Effect sizes are categorised as small (0.2 – 0.4)*; medium (0.5 – 0.8) ** and large (greater as 0.8) ***. The smaller the effect size the higher the percentage of overlap between the two variables, small effect size overlapping is between 92% - 73 %; medium effect size overlapping is between 67% - 57%; large effect size overlapping is between 53% - 29% (Dancy & Reidy, 2004:211).

The next section discusses the structural equation model (SEM) and any positive correlations between the different factors that have been identified.

5.6 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL

The statistical methodology of a SEM is most often used as an approach to confirm results. However, in the case the SEM is used as an exploratory approach (Malhotra et al., 2013:710; Kline, 2011:8; Byrne, 2010:8). Based on the results discussed in the previous sections it can be observed that there is a clear relationship between the motivational factors and competitive advantage factors. Since the majority of statistical significant differences were in terms of motivational factors it was decided to test the relationship between motivational factors and competitive advantage factors. This was done through Spearman's rank order correlation analysis. As an introduction to the SEM, the results of the correlation analysis will be discussed firstly.

5.6.1 Results of the correlation analysis

Table 5.26 points out the following positive correlations among the various factors. Also, no negative correlation exists which confirm that no factors, if increased, will have a negative effect on the other factors (Pallant, 2007:115).

Large significant correlation coefficient ($r=.50-1.0$) that exist between competitive advantage and motivational factors as indicated in Table 26:

- The relationship between *Accommodation and Retail* and *Visitor Management* [$r=.716$, $n=425$, $p<0.001$]; *Suprastructure and Amenities* [$r=.630$, $n=424$, $p<0.001$]; *Marketing and Branding* [$r=.620$, $n=424$, $p<0.001$]; *All Inclusive Destination* [$r=.505$, $n=425$, $p<0.001$] and *Value* [$r=.527$, $n=425$, $p<0.001$] was investigated using Pearson's correlation coefficient. It seems that there is a high positive correlation between these factors.
- There was only one factor which had a large significant correlation with *Wildlife Experiences* namely: *Marketing and Branding* [$r=.588$, $n=426$, $p<0.001$].
- The factor *Suprastructure and Amenities* showed that it has a number of large positive significant correlations with other factors such as *Accommodation and Retail* [$r=.630$, $n=424$, $p<0.001$]; *Marketing and Branding* [$r=.678$, $n=424$, $p<0.001$]; and *Visitor Management* [$r=.690$, $n=424$, $p<0.001$]. The motivational factors *All Inclusive Destination* [$r=.519$, $n=416$, $p<0.001$] presented a large significant correlation with the Park's *Supra-structure and Amenities*.
- The factor *Marketing and Branding* has indicated a large positive significant correlation with all the competitive advantages and motivational factors. *Accommodation and Retail* [$r=.620$, $n=424$, $p<0.001$]; *Wildlife Experiences* [$r=.588$, $n=424$, $p>0.05$]; *Suprastructure and Amenities* [$r=.678$, $n=424$, $p<0.001$]; *Visitor Management* [$r=.651$, $n=424$, $p<0.001$]; *All Inclusive Destination* [$r=.534$, $n=415$, $p<0.001$]; and *Value* [$r=.510$, $n=415$, $p<0.001$].
- *Visitor Management* indicated that there are three competitive advantage factors that have a great positive significant correlation, namely *Accommodation and Retail* [$r=.716$, $n=424$, $p<0.001$]; *Suprastructure and Amenities* [$r=.690$, $n=424$, $p<0.001$] and *Marketing and Branding* [$r=.610$, $n=424$, $p<0.001$]. None of the motivation factors had a large significant correlation with *Visitor Management*.

- The motivational factors showed a high number of large significant positive correlations among each other. *All Inclusive Destination* had a large correlation with *Experience and Relaxation* [$r=.655$, $n=418$, $p<0.001$]; *Lifestyle* [$r=.532$, $n=416$, $p<0.001$]; and *Value* [$r=.660$, $n=417$, $p<0.001$]. The factor *Experience and Relaxation* furthermore had a large significant positive correlation with *Value* [$r=.571$, $n=417$, $p<0.001$].

Medium significant correlations ($r=.30-.49$) that exist between competitive advantage and motivational factors as indicated in Table 5.26:

- The relationship between *Accommodation and Retail* and *Wildlife Experiences* [$r=.415$, $n=425$, $p \geq .30 - .49$] was not that significant but showed that there is a positive relationship between the two factors. Furthermore, a positive relationship is evident between the motivational factor *Experience and Relaxation* [$r=.480$, $n=417$, $p < 0.001$].
- *Wildlife Experience* had medium significant correlations with the majority of competitive and motivational factors. These correlations are as follow, *Accommodation and Retail* [$r=.415$, $n=425$, $p < 0.001$]; *Suprastructure and Amenities* [$r=.477$, $n=424$, $p < 0.001$]; *Visitor Management* [$r=.488$, $n=426$, $p \geq .30 - .49$]; *All Inclusive Destination* [$r=.464$, $n=416$, $p < 0.001$]; *Experience and Relaxation* [$r=.466$, $n=417$, $p < 0.001$]; *Lifestyle* [$r=.418$, $n=415$, $p \geq .30 - .49$]; and *Value* [$r=.394$, $n=416$, $p \geq .<0.001$].
- *Suprastructure and Amenities* had only three factors which correlated with a medium positive significant correlation namely *Wildlife Experience* [$r=.477$, $n=424$, $p < 0.001$]; *Experience and Relaxation* [$r=.391$, $n=416$, $p < 0.001$]; and *Value* [$r=.456$, $n=415$, $p < 0.001$].
- There were only two motivational factors that showed a medium positive significant correlation with the factor *Marketing and Branding*. These two motivational factors are *Experience and Relaxation* [$r=.499$, $n=416$, $p < 0.001$]; and *Lifestyle* [$r=.300$, $n=414$, $p < 0.001$].

- *Visitor Management* had one competitive advantage factor, *Wildlife Experience* [$r=.488$, $n=428$, $p < 0.001$] with which it showed a medium significant correlation. The following three motivational factors showed a positive medium correlation with *Visitor Management*; *All Inclusive Destination* [$r=.496$, $n=416$, $p \geq .30 - .49$]; *Experience and Relaxation* [$r=.409$, $n=417$, $p < 0.001$]; and *Value* [$r=.488$, $n=416$, $p < 0.001$].
- The factor *Lifestyle* presented a medium positive correlation with *Experience and Relaxation* [$r=.498$, $n=417$, $p < 0.001$] and *Value* [$r=.484$, $n=415$, $p < 0.001$].

Small significant correlations ($r=.10 - .29$) that exist between competitive advantage and motivational factors as indicated in Table 5.26:

- The following competitive advantage factors, namely *Accommodation and Retail*, *Suprastructure and Amenities* and *Visitor Management* all had a significant small correlation with the motivational factor of *Lifestyle*. These correlations are respectively [$r=.246$, $n=415$, $p < 0.001$]; [$r=.282$, $n=414$, $p < 0.001$] and [$r=.186$, $n=415$, $p < 0.001$].

Table 5.26: Correlation of competitive advantage factors and motivational factors

	Accommodation and Retail				Wildlife Experiences				Suprastructure and Amenities				Marketing and Branding				Visitor Management			
	CC	Sig (2-tailed)	N	r ² (%)	CC	Sig (2-tailed)	N	r ² (%)	CC	Sig (2-tailed)	N	r ² (%)	CC	Sig (2-tailed)	N	r ² (%)	CC	Sig (2-tailed)	N	r ² (%)
Accommodation and Retail	1.000		425	100.0000	0.415**	0.000	425	17.2225	0.630***	0.001	424	39.6900	0.620***	0.001	424	38.4400	0.716***	0.001	425	51.2656
Wildlife Experiences	0.415**	0.001	425	17.2225	1.000		428	100.0000	0.477**	0.001	424	22.7529	0.588***	0.001	426	34.5744	0.488**	0.001	428	23.8144
Suprastructure and Amenities	0.630***	0.001	424	39.6900	0.477**	0.001	424	22.7529	1.000		424	100.0000	0.678***	0.001	424	45.9684	0.690***	0.001	424	47.6100
Marketing and Branding	0.620***	0.001	424	38.4400	0.588***	0.001	426	34.5744	0.678***	0.001	424	45.9684	1.000		426	100.0000	0.651***	0.001	426	42.3801
Visitor Management	0.716***	0.001	425	51.2656	0.488**	0.001	428	23.8144	0.690***	0.001	424	47.6100	0.651***	0.001	426	42.380	1.000		428	100.0000
All Inclusive Destination	.505** *	0.001	416	25.5025	.464**	0.001	416	21.5296	.519** *	0.001	415	26.9361	.534** *	0.001	415	28.5156	.496**	0.001	416	24.6016
Experiencing and Relaxation	.480**	0.001	417	23.0400	.466**	0.001	417	21.7156	.394**	0.001	416	15.5236	.499**	0.001	416	24.9001	.409**	0.001	417	16.7281
Lifestyle	.246*	0.001	415	6.0516	.418**	0.001	415	17.4724	.282*	0.001	414	7.9524	.300**	0.001	414	9.0000	.186*	0.001	415	3.4596
Value	.527** *	0.001	416	27.7729	.394**	0.001	416	15.5236	.456**	0.001	415	20.7936	.510** *	0.001	415	26.0100	.488**	0.001	416	23.8144

Cohen (1988:79-81; 1969:77) indicated that there are three levels of interpreting the values in the correlation matrix with all values between 0 and 1 classified as $r = 0.10 - 0.29 = \text{small}^*$; $0.30 - 0.49 = \text{medium}^{**}$; $0.50 - 1.0 = \text{large}^{***}$

Table 5.26: Correlation of competitive advantage factors and motivational factors (continued)

	All Inclusive Destination				Experience and Relaxation				Lifestyle				Value			
	CC	Sig (2-tailed)	N	r ² (%)	CC	Sig (2-tailed)	N	r ² (%)	CC	Sig (2-tailed)	N	r ² (%)	CC	Sig (2-tailed)	N	r ² (%)
All Inclusive Destination	1.000		418	100	0.655***	0.001	418	42.903	0.532***	0.001	416	28.3024	0.660***	0.001	417	43.5600
Experience and Relaxation	0.655***	0.001	418	42.9025	1.000		419	100	0.498**	0.001	417	24.8004	0.571***	0.001	417	32.6041
Lifestyle	0.532***	0.001	416	28.3024	0.498**	0.001	417	24.800	1.000		417	100	0.484**	0.001	415	23.4256
Value	0.660***	0.001	418	43.5600	0.571***	0.001	417	32.604	0.484**	0.001	415	23.4256	1.000		418	100

Cohen (1988:79-81; 1969:77) indicated that there are three levels of interpreting the values in the correlation matrix with all values between 0 and 1 classified as $r = 0.10 - 0.29 = \text{small}^*$; $0.30 - 0.49 = \text{medium}^{**}$; $0.50 - 1.0 = \text{large}^{***}$

The next section indicates the different phases of the SEM analysis. , Previously, Chapter 4 discussed the way in which SEM was applied to this study.

Phase 1 & Phase 2: Defining individual constructs and the development and specification of the measurement model

The constructs (both motivational and competitive advantage factors) were discussed in the literature reviews and measured in the questionnaire. Then factor analyses were conducted to reduce the number of constructs and identify the specific motivational and competitive advantage factors (see section 5.2.1 and 5.2.2) (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:715).

Phase 3: Confirming the empirical results obtained

Consequently, four issues are discussed, namely the type of data analysed (covariance or correlations); the sample size; the model estimation and the computer software that was used in the study.

- **Type of data analysed**

It is recommended that the choice of correlation or covariance should be considered based on interpretive and statistical issues (Hair *et al.*, 2006:738). Correlations are therefore supported much rather than covariance as it can be used at any time necessary (Klem, 2000:227-257).

- **Sample size**

According to Malhotra *et al.* (2013:716); Kline (2011:11) and Hair *et al.* (2006:740), a large sample size is the most effective when conducting a SEM analysis. However, the data should be multivariate and the computer programme AMOS should be used specifically for this analysis (Arbuckle, 2007). Malhotra *et al.* (2013:716) and Hair *et al.* (2006:742) furthermore proposed several guidelines for the influence of sample size when using SEM:

- A small sample size of about 100 to 150 respondents will most likely end up with a SEM that has five or fewer constructs, respectively have more than three items (observed variables) and a high item communality of about six or higher.

- In the case of the communality being between 0.45 and 0.55, the constructs would have less than three items and the population sample size should be well above 200 respondents.
- Instances where the sample size had more than 500 respondents, the estimated number of factors would be larger than six, some factors would have less than three measured items, and there are multiple low communalities.

The current study's model contains nine components with eight out of the nine components measured with at least three or more constructs. The sample size is 436 with 44 variables.

- **Model estimation**

Hair *et al.* (2006:743) indicates that there are a variety of estimation methods that can be used to determine how closely the correlation or covariance matrix implies the particular set of trail values to the observed data and, the possible guided attempts to identify possible best-fitting models. The following are some standardised methods that the majority of SEM programmes support:

- Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)
- Asymptotically Distribution Free (ADF)
- Generalised Least Squares (GLS)
- Weighted Least Squares (WLS)
- Maximum Likelihood Estimates (MLE)
- Robust Maximum Likelihood (RML)

A discrepancy function is considered as a different manner in which the weighting of the variance in corresponding elements of observed and imputed covariance normality are met. MLE has been proven quite fairly as robust to the violation of the normality assumption (Hair *et al.*, 2006:743).

- **Computer software**

There are a variety of statistical packages available to researchers to perform SEM analyses. Computer programme packages such as Linear Structural Relations (LISRELL); Equations (EQS) and SPSS with AMOS have been developed since there is an increase in the demand of testing complex hypothesis (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000:885). The Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) is a programme that enables SPSS to conduct a SEM analysis (Cohen, 2011:692).

Phase 4: Assessing Measurement Model Validity

The goodness-of-fit (GOS) is calculated to determine the degree to which the data used in the study represents the theoretical foundation (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:718; Boomsma, 2000:461–483). The manner in which the structural model fit the observed data to the extent in which the equilibrium is reached between the empirical covariance matrix and model implied covariance matrix, determines if the model fits (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:724; Whitman & Woszczyński, 2004:56). The fit indices in Table 5.27 provide evidence of a good fit, since RMSEA (0.064) is below the excepted margin of 0.08. The figure of the upper bound 90% confidence interval for the RMSEA (0.067) provided further evidence of a good fit. Values for the comparative fit index (CFI) should vary between 0.0 and 1.0 the values closer to 1.0 indicating a good fit (Hooper, Coughlan, Mullen, 2008:54; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:718). The CFI value for the proposed model was good as its value was 0.823. In addition, the relative/normed chi-square or χ^2/df is considered acceptable as its value was 2.807 and acceptable ratio for the chi-square divided by its degrees of freedom is between 2.0 and 5.0 (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:718; Tabacknic & Fidell, 2007:542).

Table 5.27: Goodness-of-fit indices

Model	CMIN/DF	CFI	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	2.807	0.823	0.064	0.061	0.067

Phase 5: Specifying the structural model

Figure 5.17 displays the SEM with the constructs that measures the relationship between the motivational factors and the competitive advantage factors.

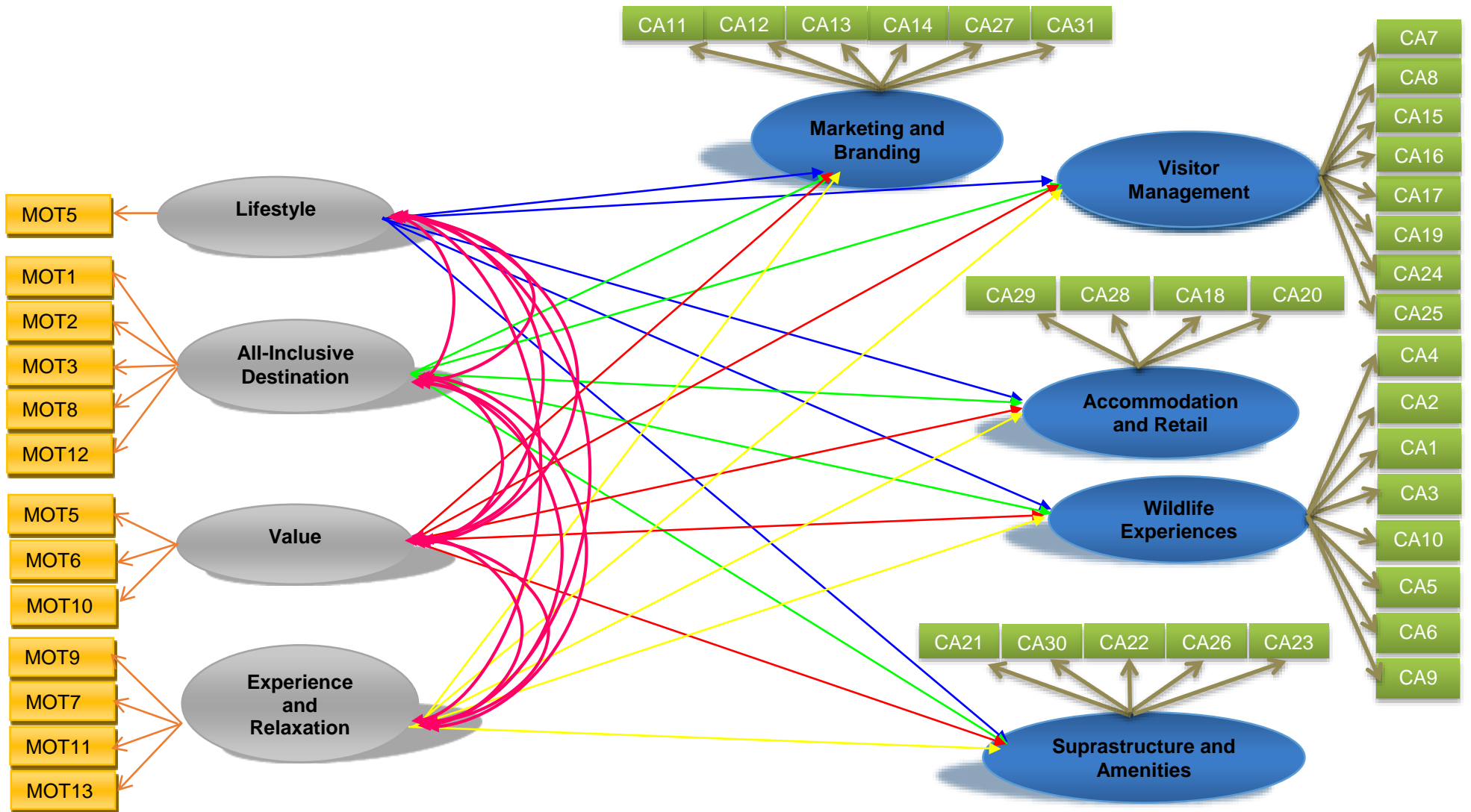


Figure 5.17: SEM model confirming the motivational factors' influence on the competitive advantage factors of visitors to the Kruger National Park
 *Motivational factors are indicated as MOT

**Competitive advantage factors are indicated as CA

In Figure 5.17 the statistical significance of each construct is indicated as well as the motivational factors correlation paths. Based on Figure 5.17, the following hypotheses were formulated and are specified in Table 5.27.

Table 5.27: Hypotheses tested in the SEM model

Hypothesis	
H1	There is a direct relationship between <i>All-inclusive Destination (Motive Factor 1)</i> and <i>Accommodation and Retail (competitive advantage Factor 1)</i> .
H2	There is a direct relationship between <i>All-inclusive Destination (Motive Factor 1)</i> and <i>Wildlife Experiences (competitive advantage Factor 2)</i> .
H3	There is a direct relationship between <i>All-inclusive Destination (Motive Factor 1)</i> and <i>Marketing and Branding (competitive advantage Factor 3)</i> .
H4	There is a direct relationship between <i>All-inclusive Destination (Motive Factor 1)</i> and <i>Suprastructure and Amenities (competitive advantage Factor 4)</i> .
H5	There is a direct relationship between <i>All-inclusive Destination (Motive Factor 1)</i> and <i>Visitor Management (competitive advantage Factor 5)</i> .
H6	There is a direct relationship between <i>Experience and Relaxation (Motive Factor 2)</i> and <i>Accommodation and Retail (competitive advantage Factor 1)</i> .
H7	There is a direct relationship between <i>Experience and Relaxation (Motive Factor 2)</i> and <i>Wildlife Experiences (competitive advantage Factor 2)</i> .
H8	There is a direct relationship between <i>Experience and Relaxation (Motive Factor 2)</i> and <i>Marketing and Branding (competitive advantage Factor 3)</i> .
H9	There is a direct relationship between <i>Experience and Relaxation (Motive Factor 2)</i> and <i>Suprastructure and Amenities (competitive advantage Factor 4)</i> .
H10	There is a direct relationship between <i>Experience and Relaxation (Motive Factor 2)</i> and <i>Visitor Management (competitive advantage Factor 5)</i> .
H11	There is a direct relationship between <i>Value (Motive Factor 3)</i> and <i>Accommodation and Retail (competitive advantage Factor 1)</i> .
H12	There is a direct relationship between <i>Value (Motive Factor 3)</i> and <i>Wildlife Experiences (competitive advantage Factor 2)</i> .
H13	There is a direct relationship between <i>Value (Motive Factor 3)</i> and <i>Marketing and Branding (competitive advantage Factor 3)</i> .
H14	There is a direct relationship between <i>Value (Motive Factor 3)</i> and <i>Suprastructure and Amenities (competitive advantage Factor 4)</i> .
H15	There is a direct relationship between <i>Value (Motive Factor 3)</i> and <i>Visitor Management (Competitive advantage Factor 5)</i> .
H16	There is a direct relationship between <i>Lifestyle (Motive Factor 4)</i> and <i>Accommodation and Retail (competitive advantage Factor 1)</i> .

H17	There is a direct relationship between <i>Lifestyle (Motive Factor 4)</i> and <i>Wildlife Experiences (competitive advantage Factor 2)</i> .
H18	There is a direct relationship between <i>Lifestyle (Motive Factor 4)</i> and <i>Marketing and Branding (competitive advantage Factor 3)</i> .
H19	There is a direct relationship between <i>Lifestyle (Motive Factor 4)</i> and <i>Suprastructure and Amenities (competitive advantage Factor 4)</i> .
H20	There is a direct relationship between <i>Lifestyle (Motive Factor 4)</i> and <i>Visitor Management (competitive advantage Factor 5)</i> .

Various estimation techniques have been applied to determine to what extent covariance matrix implied by the model, conforms to the observed in a SEM. The inspection of the standardised coefficients for regression paths were the method used for examining the relationship between the identified latent variables.

Table 5.28: The maximum likelihood estimates – regression weights of structural part of the model

				Standardised regression weights	Estimate	p-value ($p < 0.05$)
H1	Accommodation & Retail	←	All-Inclusive Destination	4.655	3.646	0.062
H2	Wildlife Experience	←	All-Inclusive Destination	5.066	4.131	0.054
H3	Suprastructure and Amenities	←	All-Inclusive Destination	6.638	5.306	0.047
H4	Marketing and Branding	←	All-Inclusive Destination	6.136	6.180	0.085
H5	Visitor Management	←	All-Inclusive Destination	6.314	5.953	0.060
H6	Accommodation & Retail	←	Experience and Relaxation	0.883	1.002	0.174
H7	Wildlife Experience	←	Experience and Relaxation	1.213	1.432	0.075
H8	Suprastructure and Amenities	←	Experience and Relaxation	0.911	1.054	0.292
H9	Marketing and Branding	←	Experience and Relaxation	1.305	1.904	0.121
H10	Visitor Management	←	Experience and Relaxation	1.040	1.420	0.233
H11	Accommodation & Retail	←	Value	-1.820	-1.707	0.241
H12	Wildlife Experience	←	Value	-2.994	-2.923	0.069
H13	Suprastructure and Amenities	←	Value	-3.179	-3.042	0.127
H14	Marketing and Branding	←	Value	-3.086	-3.722	0.126

H15	Visitor Management	←	Value	-2.773	-3.131	0.184
H16	Accommodation & Retail	←	Lifestyle	-3.301	-2.603	0.038
H17	Wildlife Experience	←	Lifestyle	-2.949	-2.241	0.076
H18	Suprastructure and Amenities	←	Lifestyle	-4.053	-3.261	0.057
H19	Marketing and Branding	←	Lifestyle	-4.050	-4.107	0.049
H20	Visitor Management	←	Lifestyle	-4.367	-4.145	0.042

By interpreting the correlations as suggested by Cohen (1988:79-81), the correlation between the motivational factors in Table 5.29 indicated a large positive correlation between *Lifestyle* and *All-Inclusive Destination* ($r = 0.932$); *Lifestyle* and *Experience* ($r = 0.798$); *Lifestyle* and *Value* ($r = 0.729$); *Experience and Relaxation* and *Value* ($r = 0.779$); *All-Inclusive Destination* and *Value* ($r = 0.913$); and *All-Inclusive Destination* and *Experience and Relaxation* ($r = 0.803$);

Table 5.29: Models of correlations

Correlations			Estimate	P-value ($p < 0.05$)
Lifestyle	↔	All-Inclusive Destination	0.932	0.001
Lifestyle	↔	Experience Relaxation	0.798	0.001
Lifestyle	↔	Value	0.729	0.001
Experience Relaxation	↔	Value	0.779	0.001
All-Inclusive Destination	↔	Value	0.913	0.001
All-Inclusive Destination	↔	Experience Relaxation	0.803	0.001

The next phase explains the statistical significance of each hypothesis on a 5% and 10% level of significance. Also, it confirms whether these hypotheses prove a direct positive influence between the motivational and competitive advantage factors.

Phase 6: Testing Structural Model hypotheses

The last and final step is to determine how well the theorised constructs measure to that of reality.

a) Hypotheses supported at a 5% level of significance

The following hypothesis is regarded as extremely important for Park Management to increase the competitive advantage of the Park:

- **H4** confirmed ($p = 0.047$) the hypothesis has a statistical significance which states that there is a direct positive relationship between *an All-Inclusive Destination* and *Superstructure and Amenities*. The standardised regression weight (β – value) indicates a positive influence ($\beta = 6.638$). It can therefore be argued that Park management should manage the Park's *Suprastructure and Amenities* in ways to increase the Park's position as being *an All-Inclusive Destination*.

b) Hypotheses rejected at a 5% statistical significance level

- **H 16 H19 and H20** were also supported with significant levels below 0.05 confirming that there is a direct negative relationship between the constructs (Table 5.27) ($p = 0.038$; $p = 0.049$ & $p = 0.042$) respectively. Interestingly, the standardised regression weights indicated a negative influence between *Lifestyle* with *Accommodation and Retail* ($\beta = -3.301$); *Marketing and Branding* ($\beta = -4.050$); and *Visitor Management* ($\beta = -4.367$). This contradicts the finding in the correlation analyses (Table 5.26) where a positive relationship was found. A possible explanation for this is provided by Cohen and Cohen (1983:89) and Cheng and Lau (2007:299) referring to this as a suppression effect. According to Conger (1974); Cheng & Lau, (2007:299): “a suppressor is defined as a third variable that increases the regression coefficient between the independent variable and dependent variable by its inclusion in a regression equation”. In other words the relationship between *Lifestyle* and *Accommodation and Retail*; *Marketing and Branding*; and *Visitor Management* is hidden or suppressed by the suppressor (in this case the other motives since they correlated high with one another).
- This is also the case in the motive *Lifestyle* not having a high positive relationship with the competitive advantage factors, *Accommodation and Retail*; *Wildlife Experience*; *Suprastructure and Amenities*; *Marketing and Branding*; and *Visitor Management* as was expected. Based on the findings, Park management should focus on the improvement and development of the competitive advantage factors.

c) Hypotheses supported at a 10% level of significance

Park management can use these hypotheses and regard them as important to implement and determine which areas to improve in order to increase the competitive advantage of the Park.

- **H1** confirmed the hypothesis and has a statistical significance ($p = 0.062$) indicating a direct positive relationship between an *All-Inclusive Destination* and *Accommodation and Retail*. The standardised regression weight (β – value) indicated a positive influence ($\beta = 4.655$).
- **H2** confirmed that the hypothesis with a statistical significance value of $p = 0.054$, has a direct positive relationship between an *All-Inclusive Destination* and *Wildlife Experiences*. The standardised weight regression (β – value) indicated a positive influence ($\beta = 5.066$).
- **H3** confirmed the hypothesis ($p = 0.058$) has a statistical significance indicating a direct positive relationship between an *All-Inclusive Destination* and *Marketing and Branding*. The standardised weight regression (β – value) indicated that there is a positive influence between the two constructs ($\beta = 6.136$).
- **H5** confirmed the hypothesis ($p = 0.060$) which indicates the direct positive relationship between an *All-Inclusive Destination* and *Visitor Management*. The standardise weight regression (β – value) indicated a positive influence ($\beta = 6.314$).
- **H7** confirmed the hypothesis *Experience Relaxation* has a statistical significant direct negative relationship with *Wildlife Experiences in the presence of all other motivational factors* ($p = 0.075$). The standardised regression weight (β – value) supported this relationship indicating that there is a positive influence ($\beta = 1.213$).

b) Hypotheses rejected at a 10% statistical significance level

Based on the majority of motivation factors having a positive influence on the competitive advantage factors these relationships should be taken into consideration when marketing the Kruger National Park.

- **H12** confirmed the hypothesis ($p = 0.069$) which indicates a direct positive relationship between *Value* and *Wildlife Experiences* with a statistical significant impact. Interestingly the standardised regression weight (β – value) had a negative influence ($\beta = -2.994$).

- **H17** confirmed the hypothesis ($p = 0.076$) which states that there is a statistical significance in the direct positive relationship between *Lifestyle* and *Wildlife Experiences*. Remarkably, this hypothesis standardised weight regression (β – value) also had a negative influence ($\beta = -2.949$).
- **H19** confirmed the hypothesis ($p = 0.057$) which indicates the direct positive relationship between *Lifestyle* and *Supra-structure and Amenities* with a statistical significance. The standardise regression weight (β – value) also indicated a negative influence ($\beta = -4.053$).

A possible explanation for the negative relationship between the motives *Value* and *Lifestyle* could be the suppression effect as earlier. Similar to *Lifestyle*, *Value* do not have a notable influence on how visitors' regard the competitive advantage factors.

e) Hypotheses not supported at a statistical significant level

- **H6** confirmed that the hypothesis which indicates that there is a direct positive relationship between *Experience and Relaxation* and *Accommodation and Retail* which were not statistically significant ($p = 0.174$). The standard weight regression (β – value) indicated that there is a positive influence between the factors ($\beta = 0.883$).
- **H8** confirmed the hypothesis ($p = 0.121$) which indicates a direct positive relationship between *Experience and Relaxation* and *Marketing and Branding* which were statistically insignificant. A positive standardised regression weight (β = value) was indicated as having a positive influence between the motivational and competitive advantage factors ($\beta = 0.911$).
- **H9** confirmed the hypothesis ($p = 0.292$) which indicates a direct positive relationship between *Experience and Relaxation* and *Marketing and Branding Suprastructure and Amenities* and that it was statistically insignificant. A positive standardised regression weight (β – value) was indicated as having a positive influence between the motivational and competitive advantage factors ($\beta = 1.305$).

- **H10** confirmed the hypothesis ($p = 0.233$) which indicates a direct positive relationship between *Experience and Relaxation* and *Visitor Management* which were regarded as statistically insignificant. However, the standardised regression weight (β – value) indicated that there is a positive influence between the motivational and competitive advantage factors ($\beta = 1.040$).

Even though the abovementioned motivational factors did not have a statistical significant relationship with the competitive advantage factors, there correlations are still positive and should hence be considered when marketing and managing the Park as it could lead to evasive competitive advantage.

Hypotheses not rejected at a statistical significant level

The negative regression weights in this section are due to the suppression effect that occurred in the statistical analysis. However, due to the positive correlations these hypotheses remain important in the development of the Kruger National Park's competitiveness model and should be considered through the entire development process.

- **H11** were not rejected by the hypothesis ($p = 0.241$) which states that there is a direct positive relationship between *Value* and *Accommodation and Retail* as statistically insignificant. The standardised regression weight (β – value) indicated that there is a negative influence between the motivational and competitive advantages ($\beta = -1.820$).
- **H13** were not rejected by the hypothesis ($p = 0.126$) indicating the positive direct relationship between *Value* and *Marketing and Branding* which were statistically insignificant. The standardised regression weight (β – value) indicated that there is a negative influence between the motivational and competitive advantage factors ($\beta = -3.179$).
- **H14** were not rejected by the hypothesis ($p = 0.127$) indicating the positive direct relationship between *Value* and *Suprastructure and Amenities* which were statistically insignificant. The standardised regression weight (β – value) indicated that there is a negative influence between the motivational and competitive advantage factors ($\beta = -3.086$).

- **H15** were not rejected by the hypothesis ($p = 0.184$) which indicates a positive direct relationship between *Value* and *Visitor Management* as being statistically insignificant. The standardised regression weight (β – value) indicated that there is a negative influence between the motivational and competitive advantage factors ($\beta = -2.773$)

5.7 CONCLUSION

The data indicated that there are a number of important factors that Park management should consider when positioning the Kruger National Park as a competitive national park. There were five key competitive advantage factors identified out of the 67 variables which are according to importance, *Wildlife Experience, Marketing and Branding; Accommodation and Retail; Suprastructure and Amenities; and Visitor Management*. Aspects such as *Experience and Relaxation, Lifestyle, All Inclusive Destination and Value* were the motivation factors that respondents identified as being important when choosing to travel to the Kruger National Park. The five competitive advantages and four motivation factors were all populated in a correlation matrix of which an equal number of large (0.50 – 1.0) and medium (0.30 – 0.49) correlations was identified. There was only one correlation that had a small (0.10 – 0.29) impact which was the motivational factor *Lifestyle*. The analyses were expanded to ANOVA's and *t*-tests. The ANOVA has proven that there are seven competitive advantage and motivational ANOVA's to be regarded as significant and to be used to increase the competitive advantage of the Kruger National Park.

A *t*-test was conducted and the factors, *Experience and Relaxation and Lifestyle*, proved the highest representation of significance across the variables that were measured. Factors such as *All-Inclusive Destination, Wildlife Experience, Marketing and Branding and Visitor Management* influenced the significance of competitive advantage and motivation on these factors. *Supra-structure and Amenities* was the only factor that was only once represented with a significant difference with regards to the variables that were tested. The SEM was not part of the initial planning stages of this research, but was conducted to confirm the findings of this study and is therefore regarded as exploratory to the study.

The SEM indicated that there are a number of different hypotheses that were identified as statistically significant and which the Kruger National Park should investigate and find ways to increase those competitive advantages and motives of tourists to enhance the Kruger National Park's competitive advantage stance with those of other nature-based destinations. In the case of some hypothesis having a significant statistical impact with a negative standardised regression weight, these hypothesis should not be discarded as those hypothesis are being suppressed by the other motives factors and variables in the study.

The Kruger National Park's management should consider the results obtained from the survey in the process of developing a competitiveness model for the Park.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Success is a state of mind. If you want success, start thinking of yourself as a success.

Joyce Brothers

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study was to develop a competitiveness model for South African National Parks (SANParks) that can assist national parks in gaining a competitive advantage within the ecotourism sector. The case study for this research was the Kruger National Park. This chapter contains the conclusions and recommendations based on the results of the study to advise not only the Kruger National Park on the successful implementation of such a model, but also other national parks in the country. Furthermore, similar ecotourism destinations could implement this model to obtain a competitive position. The following objectives were set out in Chapter 1 and were achieved in the respective chapters.

The first objective was to analyse national park management within the context of nature-based and ecotourism. This objective was achieved in Chapter 2 which explained national parks as part of the nature-based tourism sector within the ecotourism domain, based on national parks' various tourist related activities and conservation efforts. When managing a national park as an effective and efficient ecotourism destination, the park management has to understand the importance of the three park management categories (general-; ecotourism-; and conservation management) and implement them within the park's management structure. Once the foundation of the park management structure has been implemented and understood, park management can consider other ways to improve the tourist experience at the park. One of the possible improvements that park management should consider is the enhancement of the competitiveness of the park to become an ecotourism destination of choice above other competitors.

The second objective was to analyse competitiveness and related theories and concepts through a literature review. This objective was achieved in Chapter 3. The chapter discussed the important components of competitiveness and how destinations can achieve competitiveness. Achieving a competitive position is extremely important for any destination, and even more so for ecotourism destinations such as national parks in South Africa amidst increasing competition.

The third objective was to identify the competitive advantage factors of the case study i.e. the Kruger National Park from a tourist perspective. This was done through the use of an empirical survey at the Kruger National Park. Objective 3 was achieved in Chapters 4 and 5. The research methodology and reasoning supporting it were discussed in Chapter 4. The profile of respondents was discussed in Chapter 5 as well as the results of the factor analysis, *t*-tests, ANOVAs and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). The results indicated that there are statistical significant differences based on the respondents' demographic and behavioural characteristics as well as the motivational factors. This indicates that respondents differ with regard to the factors that are being perceived as important for the Kruger National Park's competitive advantage.

The fourth and final objective was to draw conclusions and make recommendations for the management of national parks based on the results of the study. The aim of this chapter is therefore to present the conclusions and recommendations with regard to a competitiveness model for SANParks as well as to identify aspects for future research.

6.1.1 Personal journey of completing this study

My love for nature was born in KwaZulu-Natal. Early on in life I developed an appreciation for the picturesque landscapes and wildlife of this beautiful part of South Africa, where I grew up playing outside and entertaining myself with all that nature had to offer (sometimes to the distress of my parents). It is this love and appreciation of nature that set me on the path that I am today; I want to do what I can in my line of work to ensure that our country's beautiful, natural environment is safeguarded for future generations. The first step towards reaching this goal is learning to respect nature and teaching those around us to do the same by managing our resources effectively and enjoying what nature has entrusted to us in a responsible way.

As a child, I had the privilege to visit the Kruger National Park several times. These visits soon became boring, especially when no animals were to be seen after hours of seemingly aimless driving around. During these "boring" drives, I started to think about how the Park functions and about what can be done to make it more attractive and interesting for tourists, especially children. I noticed that the rest camps at the Park did not all function in exactly the same way; some functioned more effectively than others.

I started thinking that there must be a way that all of the rest camps at the Kruger National Park can be managed in such a way that all of them are considered top quality.

When I was not on the odd trip to the Kruger National Park, I spent a lot of my time after school and on weekends at my father's work, where I learned a lot about managing a business and its day-to-day operations. I learned that in order to be a successful manager, one needs to be disciplined, well-organised and aware of what is going on within the organisation. The theoretical knowledge that I obtained while at University provided me with the strategies, techniques, skills and abilities necessary to identify and solve problem areas within management.

These experiences are what motivated me to pursue my specific field of study: the management of national parks or protected areas. The moment that I realised that there was a link between the quality of the visitor's experience at the Kruger National Park and management, I found my niche. Apart from teaching me a lot about my specific field of study, my studies also taught me the importance of self-management and that it is a precursor to managing others. I have learned that in order to achieve success one has to be competitive and find ways to improve and increase one's skills. Research has taught me that it is important to communicate often with different people from different walks of life; to take time to get to know a process, structure or to complete an analysis; to take time to listen to people's concerns and find ways to address those concerns in an effective and positive manner; and to take time to investigate the unknown. A vital aspect that I have learned was to have reflection time and identify the areas of my life where I can improve on to become a better person, not for myself but for others as well.

A solid support structure is of the utmost importance and is made up of peers, subordinates, family and friends. Making yourself open for feedback and criticism, be it work-related or personal, will be to your advantage. Taking advice from experienced people is always good and makes you a better scholar and person. The biggest benefit of this study was that I could use the theory of management to improve the way I think about, approach and react to personal and work-related situations. The guidance that I received throughout this study encouraged me to invest in the people I interact with every day.

The aim of this chapter is to propose a competitiveness model for South African National Parks by using the case study's (Kruger National Park's) results to advise on the effective implementation of such a model.

6.2 CONTRIBUTION

From this research the following contributions were made.

6.2.1 Literature contribution

- Firstly the factors of competitive advantage were identified, thereby making a contribution to the literature on nature-based and ecotourism. This was done specifically from a demand side. The competitive advantage factors that have been identified were very specific towards national parks as ecotourism destinations compared to previous research of Ritchie and Crouch (2003) and Dwyer and Kim (2001 & 2003) that specifically focused on a tourism destination competitiveness model in general. Ritchie and Crouch (2003:49) indicate that the sustainability of a destination remains within the specialisation of the competitive destinations' management and development approach.
- Secondly a competitiveness model was developed for application in national parks specifically in South Africa. This study proposes a model (Figure 6.1) that SANParks could use to obtain a competitiveness position within the ecotourism domain. The proposed competitiveness model is structured into four phases (tourist demand; park supply; park management and implementation and evaluation). It is imperative that each phase has to be completed before moving on to the next phase. Following these four phases would ensure that park management determine the needs of tourist that could be satisfied through the identification of competitive advantage factors, that if managed and implemented accordingly, could have a successful competitiveness model that would guide park managers of national parks to increase the competitiveness position of the national park. The proposed model is consequently discussed.

- Thirdly the concept competitiveness in national parks has not been described yet, and thus this study proposes the following: Competitiveness within national parks can be described as *the anticipation of tourist motives and behavioural patterns with regard to park specific products and services satisfying tourists' current needs that will lead to tourist loyalty towards the park. This will enable park management to identify current tourist specific competitive advantage factors that will have the park obtaining a competitiveness position within the nature-based tourism sector. Competitiveness will lead to increased revenue, tourist numbers and an increase in the quality of life for local communities. This would positively impact on the local economy ensuring that the park remains sustainable and profitable for future generations.*

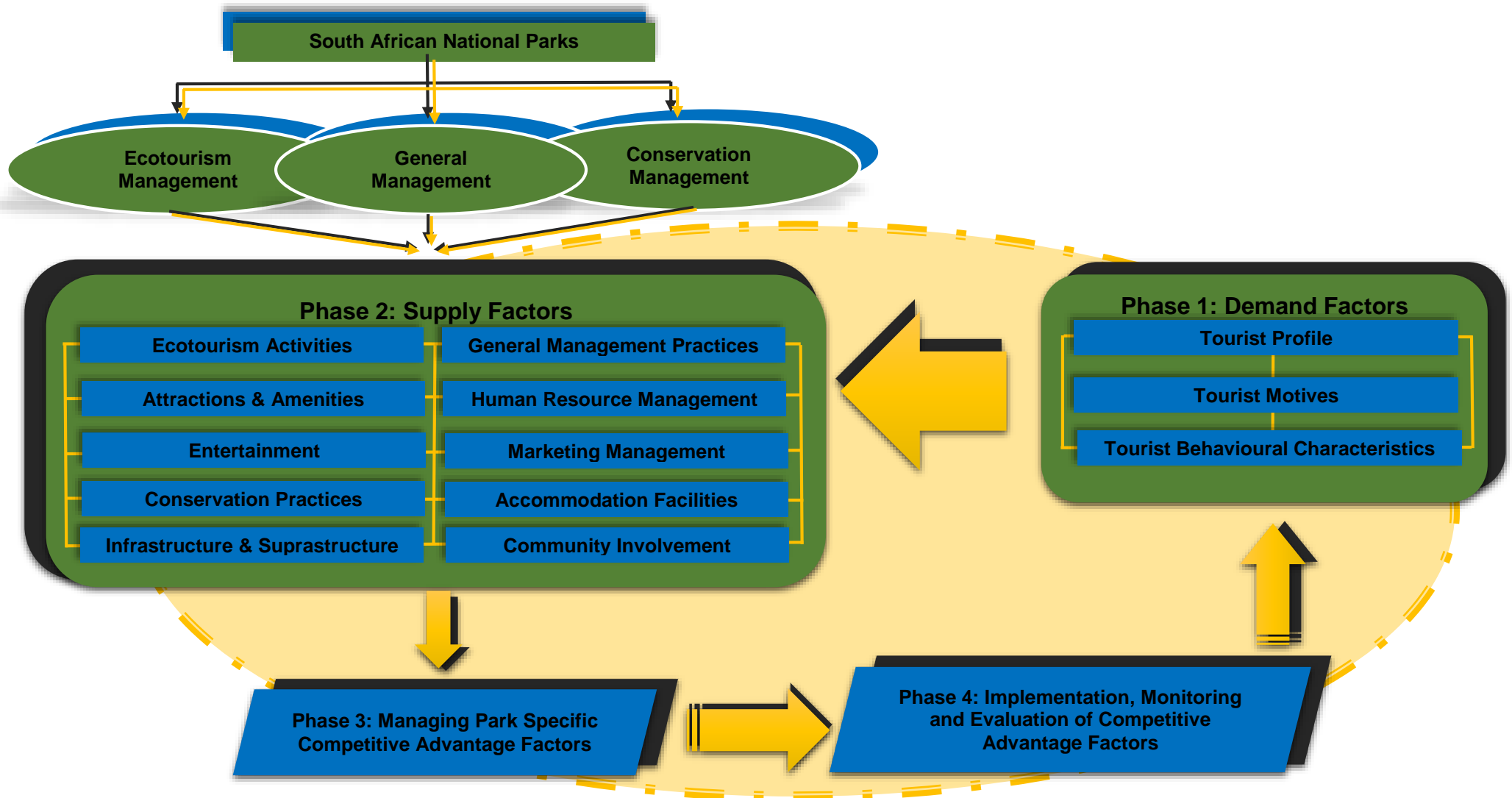


Figure 6.1: Competitiveness model for South African National Parks
 Source: Authors own figure based on available literature and the results

Phase 1: Identifying tourist demand factors

National parks should first identify the specific demand factors of tourists. Due to the increasing changes in tourists' behaviour and motivational characteristics it is crucial that park management take the tourists' needs into account when designing management strategies for the park. For a national park to remain competitive, continuous research on the tourists' profile, behavioural characteristics and motives for travelling should be done. This would enhance the knowledge of park managers with regards to tourists' changing needs. Over time, specific tourist trends could be identified that would also be of great assistance in the identification of competitive advantage factors for a national park. This could assist the national park to determine if there is a need that has not yet been met in terms of the aspects that the park is already supplying. In turn, this will open up the possibility of developing new products and services based on the ecotourism principles. This might also increase the number of tourists to the park if new exciting products and services are on offer that satisfies tourists' needs. After the demands of tourists have been determined the park should look at the aspects that is available in the park to supply the necessary products and services that tourists demand.

Phase 2: Determining the supply factors of South African National Parks

When managing national parks, the natural environment is the priority as one of the key roles of national parks is conservation. Hence, the human interaction and interference with the natural environment is managed around the natural environment. Therefore, Saayman (2009:375) identified the three park management categories (ecotourism-; general- and conservation management) were in an attempt to assist national parks with the focus of managing the park effectively by emphasising the main areas of a national park. Within each of the park management categories there are park specific factors that define the park as a tourism destination. However, it differs from other tourism destinations with respect to the supply of products and services. Typical park specific supply factors would be:

- Ecotourism activities and facilities which offer tourists a variety of activities in which there is interaction between the tourist and the natural and cultural environment with an educational experience taking place.

- Accommodation facilities are a key aspect especially to tourist travelling great distances to visit the park and experience the natural environment. The provision of accommodation at a national park can also be seen as a motivator for tourists travelling to the park.
- National parks have to ensure that the infrastructure and suprastructure in the park are designed to address the needs of tourists visiting the park. Good infrastructure would ensure easy access to and in the park; proper guidance in the park; that the needs of tourists are being satisfied and having tourists leave with a memorable experience.
- An important aspect is the general management of the national park as a tourism destination. General management is ultimately responsible for the governance of the national park as well as to ensure that the park is a sustainable, responsible and profitable tourism destination that will satisfy the needs of tourists that lead to tourist loyalty.
- Human resource management is a key component in the management of a national park. This function will provide the employees with the opportunity to obtain and improve skills, abilities and knowledge on ways in how to interact with tourists and providing quality services through continuous training programmes that focus on the quality of service delivery within the park.
- The mandate of national parks is to protect the natural biodiversity of a region or country. Well-designed conservation practices are a key component that should be managed within a national park and focus should always be on the natural environment. Conservation management should find ways in which the latest technology can be used within national parks to improve conservation efforts.
- National parks should find ways in which tourists can be entertained in the rest camps and park in general. Entertainment has a way of bringing people together and national parks should use this opportunity to educate and inform tourists about conservation in a fun and interactive way.
- National parks play a significant role in the lives of the local community members. In the event of a national park becoming involved with the local community and uplifting activities, would be to the advantage of the park as conservation and protection of natural resources can be implemented.

- Tourists travel to places to see and experience things. National parks should identify park specific attractions and amenities that would interest tourists and lure them in travelling to the park to experience the natural and cultural attractions available.
- The best way to lure tourists to a destination is through exceptional marketing campaigns. Marketing plays an important role in any destination and should therefore be a key priority for park management. The park should use technology to increase awareness about the park as well as promote the wellness that is within visiting a national park.
- Market research is a constant process that should take place within national parks. Through market research national parks would be able to identify the tourist profile, motives and behavioural characteristics which relate back to Phase 1 of SEM. This information could assist national parks in the development of tourist specific activities, entertainment and facilities that are integrated with ecotourism principles. Satisfying the tourist needs could lead to loyalty towards the park and increased visits as well as positive word-of-mouth referrals.

Table 6.1 provides a detailed list of the various aspects that is contained within each of the park specific factors that could be supplied to tourists.

Table 6.1: Supply factors of national parks

Supply component	Aspects within the context of national parks
Ecotourism activities and facilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-drive or guided game drives • Hiking and bush walks • 4x4 • Kayaking, river rafting • Mountaineering • Scuba diving • Cultural tours • Educational and interpretational activities: videos, slideshows and discussions • Information centres with suitable information about the park and activities
Accommodation facilities	<p>Chalets</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provision of cutlery • Provision of linen • Braai facilities and Recycling dustbins at each chalet • Universally accessible • General maintenance of chalets

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Star rating of chalet facilities through Tourism Grading Council of South Africa (TGCSA) and AA grading <p>Camping</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clean ablution facilities and campsites • Electricity points; braai facilities and recycling dustbins at each camp site • General maintenance of campsites • Star rating of camping facilities through TGCSA • Clear marking of each camp site stand
Infrastructure & suprastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpretation centres and educational facilities • Sufficient and quality administration offices • Safe to get out lookout points/ waterholes and bird hides • Maintenance of gravel and tar roads • Cellular and internet access in the park for emergencies • Emergency numbers to phone whilst in the park • Retail Shops (park shops) • Fuel availability • Healthcare facilities • Laundry services • Information centres (maps, guide books, info boards) • Banking facilities • General route directions and information in the park • Picnic facilities • Lights along pathways at night • Restaurants • Conference facilities • Accessibility to and in the park
General management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implementation of park rules and regulations • Managing the concessions in the park (private lodges and tour operators) • Financial management • International relationship management • Sustainable development • Responsible tourism management
Conservation practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wildlife management • Anti-poaching management • Veld fire management • Capturing; relocating and counting of wildlife • Carrying capacity management (wildlife and tourists) • Implementation of green initiatives • Removal of alien plant species • Conservation of the natural and cultural environments • Cleanliness of the park

Entertainment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Swimming facilities and play areas • Colouring books for kids in the car • Technological advanced applications for tablets and smart phones for interactive park specific games and information sessions • Child focused activities such as walks in and around the rest camps, interactive wildlife talks and educational session. • Movies in the afternoons and evenings in the rest camps • Stargazing • Cultural dances • Bring-&-Braai nights in rest camps
Human resource management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skills development • Qualifications of employees • Level of competencies • Employees' knowledge of the park • Friendliness and professionalism
Community involvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural tours • Community entrepreneurship programmes • Community upliftment programmes
Attractions & amenities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Geological sites • Historic sites • Bushmen paintings • Natural landscapes • Climate • Location
Marketing management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Branding of the park • Marketing campaigns for locals and internationals • Promotions • Social media interaction • Public relations management
Market research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourist perceived image of the park • Determining tourist profile • Anticipating tourist behaviour • Identify tourist motives • General marketing activities

Phase 3: Managing the competitive advantage factors

In this phase, the most important factors that could assist the national park in gaining a competitive advantage within the ecotourism domain are identified based on the demand factors of tourists. The tourist demand factors have a significant influence on the supply factors within a national park. Therefore the competitive advantage factors should be identified based on the demand of tourists to the park. These competitive advantage factors would be very specific to the national park in which the model is implemented.

This phase is focused on determining under which park management category (general- ; ecotourism- and conservation management) the specific competitive advantage factors should be managed. Management should find ways in which to improve the specific competitive advantage factors that would increase the level of tourist satisfaction when using the product or service. The competitive advantage factors should be the main focus of management to ensure competitiveness is achieved. Competitiveness can only be achieved if the implementation thereof is done appropriately.

Phase 4: Implementation, monitoring and evaluation

This phase will ensure that the national park's aim of achieving competitiveness is obtained through the implementation of the competitive advantage factors within each park management category. Park management has to take responsibility to ensure that the competitive advantage factors that have been identified are being implemented and managed accordingly so that change can come to pass. Monitoring these competitive advantage factors is important as the tourist demands change over time as the factors are not fixed and possibilities for changes in the competitive advantage factors can occur. Each competitive advantage factor should be evaluated on a regular basis to determine if there are any changes in management implementing the factor as well as the way in which tourists experience the competitive advantage factor. This can be done through continuous research within the park that focuses on the tourist demand factors that influences the supply factors that park management uses to obtain a competitive advantage position.

It is important to note that competitiveness is a continuous process. A short term strategy would be to implement the competitiveness model within a national park and following the phases to reach a competitive advantage. However, these competitive advantage factors should be supported with relevant competitive advantage strategies as management has developed. These strategies would indicate the duration in which park management would have to implement a competitive advantage factor that would increase the visitor experience. The final achievement of such a model in the first round depends on the park and its management structure. However, a three year period is advised to determine whether the competitive advantage strategies identified improved and what impact it had on tourist numbers, bed occupancy, revenues as well as general complaints.

6.2.2 Practical contribution

This research made use of a case study to identify the competitive advantage factors to be included in a competitiveness model for SANParks. The proposed model (Figure 6.1) was practically applied to the Kruger National Park to serve as an example and to recommend strategies to park management in order to achieve competitiveness. Proposed guidelines for implementation were also made to the Kruger National Park to obtain a competitive advantage. These recommendations are discussed in Section 6.3.

6.3 CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions are discussed with regard to the literature reviews and the survey as reported in Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5.

6.3.1 Conclusions from the literature reviews on park management (Chapter 2)

- National parks were established across the globe due to the increasing pressure of urbanisation and globalisation (c.f. 2.1; 2.4; 2.5.1).
- National parks are recognised as nature-based tourism and ecotourism based destinations and it is vital that the use of tourism infrastructure and suprastructure within these parks are sustainable and that conservation of the natural and cultural habitats remains (c.f. 2.1; 2.2).
- Nature-based tourism is a large sector and ecotourism can be seen as one of the pillars of nature-based tourism and national parks forms part of this sector (c.f. 2.2).
- National parks are defined as large prestige natural areas which offer tourists a variety of natural and cultural attributes, products and services which are not found anywhere else, with the main aim of conserving the natural and cultural heritage for future generations (c.f.2.4).
- SANParks is at the forefront of uplifting the local communities that border each of the 22 national parks through an extensive list of various initiatives that educates, provide entrepreneurial opportunities and build relationships with the locals (c.f. 2.4).

- Due to the stiff competition from the public and private sectors locally and internationally, as well as the decreased funding from government, national parks in South Africa is experiencing increased pressure to become more competitive in the nature-based tourism industry and to obtain a competitive advantage (c.f. 1.1; 2.4.1).
- National parks are designed with the main aim of protecting and conserving the natural and cultural environments and the attributes of a specific area (c.f.2.5).
- Ecotourism is well-known for the benefits that it brings to the local communities, conservation support programs and the experience of education and interpretation of the natural and cultural environments and therefore should be managed accordingly (c.f. 2.5.1).
- The successful implementation of the four pillars of ecotourism in a national park might result in the park obtaining a competitive advantage among ecotourism destinations. It is crucial that the national park implement and manage these pillars appropriately to ensure the sustainability of the park (c.f. 2.5.1).
- The first pillar is the most important pillar of ecotourism as conservation is the way in which natural resources are used to improve the quality of life through effective and efficient management (c.f. 2.5.1).
- Sustainability of the natural and cultural environment is vital to the existence of a national park. It is thus important for park management to make use of the zoning areas (c.f. 2.5.1).Community involvement at national parks is extremely important as it influences the whole tourism product and experience. Usually the facilities of the park are based on the local communities' arts and crafts reflecting to the tourists how the locals live in the surroundings (c.f. 2.5.1).
- National parks have to ensure that the natural environment is conserved in a responsible manner and the protection of the natural and cultural environment is placed first (c.f. 2.5.1).
- A very important aspect that park management need to understand is that the satisfaction levels of the park personnel will influence the satisfaction levels of the tourist, which will determine whether the park has a competitive advantage (c.f. 2.5.1).

- The satisfaction level of the tourist is mostly linked to the general management of the park that covers aspects such as human resources management and marketing management (c.f. 2.5.1)
- Competition among tourism destinations are increasing with each and every destination providing improved services and products. However, these improved services and products should still be managed in a sustainable manner that is offering the tourist a memorable experience and creating a competitive advantage for the destination (c.f. 2.5.2).
- If the three park management categories, namely ecotourism-, conservation-, and general management are integrated, well-structured and have the right quantity of resources available, a national park can grow to be competitive (c.f. 2.5.2).
- The continuous update of tourist information at national parks would assist park management in its understanding of the tourist profile, the tourists motivations for travelling and behavioural characteristics that influences them to travel. All these could be to the advantage of the park to develop into a competitive position (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Products and services that are on offer to tourists at national parks should not only be superior but should also not be matched by its competitors at all. In such a way, national parks will have the ultimate competitive advantage needed to retain the tourist market. (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Management processes involve planning and often success is only seen in the long term. Sometimes planning may be expensive and external environments can distract management from its goals and objectives and thus in the long run, limit success (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Once the primary function of management have been identified and determined, the various departments within a division should be investigated and ways should be found on how these departments can assist in a destination such as national parks, to obtain a competitive advantage (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Marketing plays a crucial role in any destination to achieve competitiveness. If the market research is not done accurately a destination such as a national park may fail in reaching the correct target market that is in need of the specific products and services identified (c.f. 2.5.2).

- If the national parks' marketing is effective and efficient it may lead to sustainability, profitability and future growth as well as an increase of tourist numbers to the park (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Marketing management is a continuous process that never stops and with the identification, development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of marketing goals for the organisation on a continuous basis that will ensure good returns on time and money spent in attracting the tourists (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Successful management is based on the primary functions of management which are leading, organising, planning and control. It is therefore important that the marketing department of national parks thinks strategically and for the long-term in order to become sustainable competitive national parks (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Therefore investing in the right target markets should show a return on investment (ROI) that will assist in the park obtaining a competitive advantage as well as increases in the revenue generated through tourism (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Ecotourism destinations such as national parks are dependent on the generation of their own funds of which the majority are generated through tourism (c.f. 2.5.2).
- It is therefore an important aspect that the right people are recruited and employed within the various functions of a national park, so that the park can maintain its competitive advantage through human resources (c.f. 2.5.2).
- One of the main factors that distinguish competitors from one another is the way that the organisations' (including national parks') management team influences, manages and treats employees (c.f. 2.5.2).
- The way in which the individuals uses their skills, knowledge and abilities together with the individuals behaviour will ultimately determine the level of service quality delivery that will add on to the parks' competitive advantage (c.f. 2.5.2).
- The conservation management of a park has a huge responsibility ensuring that aspects such as wildlife management, wildlife population, environmental management, water management, waste and removal management, green management or recycling and visitor management are in place to conserve and protect the park to be sustainable (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Conservation management has to take into account that tourists are needed to generate revenue for conservation to be sustainable. Therefore ecotourism management and conservation management are vital to the success of national parks' survival and competitiveness (c.f. 2.5.2).

6.3.2 Conclusions from the literature reviews on competitiveness (Chapter 3)

- All tourism destinations have different types of competitive advantage factors at different times and therefore the continuous improvement and adding additional advantage factors are extremely important (c.f. 3.1).
- The only way that organisations could possibly survive in such unstable and complex industries is to depend on the competitiveness of the organisation and identification of competitive advantages (c.f. 3.1).
- Achieving a competitive advantage within the tourism industry is both unique and quite difficult, taking into account the large numbers of tourist travelling across the globe to various tourism destinations (c.f. 3.1).
- National parks can achieve a competitive advantage through the use of tourism as it will increase the economic development within the park and surroundings, increase income and employment of local community members, provide funding to the infrastructure of a national park and the most important aspect, provide funding for conservation purposes (c.f. 3.1).
- Competitiveness can only be obtained once the competitive advantage factors have been identified that can be managed in order to achieve a competitive market position within a specific sector or industry (c.f. 3.2.1).
- Key areas that destinations should focus on to achieve competitiveness are the increase in consumers' expenditure; identifying the right target market; develop and design specific products and services that will satisfy the needs of target markets; increase the living standard of the local community; and the use of resources in a responsible manner (c.f. 3.2.1).
- National parks, unlike any other organisation and business, have to develop competitive strategies which can be used to achieve a competitive advantage among competitors in the same industry (c.f. 3.2.2).
- Competitive advantage is integrated with comparative advantages and national parks should take both these aspects into consideration when working towards obtaining competitiveness (c.f. 3.2.2).
- For a national park to achieve a competitive advantage, the park should ensure the conservation of the natural and cultural environment through the implementation of skilled and experienced human resources that would protect and manage the natural resources in a responsible way (c.f. 3.2.2).

- Park management should understand the difference between comparative and competitiveness factors. However, knowing that the comparative factors lead to the destination obtaining a competitive advantage (c.f. 3.2.3).
- Competitive advantage factors would be aspects such as quality service delivery at restaurants, cleaning of accommodation and rest camp facilities, quality service delivery at reception, exceptional tourist management plans and policies, quality built chalets and clean camping sites, continuous maintenance on infra- and suprastructure and promotion of educational activities. The focus of these activities should also be on children at the various historical and natural conservation sites within the park to increase tourist awareness of the importance of conservation (c.f. 3.2.3).
- With the ever-changing tourism environment, tourist behaviour and motivations, and tourists' needs and expectations, it is important that national parks consider the implementation of competitive strategies that will ensure that a competitive advantage is obtained and maintained (c.f. 3.2.3).
- An effective competitiveness model can be developed out of the competitive and comparative advantage factors of a destination (c.f. 3.2.3).
- Competitive advantage can be regarded as an organisations capability to specialise in or with specific products or services that is supported and designed through the use of special characteristics in order to achieve the desired objectives of the organisation (c.f. 3.3).
- Through the achievement of competitive advantage, one of the factors that aids to maintaining the position is profitability of the destination or attraction over the long term (c.f. 3.3).
- There are five major forces that tourism destinations such as national parks can use to its advantage in order to become or obtain a competitive advantage (c.f. 3.3).
- Due to tourism being more of an intangible than tangible product, the quality of service delivery plays an important role. However, these the five forces model should support the managerial activities (c.f. 3.3).
- Porter's five forces model was initially developed to determine the profitability of industries. It has changed in that organisations used the model as a tool to analyse the environment and determine potential competition within respective industries (c.f. 3.3.1).

- National parks have to use these five forces (when applicable) to determine how the competitors and tourists will react to the products and services that the park wants to implement in future (c.f. 3.3.1.1).
- Remaining competitive is a challenge for any national park, as there is a substantial increase each year on new entrants in the various tourism sectors (c.f. 3.3.1.1).
- The tourism destinations have to be supplied with vital aspects or components in order to generate and produce the specific product or service the tourists demand.
- If suppliers are not able to deliver according to destinations such as national parks' expectations, the opportunity of substituted suppliers may be considered (c.f. 3.3.1.3).
- Destinations have to identify the possible substitutes and the prices of products and services. Before entering the market the destinations should have implemented products and services at similar prices to that of competitors (c.f. 3.3.1.4).
- The threat of new entrants and rivalry acts among organisations are normal and competition for value, price and attractiveness will remain (c.f. 3.3.1.5).
- Three main generic strategies for organisations influence price, namely cost leadership, differentiation and focus (c.f. 3.3.1.5).
- A tourism destination is defined as a geographical area in which tourists participate in various tourism-related activities leading to an experience (c.f. 3.3.2.1).
- Tourism destinations such as national parks are dependent on the three dimensions of tourism in order to be successful which are environmental, economic and socio-cultural dimensions (c.f. 3.3.2.1).
- National parks have to integrate and develop products and services that are unique to its local culture and environment, and that will keep tourists returning to the destination because of its attractiveness indicating a competitive advantage (c.f. 3.3.2.1).
- Competitive destinations have the ability to combine and manage the tourist resources in an effective and sustainable way leading towards a competitive advantage. It is thus important that responsible management is implemented within a unique destination such as a national park (c.f. 3.3.2.1).

- National parks' management have to determine the needs and expectations of tourists visiting the park; conduct surveys capturing the profile of tourists, determine tourists' behaviour, motivations and expectations when visiting the park and identify those competitive advantage factors that keep tourists returning to the park year on year and improve those factors (c.f. 3.3.2.1).
- Destinations that are constantly changing its products and services to adapt to the needs and expectations of tourists are classified as sustainable competitive destinations (c.f. 3.3.2.1).
- Park management should also consider the development and training of human resources, increase marketing and promotional materials to the relevant tourist markets travelling to the various national parks, maintain a healthy organisational culture and ethos at all times, ensure that there is business integration between the suppliers as well as the various departments within the park that will ensure sufficient high quality product and service delivery to tourists and finally have sufficient information services available to employees and tourists at all given times (c.f. 3.3.2.1).
- Before a competitive model can be developed for a nature-based tourism destination such as a national park, the various frameworks and models of competitiveness within the tourism industry have to be investigated (c.f. 3.3.2.1).
- There are five main components of a tourism competitiveness model which are all depended on each other (c.f. 3.3.3).
- It is important that destinations like national parks ensure that the various qualities and attributes of a destination, with specific reference to infrastructure, are effective. These qualifying and amplifying determinants may have an impact on the demand and potential of tourism in the destination. However, the tourism sector cannot influence or control these determinants (c.f. 3.3.3.1).
- Creation of an environment that delivers maximum benefits to all stakeholders whilst minimising the negative impact that tourism might have on the region is placed within the public or governmental sector. Park management should take on public-private partnerships that ensure conservation policies are developed and implemented suitably (c.f. 3.3.3.2).
- Destinations can achieve a competitive advantage through the offering of quality products and services that would satisfy the needs and expectations of tourists (c.f. 3.3.3.3).

- National park management should adopt the characteristics of entrepreneurs being creative, innovative, committed and strong in the delivering of high quality tourist products and services within the borders a national park (c.f. 3.3.3.3).
- Natural and cultural resources at national parks should be managed in a sustainable way in order to identify competitive advantage factors and apply resources to maintain these advantages (c.f. 3.3.3.4).
- An important component of destination management is that national parks should always consider promotion, regulation, presentation, planning, monitoring, maintenance, coordination, strengthening and organising as a means to manage the core resources effectively (c.f. 3.3.3.4).
- Tourism destinations are dependent on the supporting factors in order to be sustainable and therefore the conservation management section takes responsibility to ensure that the supporting factors are all sustainable and damage to the environment are minimal (c.f. 3.3.3.5).
- It is therefore crucial that park management ensures the necessary facilities and equipment are available for tourists. National park management should be committed to the improvement and maintenance of infrastructure and facilities in and around a national park (c.f. 3.3.3.5).
- Elements such as managing the key attractions, addressing the non-negotiable, providing the enablers, capitalising on the value-adders, appropriate facilitators and enhancing the experience are important in the management of the supporting infrastructure (c.f. 3.3.3.5).
- Obtaining a competitive advantage is therefore a huge task as a destination, such as national parks would have to first of all identify and evaluate its products and services to determine which of these tourists regard as distinct for a competitive advantage (c.f. 3.4).
- Competitive advantage may differ from national parks due to park specific attributes and the target markets that are identified as the most viable to target (c.f. 3.4).
- However it remains the responsibility of park management to determine which competitive advantage factors will be implemented and used to achieve the main aim of the park's competitiveness strategy (c.f. 3.4).

- Competitive advantage is obtained through management identifying specific factors within the destination that are important for the consumer in having a memorable experience and satisfying tourists' specific needs (c.f. 3.5).

6.3.3 Conclusions with regard to the empirical study (Chapters 4 & 5)

Chapter 5 analysed and discussed the research results obtained from the survey conducted through the case study. Various statistical analyses supplied significant findings with regard to the tourists profile, tourists' behavioural characteristics as well as motives to travel to the park and especially in terms of the factors respondents regard as important for a competitive advantage.

6.3.3.1 Profile of the respondents

Table 6.2 provides a summary of the tourists to the Kruger National Park and the tourists specific demographic details.

Table 6.2: Profile of overnight visitors to the Kruger National Park (December 2013/January2014)

Category	Overnight visitors summer 2013/2014
Gender	Male (58%) and Female (42%)
Home language	Afrikaans (44%) and English (40%)
Age	45 – 59 years of age (35%) Average age (42.5 and 51 years)
Marital status	Married (69%)
Province of residence	Gauteng (48%)
Level of education	Diploma/Degree (41%)
Number of people paid for	2 persons (45%)
Mode of transport	4x4 (32%)
Number of visits to a national park over the last three years	Average of 4.6 times
Length of stay	Average of 7 nights
Reasons for visiting the Kruger National Park	Experience, Relaxation, Lifestyle, All-Inclusive Destination and Value
Expenditure	R 10 697.69
Wildcard owner	Yes (74%)

Respondents visiting the Kruger National Park during the survey period were equally represented based on gender and language spoken. However the majority of respondents to the Kruger National Park remain Afrikaans speaking; between the ages

of 45 to 59 years and married. These respondents also reside in the province of Gauteng and obtained a diploma/degree level qualification paying for two persons when visiting the park. The mode of transport used were mostly 4x4 and the visits to the park are on average 4.6 times within a three year cycle and staying on average seven nights within the Park's various rest camps. The main reasons for visiting were to escape and relax as well as spending time with family as this adds value to their lives. The average spending is estimated at R 10 697.69 per visit to the Park and these tourists are also Wildcard members. Recent research of Kruger and Saayman (2014:6) and Kruger, Saayman and Hermann (2014:4) on national parks in South Africa supports this profile.

6.3.3.2 Results from the factor analyses

The factor analysis identified four motivational factors namely *All-Inclusive Destination; Experience and Relaxation; Loyalty* and *Value* (see Table 6.3). *Experience and Relaxation* (4.39) was regarded as the most important motivational factor followed by the factor *Lifestyle* (4.09). The factor *All-Inclusive Destination* (3.93) was rated as the third most important motivational factor and *Value* (3.81) as the fourth most important aspect. Both factor analyses are important in the design of a competitiveness model for a destination such as the Kruger National Park.

Table 6.3: Results from the factor analyses

Competitive advantage factors	Motivational factors
• Accommodation and retail	• All-inclusive destination
• Wildlife experiences	• Experience and relaxation
• Suprastructure and amenities	• Lifestyle
• Marketing and branding	• Value
• Visitor management	

The competitive advantage factors as indicated in Table 6.3 that were identified are distinct to the Kruger National Park and could be easily implemented to assist park management in growing the Kruger National Park to a competitive national park. These factors have not yet been identified with specific reference to national parks and could therefore be seen as a contribution to the body of knowledge. The competitive advantage factor, *Wildlife Experiences* (4.29) was considered to be the most important competitive advantage factor for the Kruger National Park, followed by *Marketing and Branding* (4.18) which is two important aspects to consider when managing a national park and aiming at

becoming a competitive tourism destination. *Accommodation and Retail* (4.05) was rated as being the third most important competitive advantage factor and links up with the fourth highest competitive advantage factor *Suprastructure and Amenities* (3.79) that caters for the secondary aspects of tourism and the reason for tourists travelling to a national park. *Visitor Management* (3.76) was regarded as being the fifth highest competitive advantage factor. All of these factors had high mean values indicating that respondents regarded all five factors as important for a competitive advantage.

6.3.3.3 Results of the ANOVAs and *t*-tests

ANOVAs and *t*-test analyses were used to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences between the respondents in terms of socio-demographic and behavioural characteristics and the ratings of the motivational and competitive advantage factors.

The ANOVAs analyses revealed the following significant differences.

- In terms of the competitive advantage factor, *Wildlife Experiences*, Afrikaans- and English-speaking respondents regarded the wildlife in the park as a more important factor than respondents speaking other languages. It can be argued that South Africans feel that the wildlife is part of their heritage and therefore the experience a close connection with the animals. The Kruger National Park can use this as a competitive advantage in that the Park brings you closer to exceptional live wildlife interactions. There were furthermore significant differences between domestic and international tourists regarding the factor *Wildlife Experiences*. Respondents from the provinces of KwaZulu-Natal and North-West clearly indicated that *Wildlife Experiences* are more important for a competitive advantage than respondents from other South African Provinces and other international countries. This is quite a significant finding as one would expect the international tourists to consider this as a more important factor.
- The competitive advantage factor *Suprastructure and Amenities* was regarded by the Afrikaans-speaking respondents as much more important than by the respondents that either spoke English or another language. The importance of a competitive ecotourism destination such as a national park is that proper infra- and suprastructure support has to be available. However, it should be to the extent that the natural and cultural environment is not negatively affected and that tourists basic needs are satisfied. Furthermore, the level of tourists' education also had a

significant difference in the way that the competitive advantage factor *Suprastructure and Amenities* was perceived. Respondents that either had a matric or higher qualification indicated that the *Suprastructure and Amenities* within the park are of a less important factor for a competitive advantage than those respondents with a National Vocational Certificate. This could be that respondents with higher qualifications feel that luxuries within a national park are not that important when choosing to travel to a national park such as the Kruger. It might be argued that tourists with a higher qualification are more open towards additional learning experiences about nature and understand the concept of less is more within an ecotourism destination. This might also be linked to the motive of *Experience and Relaxation* in which tourists escape the normal work environment to relax and recharge away from all the advanced aspects of life.

- There was a significant statistical difference between the Western Cape and international visitors as well as other domestic markets with regards to the *Accommodation and Retail* factor. The international visitors and those from the Western Cape regarded the *Accommodation and Retail* factor as much more important than the visitors from the other provinces. It could be argued that the reasoning for the other eight provinces to regard *Accommodation and Retail* as a less important factor would be because the main motivation for travelling to the park is to experience the wildlife, escape from normal routine and relax.
- Respondents that have obtained a diploma/degree, post-graduate or professional qualification indicated that the *Marketing and Branding* of the Kruger National Park is not that important compared to respondents not having that type of qualification. It could be argued that visitors' experience at the Kruger National Park is determined by the level of education. In this case the majority of respondents indicated that the factor *Marketing and Branding* is not that being regarded as that important, however prior knowledge of the Park might play a significant role in the rating of this factor.

With regard to the motivational factors, the following differences were found in the ANOVAs in terms of the respondents' socio-demographic characteristics.

- Once again the Afrikaans- and English-speaking respondents indicated that *Experience and Relaxation* as motivation is more important than that of respondents speaking other languages. Therefore, Park management should adapt the marketing promotions and distribute it in Afrikaans and English as these are the two main languages of tourists visiting the Kruger National Park.
- The Afrikaans-speaking respondents indicated that a visit to the Kruger National Park as part of their *Lifestyle* and regarded this factor more important than respondents with other languages as mother tongue. These respondents indicated that the decision to travel to the Kruger National Park was influenced by family and friends. However, the same factor *Lifestyle* was rated much higher by respondents whom initiated the visit to the Park themselves, their spouses or through family and friends. The majority of the domestic markets indicated that travelling to the Kruger National Park is part of their *Lifestyle* and therefore values it much higher than the international markets. *Lifestyle* once again was rated as very important by respondents with a National Vocational Certificate compared to those respondents with a higher level qualification.
- Divorced respondents were motivated more by *All-Inclusive Destination* than those respondents that were either living together or single. This can be cleared in that divorced people might have children and it is always best to go to a destination where you can have access to various components to keep the kids entertained.
- Respondents that have indicated a higher level of education rated the motive *All-Inclusive Destination* as a less important motive to travel to the Park. However, respondents with another qualification such as a National Vocational Certificate regarded this motive as very important in the decision making on travelling to the Park.

The *t*-test analyses revealed the following significant differences.

- In terms of the motivational factor, *All-Inclusive Destination*, a statistical significant difference was identified between respondents that travel with children to the Park and those who do not. This finding is not surprising at all, and national parks should use this motive of tourist to increase the park to a more family orientated destination, as this might also increase tourist numbers to the park.
- Respondents that are in the possession of a Wildcard rated the competitive advantage factor *Wildlife Experiences* much higher than the respondents that were not Wildcard holders. Furthermore, the motivational factors *All-inclusive Destination*; *Experience and Relaxation* and *Lifestyle* indicated that there is a statistically significant difference between Wildcard holders and non-holders. It could be argued that due to the benefits of having a Wildcard, significant value is added to the *Wildlife Experiences* that tourists can be exposed to when visiting national parks and therefore motivates tourists to travel to national parks.
- In terms of the motivational factors *Experience and Relaxation* and *All-Inclusive Destination*, a significant difference was obtained between respondents that read magazines and those that did not. It could be argued that respondents having a need to expand their knowledge on nature and national parks would read more and due to the majority of holiday and wildlife magazines available, it may influence the decision making on whether to travel to the Park.
- Respondents making use of SANParks information rated the competitive advantage factor *Marketing and Branding* as less important than those respondents that did not make use of SANParks information. It could therefore be argued that the Kruger National Park should use *Marketing and Branding* as a competitive advantage factor and increase the marketing to tourist markets as tourists consider it an important factor. This confirms the importance of marketing for a national park.
- In terms of the competitive advantage factors, *Marketing and Branding* as well as *Visitor Management*, respondents that have not previously visited the Kruger National Park regarded these factors as more important than those respondents that have visited the Park more than once. Therefore, it could be argued that the repeat respondents are aware of the Kruger National Park's *Marketing and Branding* as well as *Visitor Management* factors knowing what to expect and

experience as oppose to first time travellers. The Kruger National Park should use the *Marketing and Branding* to attract new tourist markets and inform them about the Park's attributes. This adds to the previous analysis indicating that marketing remains an important component for national parks. Furthermore, the Kruger National Park should add more value to *Visitor Management* programmes as the first time visitors might find it quite useful in their overall experience.

- Respondents that were part of some conservation organisation indicated that the competitive advantage *Wildlife Experiences* is of much more importance than those that did not take part in any conservation organisations efforts. This is quite an expected result as conservation links closely with wildlife. Furthermore, respondents that are part of a conservation organisation regarded the motivational factor *Experience and Relaxation* more important as compared to those who are not part of a conservation organisation.
- In terms of the competitive advantage, *Visitor Management*, respondents that stayed over in chalets regarded it much more important than respondents that used the camping facilities. It could be argued that respondents making use of chalets have to rely on *Visitor Management* in the event of problems occurring in and/or at the chalet. Whereas the campers have to manage any problems with the tents or caravans themselves. Furthermore, respondents that made use of the camping facilities regarded the motivational factor, *Lifestyle*, as much more important than the respondents staying in the chalets. This finding is obvious as camping is often referred to as being a *Lifestyle*. Kruger National Park should therefore use this motivational factor promoting that visiting a national park and camping in a national park is a *Lifestyle*.

A Structural Equation Model (SEM) was done to support the initial findings of the factor analyses, ANOVAs, *t*-tests and correlations between the competitive and motivational factors. The initial hypotheses suggested that all competitive advantage factors would have a direct relationship with the motivational factors.

- Table 6.4 clearly indicates that there are a number of positive relationships between the designed Hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 (H1) confirmed that there is a positive significant level of 5% between the factors *All-Inclusive Destination* and *Suprastructures*.

- Hypotheses 16; 18; 19 and 20 were all rejected as it was found that *Lifestyle* has a suppressor effect on the other factors and therefore does not have any influence on the competitiveness of the Kruger National Park.
- *All-Inclusive Destination* had a direct positive relationship with the other competitive advantage factors *Accommodation and Retail (H1)*; *Wildlife Experiences (H2)*; *Marketing and Branding (H3)*; and *Visitor Management (H5)*.
- The motivational factor *Experience Relaxation* and competitive advantage factor *Wildlife Experiences* had a direct positive relationship with each other. The Kruger National Park should therefore use these two factors in the marketing and branding of the Park, as the wildlife scenery relates to relaxation and escaping the normal routine of life. This is a key aspect for the Park as these two were also the most highly rated factors with a significant relationship with each other. Added to the direct positive relationship that *Experience Relaxation* has with *Wildlife Experiences* the motive *Value* also indicated a significant relationship with *Wildlife Experiences*. This suggests that the relationship between the *Wildlife Experiences* and the factor *Value* is quite significant as tourists might measure the motive *Value* against the *Wildlife Experiences* during a visit to the Park. The *Lifestyle* factor also indicated that there is a direct relationship with the *Wildlife Experiences* of tourists to the Park.
- The motivational factor *Experience Relaxation* confirmed that its direct relationship with *Accommodation and Retail*; *Marketing and Branding*; *Suprastructure and Amenities*; and *Visitor Management* is not supported at a 10% level of statistical significance.
- The Hypotheses, H11; H13; H14 and H 15 confirmed that there is a direct relationship with the motivational factor, *Value*. Although these hypotheses were not within the range of the levels of statistical significance, it remains vital that management adds additional *Value* to the *Accommodation and Retail* components in the Park. Furthermore increased *Value* could be added to the *Marketing and Branding* of the Kruger National Park as a competitive tourism destination. The Park should extend the *Value* factor to aspects such as the *Suprastructures and Amenities* within the Park as this will enhance the visitor's experience. A vital point where *Value* should always be added is in the *Visitor Management* of the Park, as this might allow tourists to feel more valued and set of a loyalty relationship between the Park and the tourists.

Table 6.4: Summary of the hypotheses tested in the SEM analysis

Hypotheses supported at a 5% level of significance	
H4	There is a direct relationship between <i>All-inclusive Destination (Motive Factor 1)</i> and <i>Suprastructure and Amenities (Competitive advantage Factor 4)</i> .
Hypotheses rejected at a 5% statistical significance level	
H16	There is a direct relationship between <i>Lifestyle (Motive Factor 4)</i> and <i>Accommodation and Retail (Competitive advantage Factor 1)</i> .
H18	There is a direct relationship between <i>Lifestyle (Motive Factor 4)</i> and <i>Marketing and Branding (Competitive advantage Factor 3)</i> .
H19	There is a direct relationship between <i>Lifestyle (Motive Factor 4)</i> and <i>Suprastructure and Amenities (Competitive advantage Factor 4)</i> .
H20	There is a direct relationship between <i>Lifestyle (Motive Factor 4)</i> and <i>Visitor Management (Competitive advantage Factor 5)</i> .
Hypotheses supported at a 10% level of significance	
H1	There is a direct relationship between <i>All-inclusive Destination (Motive Factor 1)</i> and <i>Accommodation and Retail (Competitive advantage Factor 1)</i> .
H2	There is a direct relationship between <i>All-inclusive Destination (Motive Factor 1)</i> and <i>Wildlife Experiences (Competitive advantage Factor 2)</i> .
H3	There is a direct relationship between <i>All-inclusive Destination (Motive Factor 1)</i> and <i>Marketing and Branding (Competitive advantage Factor 3)</i> .
H5	There is a direct relationship between <i>All-inclusive Destination (Motive Factor 1)</i> and <i>Visitor Management (Competitive advantage Factor 5)</i> .
H7	There is a direct relationship between <i>Experience and Relaxation (Motive Factor 2)</i> and <i>Wildlife Experiences (Competitive advantage Factor 2)</i> .
H12	There is a direct relationship between <i>Value (Motive Factor 3)</i> and <i>Wildlife Experiences (Competitive advantage Factor 2)</i> .
H17	There is a direct relationship between <i>Lifestyle (Motive Factor 4)</i> and <i>Wildlife Experiences (Competitive advantage Factor 2)</i> .
Hypotheses not supported at a 10% statistical significant level	
H6	There is a direct relationship between <i>Experience and Relaxation (Motive Factor 2)</i> and <i>Accommodation and Retail (Competitive advantage Factor 1)</i> .
H8	There is a direct relationship between <i>Experience and Relaxation (Motive Factor 2)</i> and <i>Marketing and Branding (Competitive advantage Factor 3)</i> .

H9	There is a direct relationship between <i>Experience and Relaxation (Motive Factor 2)</i> and <i>Suprastructure and Amenities (Competitive advantage Factor 4)</i> .
H10	There is a direct relationship between <i>Experience and Relaxation (Motive Factor 2)</i> and <i>Visitor Management (Competitive advantage Factor 5)</i> .
Hypotheses not rejected at a statistical significant level	
H11	There is a direct relationship between <i>Value (Motive Factor 3)</i> and <i>Accommodation and Retail (Competitive advantage Factor 1)</i> .
H13	There is a direct relationship between <i>Value (Motive Factor 3)</i> and <i>Marketing and Branding (Competitive advantage Factor 3)</i> .
H14	There is a direct relationship between <i>Value (Motive Factor 3)</i> and <i>Suprastructure and Amenities (Competitive advantage Factor 4)</i> .
H15	There is a direct relationship between <i>Value (Motive Factor 3)</i> and <i>Visitor Management (Competitive advantage Factor 5)</i> .

The management of the Kruger National Park should therefore consider each of the hypotheses indicated in Table 6.4. However, the hypotheses that were related to the motivational factor *Lifestyle* should be regarded as less important. The hypotheses indicated that *Lifestyle* did not have a significant influence on the other motivational and competitive advantage factors.

Recommendations based on the results are discussed in more detail in the next section.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPLEMENTING THE COMPETITIVENESS MODEL IN THE KRUGER NATIONAL PARK

Based on the conclusions discussed above and the results of the empirical survey, the proposed competitiveness model for national parks (Figure 6.1) can be implemented in the Kruger National Park and recommendations can be made with specific reference to the Park's management structure. The recommendations can be placed under the three categories of park management and should be managed in that order to achieve the success of becoming a competitive ecotourism destination. The following recommendations are made based on the findings obtained from the case study and serves as an example of how the proposed model can be implemented in a South African national park context.

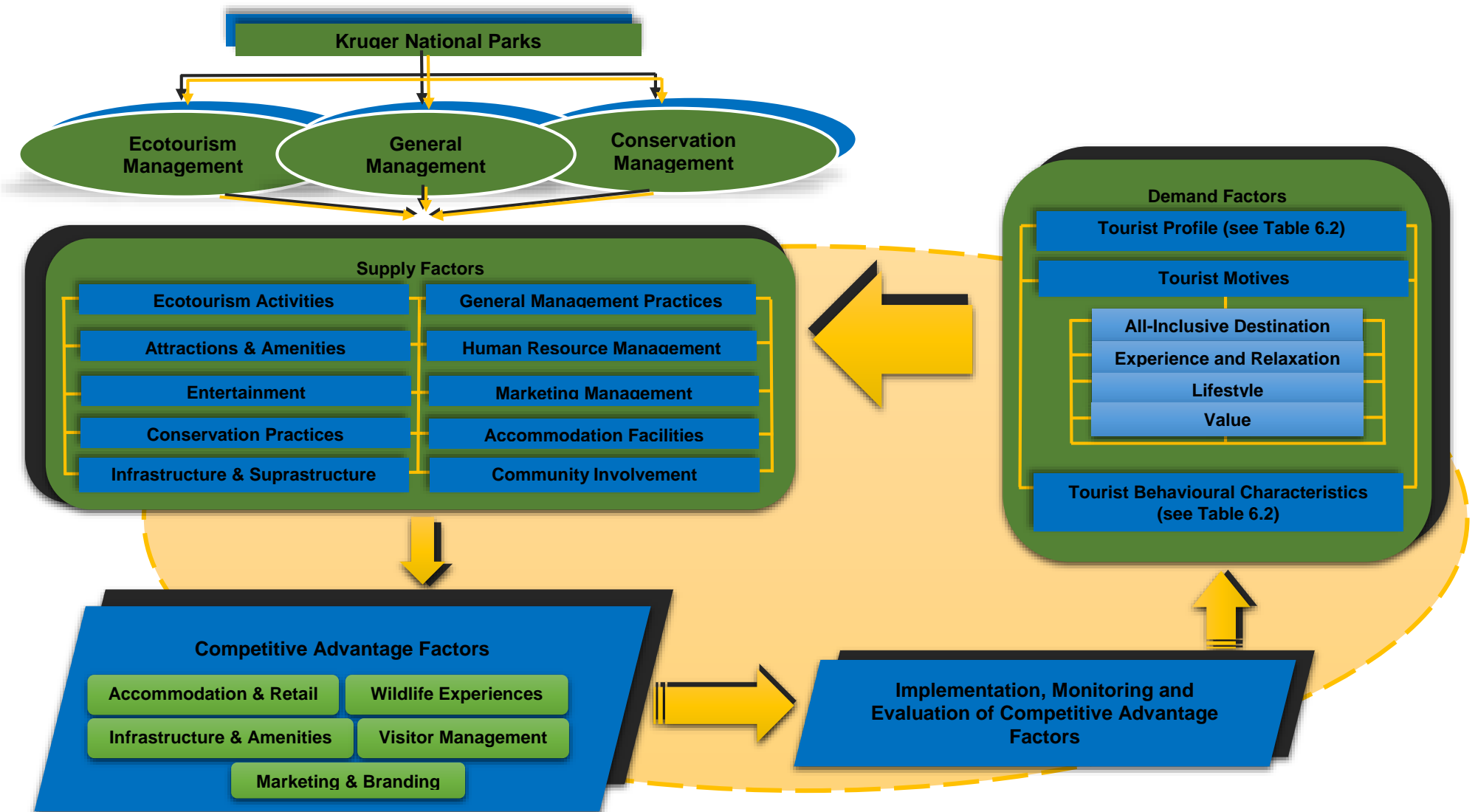


Figure 6.2: Applying the competitiveness model to the Kruger National Park
 Source: Authors own figure based on literature and the results

Each of the phases as indicated in Figure 6.2 will consequently be discussed and applied specifically to the Kruger National Park.

Phase 1: Identifying tourist demand factors

The first phase identified the tourists to the Kruger National Park's profile, motives for travelling and behavioural characteristics. Although it seems as if the tourist profile to the Kruger National Park are homogeneous (see Table 6.2), based on the results from the statistical analyses of the ANOVAs and *t*-test it is clear that the tourists to the Kruger National Park are heterogeneous in terms of the motives and especially in terms of the factors these visitors regard as important for the Park's competitive advantage. Results further confirmed the above and indicated that tourists differ from opinion on the competitive advantage factors and motivational factors in terms of language, level of education, province of residence and marital status. In the case of the Kruger National Park, *All-Inclusive Destination*, *Experience Relaxation*, *Value* and *Lifestyle* were the most important motivational factors for tourists travelling to the Park. It was furthermore identified that the following tourist motives play a role in the identification of competitive advantage factors for the Kruger National Park.

- *All-Inclusive Destination* was identified for the first time as a motivation for tourists to travel to the Kruger National Park. This factor should be used in conjunction with the competitive advantage factor *Marketing and Branding* to emphasise the benefits of an *All-Inclusive Destination*.
 - The Kruger National Park as an all-inclusive ecotourism destination might experience an increase in the number of families that travel with children to the Park, if the Park is managed and marketed as an all-inclusive family destination. Park management should therefore adapt marketing strategies to include and reflect children and family activities in the Park. Emphasis should be placed on the added value that the Park offers to families with children as well as children related activities inside and outside of the rest camps. To enhance this motive, the Kruger National Park has to provide the following at the rest camps:

- Children play areas, educational activities within the rest camps and interpretational centres should be developed and implemented.
 - Colouring books about the Kruger National Park with fun facts, pictures and games could keep children busy while going on game-drives in the Park.
 - Offer family groups, travelling without children, other activities such as photography, hiking and cultural interactions that would increase the visitor experience and wildlife interaction for tourists.
- An all-inclusive destination furthermore requires relevant supporting infrastructure available for tourists. Park management should therefore ensure that sufficient supply of necessary day-to-day essentials are available in the Park shops within each rest camps for example sufficient supply of fuel for tourist vehicles; general maintenance of rest camp facilities such as swimming pools and look-out points and day-visitor facilities to be up to standard. This can be done through maintenance managers doing regular quality check-ups at the rest camps.
- *Experience Relaxation* confirms the findings from previous research that tourists travel to national parks across the globe mostly because tourists want to escape the normal routine and relax enjoying the natural tranquillity that the park has to offer. Based on this finding, the following recommendations are made:
 - The Kruger National Park management could consider more secluded rest camps that will increase the number tourists that seek this experience. The implementation of stricter rules on noise levels at rest camps, play areas and bird hides could also enhance this experience. This could be marketed as an ideal break-away destination for families with children and those without.
 - The Kruger National Park can promote the various look-out points, bird hides and waterholes where tourists can experience the tranquillity of nature and wildlife interactions.

- The Park could also increase the promotion of the picnic sites available to overnight- and day-visitors where the tourists can escape to and relax with family and friends for the day. This might assist the Kruger National Park in increasing the number of day visitors to the Park.
- The Kruger National Park should determine the seasons with low occupancy rates and design special packages (short break-away packages) during the year that will focus on tourists wanting to escape the normal day-to-day routine and visit the Park to relax during low tourist occupancy season.
- *Lifestyle* has proved to be a contributor to the reasons why tourists travel to national parks. In most cases tourists travel to the Kruger National Park since a young age and thus going to the Park each year becomes part of a lifestyle.
 - The Park should continue research on tourists' behaviour to determine the lifestyle patterns and adapt products and services accordingly. This could be done on an annual basis and include market research to determine the changing needs of the market. This will enable Park management to determine the personal opinion and experiences of tourists visiting the Park and what the tourists perceive as being important aspects that would contribute to a quality lifestyle.
 - The Kruger National Park should draw on tourists that have been travelling to the Park since a young age to act as Kruger National Park ambassadors to promote the Park to tourist markets. This could also be included in the Kruger National Park's marketing materials. As word-of-mouth is the best possible marketing technique, using ambassadors would increase the credibility of the Park. This could be an improvement on the entire honorary rangers project where people are offering up free time and services to national parks across the country. These ambassadors could interact with media on various platforms such as radio, television, magazines and newspapers to reflect views and experiences in the Kruger National Park and promote the Park according to its product and service offerings to the tourists.

However, the Kruger National Parks should introduce the Park to schools through the offering of special packages for school groups travelling to the Park. Adding to this package, the Park should include educational activities such as game drives and talks on the importance of conserving the natural and cultural heritage of a country. This might evolve into the younger generation becoming more involved in conservation projects and loyal towards national parks.

- The camping market makes out a large portion of the tourist to the Kruger National Park. Camping is therefore regarded among these tourists as a *Lifestyle* and Park management should ensure that the standards of the camping facilities in the rest camps of the Kruger National Park are all on good standard. This is a market that the Kruger National Park should retain as the older generation passes this lifestyle down to the children who will visit the Park in future. However, if standards are not on the required levels the tourists might find other destinations that would satisfy needs with regard to this lifestyle. Therefore, the Kruger National Park management should ensure that the camping facilities are always in good conditions that electricity points are in working order, ablution facilities are clean and fully functional, the communal kitchen has sufficient workspace and that the washing facilities and equipment function well. Furthermore, the camping stands within the camping area need to be clearly marked so that tourists can book specific camping stands when visiting the Park. The better the stands with regards to view and proximity to facilities, the higher the price can be. Tourists always aim at having the best possible stand and therefore Park management can use it as an income generator.
- *Value* should be added to each and every product and service provided or delivered in the Kruger National Park as this will have a positive impact on the Park's competitiveness position.
 - The Kruger National Park can only enhance the visitor experience and increase competitiveness if value is added at every possible level of product and service delivery within the Park. Therefore, park employees'

skills and abilities should be developed and constant training and development courses should be provided to park employees on how value can be added to the products and services through being friendly, helpful, proactive, informative, approachable and professional.

- The Park can implement an employee rewards programme to recognise employees that walked the extra-mile for tourists that visited the Park.
- Constant maintenance of the accommodation facilities (chalets and camping sites) would add value to the entire tourist experience. This can be done through clean ablution facilities in the camping sites, timely fixing of leaking taps, keeping furniture in chalets in good condition and uphold the cleanliness of chalets.
- The Kruger National Park should add electronic survey devices at respective facilities so that tourists could indicate whether the service that were received were of value.

After the motives have been determined, the tourists' expectations regarding the competitive advantage factors were measured. This leads Park management into Phase 2 of the competitiveness model.

Phase 2: Determining supply factors of the Kruger National Park

The Kruger National Park has a variety of supply factors that tourists should consider when travelling. Being recognised as one of the oldest national parks in the world, the Kruger National Park is known for its wildlife experiences it offers. The Park offers tourists the possibility of viewing 147 mammal species, over 500 bird species, more than 300 different tree species, 49 different types of fish, an astonishing 34 types of amphibians and more than 100 various types of reptiles all in one national park. This can all be viewed when visiting the Kruger National Park and staying over for a night or two.

The accommodation facilities that the Kruger National Park offers its tourists are quite significant. There are 13 rest camps within the Kruger National Park of which the majority lies within the Southern parts of the Park due to the variety of wildlife and activities that present themselves in that section of the Park. Furthermore, the Park

offers tourist other accommodation such as the five bush camps, two bush lodges, two overnight hides and nine luxury lodges which is situated in a more rustic natural environment and not as commercialised as the main rest camps in the Park.

The main rest camps in the Kruger National Park all have a small retail shop (depending on the rest camp) and fuel station to supply tourists with the necessary day-to-day essentials when visiting the Park. Furthermore, additional services such as automated banking facilities, laundry, swimming pools and restaurants are also available to the disposal of the tourists visiting the Park. A variety of activities are hosted in each rest camp that tourists can participate in like guided game drives (day and night), bush walks, 4x4 adventure trails, guided walks and back-packing trails. All of these can be done whilst visiting this magnificent national park. The Kruger National Park's headquarters, Skukuza, has additional activities to offer tourists such as the Stevenson-Hamilton Museum, a golf course with no fence between human and animals, state of the art conference and wedding venue facilities and some historic sites such as the train and dog cemetery. Across the Kruger National Park there are additional cultural, geological and archaeological sites that tourists may visit to learn and experience more about this magnificent national park.

Phase 3: Managing the competitive advantage factors

In the case of the Kruger National Park, the language of the tourists, province of residence and level of education influenced the competitive advantage factors respectively. This also confirms that the tourists' profile and motives have a significant influence on the competitive advantage factors. Therefore, Park management should take tourists' characteristics into consideration when implementing competitive advantage factors. Recommendations with regard to the implementation of the competitive advantage factors within each of the three park management categories are provided below.

General Management

- *Marketing and Branding* has come forth as a vital source of obtaining a competitiveness position within the nature-based tourism sector. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) identify positioning and branding that forms part of one section of marketing as being a destination policy, planning and development component and important for a destination wanting to achieve competitiveness.
 - This research indicated that *Marketing (as a whole) and Branding* is a vital component of general management at the Kruger National Park. The Kruger National Park's general management team must therefore ensure that quality promotions are being developed and positive word-of-mouth is being practised. This can all be done through determining the quality of the promotional items used in marketing campaigns and the level of service quality in the Park. The Kruger National Park should also brand itself and market the Park as a brand that offers various wildlife experiences, interactive activities for all ages and is an all-in-one destination. The Park could therefore increase memorabilia that reflect the Kruger National Park as an ultimate ecotourism destination.
 - The Kruger National Park's marketing campaigns should focus on the wildlife interactions that tourists can experience whilst visiting the Park such as fun and interactive educational experiences and adventurous nature-based activities for tourist.
 - Tourists loyalty towards the Park can be increased through the marketing of special break-always and activities for tourists travelling with children during holiday season, and vice versa in low season. This could be done through the Kruger National Park encouraging its tourists to become Wildcard members. Also, the benefits for the tourists to become members should be marketed intensively.
 - The Kruger National Park as well as other national parks should remain focused on the main tourist markets and have continuous marketing campaigns in the provinces where the main markets are located. Added to the marketing, national parks should also penetrate other provinces and markets to increase the market share.

- *Accommodation and Retail* was identified as an important contributor to the competitiveness of the Kruger National park.
 - Hospitality is focused on serviced accommodation, where in the case of the Kruger National Park, all rest camp accommodation are self-catering which makes it not part of the hospitality services industry. Therefore this factor is also distinct to the Kruger National Park management and it should be managed in such a way that competitiveness can be achieved.
 - The average travel group size of tourists to the Kruger National Park is four people, which indicates that the Park's accommodation facilities should be adapted. The current accommodation facilities are not suitable for these travel groups.
 - Accommodation facilities should be well equipped with the necessary utensils and furniture.
 - The Park should improve the quality of linen and utensils in the chalets.
 - In order for the Park to be more sustainable and environmentally friendly, the accommodation units in the Park should be transformed into greener accommodation facilities such as:
 - Changing the light bulbs to energy efficient light bulbs;
 - Installing low-flow shower heads in the bathrooms;
 - Install double flush system in toilets to reduce water usage;
 - Consider solar panels for electricity of accommodation facilities;
 - Installing recycling dustbins in and around the accommodation units;
 - Determine whether the usage of gas would be more viable than electricity, with electricity only as a stand-by optional available; and
 - Implement awareness campaigns in the rest camps with regards to sustainable green living.
 - The Kruger National Park management should ensure that the *Suprastructures and Amenities* of the Park are in top condition. The Park could reflect the local cultures through the décor in the rest camp with each rest camp focusing on a different culture.

- *Suprastructures and Amenities* was identified as another important competitive advantage factor.
 - *Suprastructures and Amenities* within the Kruger National Park should be managed suitably to minimise the possibility of negative impact on the environment. Therefore the products used to build and maintain these structures and amenities should be environmental safe.
 - The Kruger National Park should find ways to increase the environmental friendliness of the suprastructure within the Park such as:
 - Elevated walkways in rest camps or bird hides could be made out of recycled plastic materials that have a longer life span than wooden walkways.
 - The suprastructures within the park should be designed in such a manner that it reflects the local culture in order to present an educational experience for tourists and which enhance tourists' understanding of the local cultures.
 - The suprastructure and amenities should always be maintained and be in good condition in order for the Park to develop into a competitiveness ecotourism destination. Regular painting, upgrading, cleaning of ablution facilities and the availability of essential products at the retail stores are important to maintain.
 - The bird hides and picnic facilities should be as rustic as possible with little human interference to increase the tourists' natural experience, as well as protecting the natural environment from developing unnecessary structures in the natural environment.

Ecotourism Management

- *Visitor Management* was identified as an important ecotourism aspect to ensure the competitive advantage of the Kruger National Park.
 - The tourist market to the Park is not homogeneous, however, there are a number of similar characteristics that tourists have in common. Therefore, it remains critical that continuous research is done to determine the tourists profile, motivations and behavioural characteristics.

This will assist the Kruger National Park in maintaining a competitiveness position, provided that the supplying of products and services based on tourists profile, motivations and behavioural characteristics are linked to the principles of an ecotourism destination such as a national park.

- Tourists have to be managed appropriately and management should ensure that through this process the natural and cultural resources are not being depleted. This can be done through the implementation of stricter Park rules and regulations.
 - Tourists should also be motivated to report offenders in the Park via the Park hotline. However, tourists should be sure that the correct information, road name, vehicle registration (if possible), type of vehicle and offence committed be reported to the authorities within the Park.
 - Tourists should also be well-informed about the Park's rules and regulations when entering the Park so that awareness is being created, which might often be a quick educational talk as well.
- Field guides should make game drives within the Park more interactive as this will enhance the tourists' *Wildlife Experience* and also add to the educational and interpretational component of the Park. This is due to the majority of tourists that are well-educated.
- Game drives are restricted to a specific age group of children, and Park management should turn this around and implement special game drives for tourists with small children. This will enhance the visitors' experience as well as interest children in learning more about nature.
- Additional, exciting, never-done-before activities within the Park should be provided to stimulate *Wildlife Experiences* and engage tourists into being interactive such as bush walks, adventurous hiking trails, survival challenges in the Park, additional 4x4 trips in the Park with tourists having to make some sort of contribution to a local community when passing by.

- A Park liaison officer should be appointed that manages all complaints from tourists in the Park or sections of the Park. The Kruger National Park can develop a cell phone Application that tourists can use to log a compliment or complaint. This together with the Kruger National Park's Facebook page, Twitter and website should be managed and tourists should receive constructive and informative feedback within 36 hours of submitting the complaint. This will increase the visitors' positive experience.
- Park management should ensure that employees are well-educated, skilled and knowledgeable about the Park as a whole to improve the visitor experience whilst visiting the park. This is a human resource function and proper training and development courses should be developed and presented to the employees of the park. Different issues would have to be addressed across the three park management categories.
- Since the majority of tourists are well-educated, the implementation of interesting educational activities for adults, children and families at the rest camps as well as when conducting a self-drive, could further educate tourists about nature, national parks and the importance of conservation as a priority.

Conservation Management

- *Wildlife Experience* was identified as the most important competitive advantage factor for the Kruger National Park.
 - The Kruger National Park management should use the *Wildlife Experience* factor in the marketing and branding of the Park across South Africa and the international tourist markets. Marketing material should capture those exceptional wildlife viewings and also have tourists submitting pictures to be used by the Park for promotions. This will show that the Park does offer the viewings as tourists have taken pictures and not just Park personnel. Activities should be published, like game drives and bush walks to encapsulate the significant once-in-a-lifetime experience that the Park can offer in terms of its wildlife factor.

- Conservation management should ensure the protection of wildlife at the Park through the anti-poaching units and rangers patrolling the Park. The experiences of the tourists travelling to the Kruger National Park are directly linked to the wildlife experience and only thereafter touch on the secondary tourism aspects.
- The Kruger National Park should find ways of increasing its leadership within conservation by focusing on various natural and cultural elements that should be conserved in a specific manner.
- Park management could also increase the information that is provided to the tourists on what is happening in the Park with regards to wildlife being relocated, tracking of certain wildlife species, numbers of specific wildlife species; provide activities for tourists when wildlife are captured for veterinary inspections, new animals released into the Park; advocate the importance of wildlife management through the use of practises such as relocating and culling and explaining how overcrowding affects the natural habitat.

The implementation of the competitive advantage factors is an integrated approach between the three park management categories and overall park management to assist the Kruger National Park in obtaining a competitiveness position within the ecotourism domain.

Phase 4: Implementation, monitoring and evaluation

A crucial step in any process is the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the competitive advantage factors. Park management has to ensure that progress of the implemented competitive advantage factors is monitored. Furthermore, Park management has to ensure that new competitive advantage factors are being identified as the Park progresses to be more competitive. This can be done through the following:

- Park management should have annual evaluations focused on the competitive advantage factors identified and how these factors changed the product and service offering of the Park.

- Continuous research should be done in order to be aware of the tourists' motivations and behavioural characteristics. If any changes are evident, Park management could easily adapt the competitiveness model to include the new characteristics and re-evaluate the competitive advantage factors.
- Park managers should be innovative and constantly find new ways in which to improve the products and services offered in the Park that still remains within the boundaries of conservation practices.
- The Kruger National Park should also investigate its competitors and determine what the Parks' peers are doing to retain tourists and competitiveness.
- Park management should develop strategies that would guide them through the implementation process and ensure that competitiveness will be achieved.
- Managers should lead-by-example, motivate, encourage, promote and create a good work environment that will have employees feeling important and encouraged to be helpful towards tourists in the Park.
- The Kruger National Park should make use of collaborative management. This is where the park employees are placed into various focus groups and the employees' opinions, advice and methods for enhancing the competitiveness of the Kruger National Park are being discussed. This will assist in gaining the Park employees' respect and willingness to improve the standards of the Park as the employees' initiatives are implemented for the Park to obtain a competitive advantage position.

However, the new competitive advantage factors will be influenced and determined through the tourists motivational factors. Tourist motives and behaviour changes have to be constantly researched and monitored whether the identified competitive advantage factors are applicable to the current tourist market or not. If not applicable, new competitive advantage factors should be identified.

The future of nature-based tourism, especially ecotourism within national parks such as the Kruger National Park, would be flourishing in the years to come, if park managers incorporate the competitiveness model as a managerial component within the general management framework of the park. It should also further be used to enhance the visitor experience. Also to keep in mind, is that the competitiveness model proposed in this study could be applied to individual national parks across Southern Africa to determine specific competitive advantage factors.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

- It is suggested that the measuring instrument be standardised and used for research at individual national parks across Southern Africa as well as the rest of Africa to determine the competitiveness of national parks through the use of a comparative study. This would also highlight the differences in motivational and competitive advantage factors among national parks in Africa.
- A competitiveness model can be developed that specifically focus on ways in which nature-based destinations that provide adventure activities can obtain a competitive advantage as this is a growing sector within tourism.
- Research can also be conducted from a qualitative perspective in which the management of national parks could be targeted to obtain the perspective on tourists demand and competitive advantage factors. This research should focus on identifying specific gaps that might exist between the demand and the supply side of competitive advantage factors within national parks.
- Research can be done to determine the effectiveness of competitiveness i.e. between two ecotourism based destination such as a private game lodge and a national park (public entity). The aim should be to compare the competitive advantage factors and how these factors have been implemented to obtain a competitive position in the market.
- Research can be conducted in determining whether a competitiveness position within the ecotourism industry is supportive towards the conservation and sustainability of the destination. The research would be more focused on a qualitative approach to which park managers and conservationists in the park elaborate on the effects of increased tourists to the national park and the impact of carrying capacity on the natural environment. This will indicate the

importance and necessity of tourism for and within national parks. It will also determine if the generated income is used appropriately for enriching the Park's conservation programmes.

- Research can be conducted to develop a financing model for national parks in which the focus would be to allocate resources efficient and effectively to ensure that sustainability of the national park for future generations.

The recommendations to future research might be used to enhance the current competitiveness model that was designed for SANParks and adapted for other international parks.

REFERENCES

- Abdi, H. & Williams, L.J. 2010. Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test. (In Salkind, N., ed. Encyclopedia of research design. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. p. 1-5).
- Akama, J.S. & Kieti, D.M. 2003. Measuring tourists satisfaction with Kenya's wildlife safari: a case study of Tsavo West National Park. *Tourism management*, 24(1):73-81.
- Alcock, D. 1991. Education and extension: management's best strategy. *Australian parks and recreation*, 27(2):15-17.
- Allcock, A., Jones, B., Lane, S. & Grant, J. 1994. National ecotourism strategy. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.
- Al-Masroori, R.S. 2006. Destination competitiveness: Interrelationships between destination planning and development strategies and stakeholders' support in enhancing Oman's tourism industry (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Griffith University, Australia.
- Ambastha, A. & Momaya, K.S. 2004. Competitiveness of firms: review of theory, frameworks, and models. *Singapore management review*, 26(1):45-61.
- Amos, T.L., Ristow, A., Ristow, L. & Pearse, N.L. 2008. Human resource management. 3rd ed. Pretoria: Juta.
- Anderson, C.H. & Vincze, J.W. 2000. Strategic marketing management: meeting the global challenge. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Anon. 2013. Provincial parks: Western Cape, Free State and Mpumalanga. <http://www.sa-venues.com> Date of access: 13 Feb 2013.

Arabatzis, G. & Grigoroudis, E. 2010. Visitors' satisfaction, perceptions and gap analysis: the case of Dadia-Lefkimi-Souflion National Park. *Forest policy and economics*, 12(1):163-172.

Arbuckle, J.L. 2012. Amos (Version 20.0). Computer Program. Chicago: SPSS.
Archabald, K. & Naughton-Treves, L. 2001. Tourism revenue-sharing around national parks in Western Uganda: early efforts to identify and reward local communities. *Environmental conservation*, 28(2):135–149.

Armenski, T., Gomezelj, D.O., Djurdjev, B., Deri, L. & Aleksandra, D. 2011. Destination competitiveness: a challenging process for Serbia. *Journal of studies and research in human geography*, 5(1):19–33.

Asch, D. & Wolf, B. 2001. New economy – on competition: the rise of consumer? New York: Palgrave.

Aylward, B. & Lutz, E. 2003. Nature tourism, conservation and development in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

Azzoni, C.R. & De Menezes, T.A. 2009. Cost competitiveness of international destinations. *Annals of tourism research*, 36(1):715–734.

Babbie, E. 2013. The practice of social research. 13th ed. Wadsworth: Cengage learning.

Babbie, E. 2014. The basics of social research. 6th ed. Wadsworth: Cengage learning.

Balmford, A., Beresford, J., Green, J., Naidoo, R., Walpole, M. & Manica, A. 2009. A global perspective on trends in nature-based tourism. *PLoS Biology*, 7(6):1-6.

Baloglu, S. & McCleary, K. W. 1999. A model of destination image formation. *Annals of tourism research*, 26(4):868–897.

Banes, P. & Fill, C. 2013. Marketing. 3rd ed. UK: Oxford University Press.

Berli, A. & Martin, J.D. 2004. Tourists' characteristics and the perceived image of tourist destinations: a quantitative analysis – a case study of Lanzarote, Spain. *Tourism management*, 25(1):623–636.

Biswas M. 2008. Confirmatory factor analysis of Iso Ahola's motivational theory: an application of Structural Equation Modelling. Paper presented at the conference on tourism and HR issues. India – Challenges ahead, 15–17 May.
http://scholar.google.co.za/scholar?q=Confirmatory+factor+analysis+of+Iso+Ahola%E2%80%99s+motivational+theory:+an+application+of+Structural+Equation+Modelling.g.&hl=en&as_sdt=0&as_vis=1&oi=scholar&sa=X&ei=6ClzVNmjEIW1yQSfj4C4Bw&ved=0CBkQgQMwAA Date of access: 29 Apr 2014.

Boomsma, A. 2000. Reporting analyses of covariance structures. *Structural equation modelling*, 7(3):461–483.

Booyesen, K. 2014. Entrepreneurship defined. (In Van Aardt, I., Bezuidenhout, S., eds. Entrepreneurship & new venture management. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa. p.. 3–21).

Bornhorst, T., Ritchie, J.R.B., & Sheehan, L. 2010. Determinants of tourism success for DMOs and destinations: an empirical examination of stakeholders' perspectives. *Tourism management*, 31(1): 572–589.

Boshoff, A.F., Landman, M., Kerley, G.I.H. & Bradfield, M. 2007. Profiles, views and observations of visitors to the Addo Elephant National Park, Eastern Cape, South Africa. *South African journal of wildlife research*, 37(2):189-196.

Bothma, L. 2009. Travel motivations to selected National Parks in South Africa: Karoo-, Tsitsikamma-, and Kgalagadi Transfrontier National Parks. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation – MA).

- Boxall, P. 1998. Achieving competitive advantage through human resource strategy: towards a theory of industry dynamics. *Human resource management review*, 8(3):265–288.
- Boyd, S. 2004. National parks: wilderness and culture. (In Lew, A., Hall, M. & Williams, A., eds. *A companion to tourism*. Malden: Blackwell. p. 473 – 483).
- Boyd, S.W. & Butler, R.W. 1996. Managing ecotourism: an opportunity spectrum approach. *Tourism management*, 17(8):557–566.
- Braack, L.E.O. 2006. Kruger National Park. 4th ed. Cape Town: New Holland Publishers.
- Brace, N., Kemp, R. & Snelgar, R. 2013. SPSS for psychologists. 5th ed. New York: Routledge.
- Bradley, N. 2013. Marketing research: tools and techniques. 3rd ed. UK: Oxford.
- Bramwell, B. & Lane, B. 1994. Rural tourism and sustainable rural development. Proceedings of the Second International School on Rural Development, 28 June-9 July 1993, University College Galway, Ireland: Channel View Publications.
- Brandon, A. 2007. The dual nature of parks: attitudes of neighbouring communities towards Kruger National Park, South Africa. *Environmental conservation*, 34(3):236–245.
- Briggs, A.R.J., Coleman, M. & Morrison, M. 2012. Research methods in educational leadership & management. 3rd ed. Sage: London.
- Buckley, R. 2008. Tourism as a conservation tool. *Management for protection and sustainable development*, 1(1):19-25.

Buhalis, D. 2000. Marketing the competitive destination of the future. *Tourism management*, 21(1):97–116.

Bushell, R. & Eagles, P.F.J. 2007. Tourism and protected areas: benefits beyond boundaries. Wallingford, UK: CABI Publishers.

Bushell, R., Staiff, R. & Eagles, P.F.J. 2007. Tourism and protected areas: benefits beyond boundaries. (*In* Bushell, R. & Eagles, P.F.J., eds. Tourism and protected areas: benefits beyond boundaries. Wallingford: CABI International. The 5th INCN World Parks Congress. p. 175-211).

Buultjens, J., Ratnayake, I., Gnanapala, A. & Aslam, M. 2005. Tourism and its implications for management in Ruhuna National Park (Yala), Sri Lanka. *Tourism management*, 26(1):733-742.

Byrne, B.M. 2010. Structural equation modelling with AMOS: basic concepts, applications, and programming. 2nd ed. New York: Routledge.

Caber, M., Tahir, A. & Matzler, K. 2012. Classification of the destination attributes in the content of competitiveness. *Journal of vacation marketing*, 18(1):43-56.

Cant, M.C. & Van Heerden, C.H. 2013. Marketing management: a South African perspective. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Juta.

Cant, M.C., Brink, A. & Brijball, S. 2006. Consumer behaviour. Cape Town: Juta.
Cant, M.C., Strydom, J.W., Jooste, C.J. & Du Plessis, P.J., 2006. Marketing Management. 5th ed. Cape Town: Juta & Co.

Carruthers, J. 2009. Full of rubberneck wagons and tourists: the development of tourism in South Africa's national parks and protected areas. (*In* Hall, C.M. & Boyd, S., eds. Nature-based tourism in peripheral areas: development or disaster? Clevedon: Channel View Publications. p. 238-256).

- Celballos-Lascurain, H. 1990. Introduction. (*In* Lindberg, K., Epler Wood, M. & Engeldrum, D., eds. *Ecotourism: a guide for planners and managers*, Vol 2. North Bennington, Vt.: Ecotourism Society. p. 7–10).
- Chaharbagi, K. and Lynch, R. 1999. Sustainable competitive advantage towards a dynamic resource-based strategy. *Management decisions*, 37(1):45-50.
- Chaminuka, P., Groeneveld, R.A., Selomane, A.O. & Ierland, E.C. 2012. Tourist preferences for ecotourism in rural communities adjacent to Kruger National Park: a choice experiment approach. *Tourism management*, 33(1):168–179.
- Chase, L.C., Lee, D.R., Schulze, W.D. & Anderson, D.J. 1998. Ecotourism demand and differential pricing of national park access in Costa Rica. *Land economics*, 74(4):466–482.
- Chen, C., Chen, S.H. & Lee, H.T. 2011. The destination competitiveness of Kinmen's tourism industry: exploring the interrelationships between tourist perceptions, service performance, customer satisfaction and sustainable tourism. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 19(2): 247–264.
- Cheng, G.W. & Lau, R.S. 2007. Testing mediation and suppression effects of latent variables: bootstrapping with structural equation models. *Organisational research methods*, 1(2):296–325.
- Claver-Cortes, E., Molina-Azorin, J.F. & Pereira-Moliner, J. 2007. Competitiveness in mass tourism. *Annals of tourism research*, 34(3):727– 45.
- Coetzee, W. & Saayman, M. 2009. Sustainability and Ecotourism. (*In* Saayman, M., eds. *Ecotourism: getting back to basics*. Potchefstroom, North-West University: Leisure Publications. p. 123–146).
- Cohen, J. 1969. *Statistical power analysis for behavioural sciences*. New York: Academic Press.

Cohen, J. 1988. *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences*. 2nd ed. Hillsdale, NJ: Routledge.

Cohen, J. & Cohen, P. 1983. *Applied multiple regression/Correlation analysis for the behavioural sciences*. 2nd ed. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. 2011. *Research methods in education*. 7th ed. New York: Routledge.

Conger, A.J. 1974. A revised definition for suppressor variables: a guide to their identification and interpretation. *Educational and psychological measurement*, 34(1):35–46.

Cook, R.A., Yale, L.J. & Marqua, J.J. 2010. *Tourism: The business of travel*. 4th ed. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson Education.

Cooper, C., Fletcher, J., Fyall, A., Gilbert, D. & Wanhill, S. 2005. *Tourism principles and practice*. 3rd ed. Edinburgh Gate, Harlow: Pearson Education.

Cooper, D.R. & Schindler, P.S. 2006. *Business research methods*. 12th ed. New York, NY: McGraw Hill Education.

Cracolici, M.F. & Nijkamp, P. 2008. The attractiveness and competitiveness of tourist destinations: a study of Southern Italian regions. *Tourism management*, 30(1):336-344.

Creswell, J.W. 2014. *Research design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. 4th ed. Sage Publications: California.

Crouch, G. & Ritchie, J. 1994. Destination competitiveness: exploring foundations for a long-term research program. (*Proceedings of the administrative sciences association of Canada. 1994 Annual Conference*, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Jun 25–28. p. 79–88).

Crouch, G.I. 2011. Destination Competitiveness: an analysis of determinant attributes. *Journal of travel research*, 50(1):27–45.

Culture Art Tourism Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority. 2014. About us. <http://www.cathsseta.org.za/index.php/about-us/> Date of access: 1 Oct 2014.

D'Antonio, A., Monz, C., Newman, P., Lawson, S. & Taff, D. 2013. Enhancing the utility of visitor impact assessment in park and protected areas: a combined social-ecological approach. *Journal of environmental management*, 124(1): 72–81.

Dancey, C.P. & Reidy, J. 2004. Statistics without maths for psychology: Using SPSS for windows. 3rd ed. Harlow: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Davis, A. 2013. Business level strategy. (In Louw, L. & Venter, P., eds. Strategic management: developing sustainability in Southern Africa. 3rd ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa. p. 259–288).

Davis, C. 2014. What is research? (In Du Plooy-Cilliers, F., Davis, C. & Bezuidenhout, R., eds. Research matters. Cape Town, South Africa: Juta. p. 1–17).

Dharmaratne, G.S., Sang, F.Y. & Walling, L.J. 2000. Tourism potentials for financing protected areas. *Annals of tourism research*, 27 (3):590–610.

Dieke, P.U.C. 2001. Kenya and South Africa. (In Weaver, D.B., eds. The encyclopedia of ecotourism. New York: CABI Publishers. p. 89-105).

Diggines, C. 2013a. Collecting primary data: qualitative techniques. (In Wiid, J. & Diggines, C., eds. Marketing research. 2nd ed. Cape Town: Juta. p. 85–108).

Diggines, C. 2013b. Collecting primary data: surveys, observation and experimentation. (In Wiid, J. & Diggines, C., eds. Marketing research. 2nd ed. Cape Town: Juta. p. 109–147).

Diggines, C. 2013c. Measurement and questionnaire design. (In Wiid, J. & Diggines, C. eds. Marketing research. 2nd ed. Cape Town: Juta. p. 148–180).

Dlamini, K.D. 2013. South African National Parks (SANParks): Annual report 2013/2014. www.sanparks.co.za/about/annual/ Date of Access: 30 Oct 2014.

Do Valle, P.O., Silva, J.A., Mendes, J. & Guerreiro, M. 2006. Tourists satisfaction and destination loyalty intention: a structural and categorical analysis. *International journal of business science and applied management*, 1(1):26–44.

Du Plessis, E. 2002. Competitiveness of South Africa as a tourist destination. Potchefstroom: PU for CHE. (Dissertation – MA).

Du Plessis, F. 2011. Introduction to marketing. (In Strydom, J., eds. Introduction to marketing. 4th ed. Pretoria, South Africa: Juta. p. 1–30).

Du Plessis, L. 2010. Tourists' perceptions of tourism impacts on the environment: the case of South African National Parks. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation – M.Com).

Du Plessis, L., Van der Merwe, P. & Saayman, M. 2012. Environmental factors affecting tourists' experience in South African National Parks. *African journal of business management*, 6(8):2911–2918.

Dumitras, D.E., Jitea, I.M. & Arion, F.H. 2012. Management planning based on visitors' profile: the case of Romanian national park and natural parks. *University of Agricultural Sciences and Veterinary Medicine Cluj-Napoca, Romania*, 55(1):169–172.

Dwyer, L., & Kim, C.W. 2001. Destination competitiveness: Development of a model with application to Australia and the Republic of Korea. Australia and Korea: Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Korea Tourism Research Institute, the Republic of Korea, and Department of Industry, Science, and Resources, CRC for Sustainable Tourism, Australia–Korea Foundation. *Report prepared for Department of Industry Science and Resources, Australia and Korea Tourism research Institute, Ministry of Tourism.*

Dwyer, L. & Kim, C. 2003. Destination competitiveness: determinants and indicators. *Current issues in tourism*, 6(1):369–414.

Dwyer, L., Edwards, D., Mistilis, N., Roman, C. & Scott, N. 2009. Destination and enterprise management for a tourism future. *Tourism management*, 30(1):63–74.

Dwyer, L., Forsyth, P. & Rao, P. 2002. The price competitiveness of travel and tourism: a comparison of 19 destinations. *Tourism management*, 21(1):9–22.

Dwyer, L., Livaic, Z. & Mellor, R. 2003. Competitiveness of Australia as a destination. *Journal of hospitality and tourism management*, 10(1):60–78.

Eagles, P.F.J. 2002. Trends in park tourism: economics, finance and management. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 10(2):132–153.

Eagles, P.F.J. 2004. Trends affecting tourism in protected areas. Working paper of the Finnish forest research institute.

<http://www.metsantutkimuslaitos.fi/julkaisut/workingpapers/2004/mwp002-03.pdf>

Date of Access: 16 May 2013.

Eagles, P.F.J. & McCool, S.F. 2002. Tourism in national parks and protected areas: planning and management. Wallingford, UK: CABI Publishing.

Eastern Cape Parks. 2013. The Eastern Cape Nature Reserves in South Africa. www.ecpark.co.za Date of access: 13 Feb 2013.

Edgell, D.L. (sr). 2006. *Managing sustainable tourism: a legacy for the future*. Binghamton, UK: The Haworth Hospitality Press, Inc.

Ehlers, L. 2009. Identifying market opportunities. (*In* Venter, P. & Janse van Rensburg, M., eds. *Strategic marketing: theory and application for competitive advantage*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa. p. 56-102).

Elliot, R. & Percy, L. 2007. *Strategic brand management*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Engelbrecht, W.H. 2011. Critical success factors for managing the visitor experience at the Kruger National Park. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation – M.Com).

Enright, M.J. & Newton, J. 2004. Tourism destination competitiveness: a quantitative approach. *Tourism management*, 25(1):777–788.

Erasmus, B.J. 2013. Human resource management and the SA labour legislative framework. (*In* Erasmus, B.J., Strydom, J.W. & Rudansky-Kloppers, S., eds. *Introduction to business management*. 9th Ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa. p. 300–367).

Erasmus, L.J.J. 2011. Key success factors in managing the visitors' experience at the Klein Karoo National Arts Festival. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation – M.Com).

Erdogan, N. & Tosun, C. 2009. Environmental performance of tourism accommodations in the protected areas: case of Goreme Historical National Park. *International journal of hospitality management*, 28(1):406–414.

Evans, M.R., Fox, J.B. & Johnson, R.B. 1995. Identifying competitive strategies for successful tourism destination development. *Journal of hospitality & leisure marketing*, 3(1):37-45.

Ewart-Smith, C. 2010. Gatewayguide: Kruger National Park. 3rd ed. Cape Town: Sunbird Publishers.

Fabricius, M., Carter, R. & Standford, D. 2007. A practical guide to tourism destination management. World Tourism Organisation: Madrid, Spain.
https://pub.unwto.org/WebRoot/Store/Shops/Infoshop/4745/8BCE/AD9A/ECA8/048B/C0A8/0164/0B7A/071115_practical_guide_destination_management_excerpt.pdf
Date of access: 26 Apr 2014.

Fearnhead, P. & Mabunda, D. 2003. Towards sustainability. (In Hall-Martin, A. & Carruthers, J., eds. South African National Parks: A celebration. Johannesburg: Horst Klemm.

Fennell, D. 2008. Ecotourism. 3rd ed. Abingdon: Routledge.

Ferreira, M. 2009. Socio-economic impact of tourism in the Karoo National Park. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation – MA).

Field, A. 2005. Discovering statistics using SPSS. 2nd ed. London: Sage Publications.

Field, A. 2013. Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics. 4th ed. London: Sage Publications.

Forsyth, P. & Dwyer, L. 2009. Tourism price competitiveness. Travel and tourism competitiveness report 2009: World Economic Forum.
http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GCR_TravelTourism_Report_2009.pdf Date of access: 25 Mrt 2012.

Fortin, M. & Gagnon, C. 1999. An assessment of social impacts of national parks on communities in Quebec, Canada. *Environmental conservation*, 26(3):200–211.

Frauman, E., & Norman, W.C. 2004. Mindfulness as a tool for managing visitors to tourism destinations. *Journal of travel research*, 42(1):381–389.

Fredman, P. & Sandell, K. 2009. Protect, preserve, present: the role of tourism in Swedish national parks. (In Frost, W. & Hall, C.M., eds. *Tourism and national parks: international perspectives on development, histories and change*. Oxon: Routledge. p. 197–207).

Frost, W. & Hall, C.M. 2009. National parks, national identity and tourism. (In Frost, W. & Hall, C.M., eds. *Tourism and national parks: international perspectives on development, histories and change*. Oxon: Routledge. p. 63–77).

Garelli, S. 2004. Competitiveness of nations: the fundamentals. IMD World competitiveness yearbook 2004.

<http://www.imd.org/about/pressroom/pressreleases/IMD-World-Competitiveness-Yearbook-2004.cfm> Date of access: 31 Jul 2013.

Gartner, W.C. 1996. *Tourism development: principles, processes and policies*. Canada: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Geldenhuys, S. 2009. Ecotourism criteria and context. (In Saayman, M., eds. *Ecotourism: getting back to basics*. Potchefstroom, North-West Unvieristy: Leisure Publications. p. 1-24).

Gerber, H. 2013a. Exploratory data analysis and hypothesis testing. (In Wiid, J. & Diggines, C., eds. *Marketing research*. 2nd ed. Cape Town: Juta. p. 236–268).

Gerber, H. 2013b. Analysis of relationship with statistical techniques. (In Wiid, J. & Diggines, C., eds. *Marketing research*. 2nd ed. Cape Town: Juta. p. 269–311).

Ghimire, K.B. 1995. Parks and people: livelihood issues in National Parks management in Thailand and Madagascar. *Development and change*, 25(1):195-229.

Gillmore, A. & Simmons, G. 2007. Integrating sustainable tourism and marketing management: can national parks provide the framework for strategic change. *Strategic change*, 16(1): 191–200.

Go, F.M. & Govers, R. 2000. Integrated quality management for tourist destinations: a European perspective on achieving competitiveness. *Tourism management*, 21(1): 79–88.

Goeldner, C.R. & Ritchie, J.R.B. 2003. *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies*. 9th ed. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Goeldner, C.R. & Ritchie, J.R.B. 2006. *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies*. 10th ed. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Gomezelj, D.O. & Mihalic, T. 2008. Destination competitiveness – applying different models, the case of Slovenia. *Tourism management*, 29(1): 294–307.

Gomm, R. 2008. *Social research methodology: a critical introduction*. 2nd ed. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Goodwin, H.J. 1996. In pursuit of ecotourism. *Biodiversity Conservation*, 5:277-291.

Grant, R.M. 2008. *Contemporary strategy analysis*. 6th ed. Malden: Blackwell Publishing:.

Gray, D.E. 2014. *Doing research in the real world*. 3rd ed. London: Sage.

Haarhoff, R. 2007. An analysis of the price competitiveness of South Africa as an international tourist destination. Bloemfontein: CUT. (Dissertation – M.Com).

Hair, J.F., Jr., Black, W.C., Babin, B. & Anderson, R.E. 2010. *Multivariate data analysis: a global perspective*. 7th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Peason Education.

Hall, C.M. & Boyd, S. 2005. Nature-based tourism in peripheral areas: introduction. (In Hall, C.M. & Boyd, S., eds. Nature-based tourism in peripheral areas: development or disaster? Clevedon: Channel View Publications. p. 3-17).

Hall, C.M. & Frost, W. 2009. Introduction: the making of the national parks concept. (In Frost, W. & Hall, C.M., eds. Tourism and national parks: international perspectives on development, histories and change. Oxon: Routledge. p. 3 – 15).

Hall, R. 1993. A framework linking intangible resources and capabilities to sustainable competitive advantage. *Strategic management journal*, 14(1):607–618.

Hammit, W. 1984. Cognitive processes involved in environmental interpretation. *Journal of environmental education*, 15(4):11–5.

Hancock, G.R. & Mueller, R.O. 2010. The reviewer's guide to quantitative methods in the social sciences. New York, NY: Routledge.

Hassan, S.S. 2000. Determinants of market competitiveness in an environmentally sustainable tourism industry. *Journal of travel research*, 38(3):239-245.

Haven-Tang, C. & Jones, E. 2005. The heterodoxy of tourism SMEs. (In Jones, E. & Haven-Tang, C., eds. Tourism SMEs, service quality and destination competitiveness. Wallingford: CABI Publishing. p. 337–356).

Heath, E. 2003. Towards a model to enhance destination competitiveness: a Southern African perspective.
http://repository.up.ac.za/bitstream/handle/2263/6058/Heath_Towards%282003%29.pdf?sequence=1 Date of access: 14 May 2014.

Hermann, U.P. 2013. Development of a tourism management framework for Mapungubwe National Park. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Thesis – PhD).

Hill, C.W.L. & Jones, P. 2002. *Strategic management: an integrated approach*. 5th ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Hitt, M.A., Ireland, D. & Hoskisson, R.E. 2007. *Strategic management: competitiveness and globalisation: concepts and cases*. 7th ed. Mason, USA: Thomson South-Western.

Honey, M. 1999. *Ecotourism and sustainable development: who owns paradise?* Washington, DC: Island Press.

Honey, M. 2008. *Ecotourism and sustainable development: who owns paradise?* 2nd ed. Washington, DC: Island Press.

Hong, W. 2009. Global competitiveness measurement for the tourism sector. *Current issues in tourism*, 12(1):105–132.

Hong, W.C. 2008. *Competitiveness in the tourism sector: a comprehensive approach from economic and management points*. Heidelberg: Physica-Verlag.

Hood, J.W. 2008. *Destination branding: a case study of the Kruger National Park*. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation – M.Com).

Hooper, D., Coughlan, J. & Mullen, M. 2008. Structural equation modelling: guidelines for determining model fit. *Electronic journal of business research methods*, 6(1):53-60.

Horner, S., Swarbrooke, J. & Hallam, S. 2004. *International cases in tourism management*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Hsu, T., Tsai, Y. & Wu, H. 2009. The preference analysis for tourist choice of destination: a case study of Taiwan. *Tourism management*, 30(1):288–297.

Hu, W. & Wall, G. 2005. Environmental management, environmental image and the competitive tourist attraction. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 13(6):617–635.

Hudson, S., Ritchie, B. & Timur, S. 2004. Measuring destination competitiveness: an empirical study of Canadian ski resorts. *Tourism and hospitality planning & development*, 1(1):79-94.

Huggins, R. & Izushi, H. 2011. Competition, competitive advantage, and clusters: the ideas of Michael Porter. (In Huggins, R. & Izushi, H., eds. *Competition, competitive advantage, and clusters: the ideas of Michael Porter*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. p. 1-22).

Jankowicz, A.D. 2005. *Business research principles*. 4th ed. Hampshire: South-Western Cengage Learning.

Jones, E. & Haven-Tang, C. 2005. Tourism SMEs, service quality and destination competitiveness. (In Jones, E. & Haven-Tang, C., eds. *Tourism SMEs, service quality and destination competitiveness*. Wallingford: CABI Publishing. p. 1–24).

Jonker, J. A., Heath, E. T. & Du Toit, C. M. 2004. The identification of management-process critical success factors that will achieve competitiveness and sustainable growth for South Africa as a tourism destination. *Southern African business review*, 8(2):1-15.

Jonker, J.A. 2004. The strategic identification and integration of critical success factors to achieve international competitiveness for South Africa as a tourism destination. Pretoria: UP. (Doctoral Thesis).

Jurdana, D.S. 2009. Specific knowledge for managing ecotourism destinations. *Tourism and hospitality management*, 15(2):267–278.

Kaplan, G. 2013. KRUGER – 2 Hotels confirmed but more may be on the cards. *Southern African tourismupdate*. 13 Jul.

http://www.tourismupdate.co.za/Contents/Editions/July13/MPU_1.html Date of access: 15 Jul 2014.

Kerlinger, F.N. & Lee, H.B. 2000. Foundations of behavioural research. 4th ed. Belmont: CA: Cengage Learning.

Keyser, H. 2009. Developing tourism in South Africa: towards competitive destinations. 2nd ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Khan, M. 2003. ECOSERV: ecotourists' quality expectations. *Annals of tourism research*, 30(1):109–124.

Kim, C. 1999. Cross-cultural perspectives on motivation. *Annals of tourism research*, 26(1):201–204.

Kim, H., Borges, M.C. & Chon, J. 2006. Impacts of environmental values on tourism motivations: the case of FICA, Brazil. *Tourism management*, 27(5):957–967.

Kim, S.S., Lee, C. & Klenosky, D.B. 2003. The influence of push and pull factors at Korean national parks. *Tourism management*, 24(1):169–180.

Klem, L. 2000. Structural equation modelling. (In Grimm, L. G., Yarnold, P.R., eds. Reading and understanding more multivariate statistics. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. p. 227-260).

Kline, R.B. 2011. Principles and practice of structural equation modeling. Guilford press.

Komppula, R. 2006. Developing the quality of a tourist experience product in the case of nature-based activity services. *Scandinavian journal of hospitality and tourism*, 6(2):136–149.

Komppula, R. 2014. The role of individual entrepreneurs in the development of competitiveness for a rural tourism destination: a case study. *Tourism management*, 40 (1):361–371.

Kotler, P., Bowen, J. & Makns, J. 1996. Marketing for hospitality and tourism. United Kingdom: Prentice-Hall.

Kotler, P., Haider, D.H. & Rein, I. 1993. Marketing places: attracting investment, industry, and tourism to cities, states and nations. New York: The Free Press.

Kozak, M. 2001. Comparative assessment of tourist satisfaction with destinations across two nationalities. *Tourism management*, 22(4):391–401.

Kozak, M. 2002. Comparative analysis of tourist motivations by nationality and destinations. *Tourism Management*, 23(3):221-232.

Kozak, M. & Baloglu, S. 2011. Managing and marketing tourist destinations: strategies to gain competitive edge. New York: Routledge.

Kozak, M., Baloglu, S. & Bahar, O. 2009. Measuring destination competitiveness: multiple destinations versus multiple nationalities. *Journal of hospitality marketing and management*, 19(1):56–71.

Krejcie, R.B. & Morgan, D.W. 1970. Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and psychological measurement*, 30(3):607-610.

Kruger, M. & Saayman, M. 2009. Travel motivation of tourist to Kruger and Tsitsikamma National Parks: a comparative study. *South African journal of wildlife research*, 40(1):93–102.

Kruger, M. & Saayman, M. 2010. Travel motivation of tourists to Tsitsikamma and Kruger National Parks. *South African journal of wildlife research*, 40(1):93–102.

Kruger, M. & Saayman, M. 2014. The determinants of visitor length of stay at the Kruger National Park. *Koedoe*, 56(2):1-11.

Kruger, M., Saayman, M. & Hermann, U.P. 2014. First-time versus repeat visitors at the Kruger National Park. *Acta Commercii*, 14(1):1–9.

Kruger, M., Saayman, M. & Manners, B. 2012. Determinants of visitor expenditure at the Tsitsikamma National Park. *Journal of economic and financial sciences*, 5(1):11-30.

Kruger, M., Saayman, M. & Saayman, A. 2010. Expenditure-based segmentation of visitors to the Tsitsikamma National Park. *Acta commercii*, 10(1):137–149.

Kruger, M., Viljoen, A. & Saayman, M. 2013. Who pays to view wildflowers in South Africa? *Journal of ecotourism*, 12(3):146-164.

Kumar, R. 2011. Research methodology: a step-by-step guide for beginners. London: Sage.

Kuo, I. 2002. The effectiveness of environmental interpretation at resource-sensitive tourism destinations. *International journal of tourism research*, 4(1):87–101.

KZN wildlife. 2013. Welcome to Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife. <http://www.kznwildlife.com>
Date of access: 13 Feb 2013.

Lacobucci, D. & Churchill, G. 2009. Marketing research: methodological foundations. Mason, USA: Cengage Learning.

Leberman, S.I. & Holland, J.D. 2005. Visitor preferences in Kruger National Park, South Africa: the value of a mixed-method approach. *Journal of park and recreation administration*, 25(2):21–36.

Lee, S.H. & Sparks, B. 2007. Cultural influences on travel lifestyle: a comparison of Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea. *Tourism management*, 28(2):505–518.

Leung, Y.F., Marion, J.L. & Farrell, T.A. 2001. The role of recreation ecology in sustainable tourism and ecotourism. (In McCool, S.F. & Moisey, R.N., eds. *Tourism, recreation and sustainability*. New York: CABI Publishing. p. 21-39).

Limpopo tourism and parks. 2013. Limpopo Provincial Parks overview. <http://www.golimpopo.com/parks> Date of access: 13 Feb 2013.

Liston-Heyes, C. & Heyes, A. 1999. Recreation benefits from the Dartmoor National Park. *Journal of environmental management*, 55 (1):69–80.

Loon, R., Herper, I. & Shorten, P. 2007. Sabi Sabi: a model for effective ecotourism, conservation and community development. (In Bushell, R. & Eagles, P.F.J., eds. *Tourism and protected areas: benefits beyond boundaries*. The 5th INCN World Parks Congress. Wallingford: CABI International. p. 264 – 267).

Louw, L. 2013. Introduction – the nature of strategic management. (In Louw, L. & Venter, P., eds. *Strategic management: developing sustainability across Southern Africa*. 3rd ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa. p. 3–45).

Lovemore, F.C.H. & Brümmer, L.M. 2003. The ABC of Financial management: an introduction to financial management and analysis. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Luo, Y. & Deng, J. 2007. The new environmental paradigm and nature-based tourism motivation. *Journal of travel research*, 46 (4):392–402.

Ma, H. 1999. Creation and pre-emption for competitive advantage. *Management international journal of contemporary hospitality management*, 16(5):279-286.

Ma, X., Ryan, C. & Bao, J. 2009. Chinese national parks: differences, resources use and tourism product portfolios. *Tourism management*, 30(1):21–30.

Mabunda, D.M. & Wilson, D. 2009. Commercialization of national parks: South Africa's Kruger National Park as an example. (In Saarinen, J., Becker, F., Manwa, H. & Wilson, D., eds. *Sustainable tourism in Southern Africa: local communities and natural resources in transition*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Channel View Publications. p. 116-133).

MacKay, K. J. & Fesenmaier, D. R. 1997. Pictorial element of destination in image formation. *Annals of tourism research*, 24(3):537–565.

Magome, H. & Murombedzi, J. 2003. Sharing South African National Parks: community land and conservation in a democratic South Africa. (In Adams, W.M. & Mulligan, M., eds. *Decolonizing nature*. London: Earthscan Publication. p. 108–134).

Malhotra, N.K. 2007. *Marketing research: an applied orientation*. 5th ed. Upper Saddle River, NY: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Malhotra, N.K., Baalbaki, I.B. & Bechwati, N.N. 2013. *Marketing research*. Harlow: Pearson: Education Limited.

Maller, C., Townsend, M., St Leger, L., Henderson-Wilson, C., Pryor, A., Prosser, L. & Moore, M. 2009. Healthy parks, healthy people: the health benefits of contact with nature in a park context. *International healthy parks healthy people congress*, 26(2): 51- 83. Conference paper, Melbourne, Australia, 11–16 April 2010.

Maree, K. & Pietersen, J. 2008. The quantitative research approach. (In Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers. p. 144–153).

Mazanec, J.A., Wöber, K. & Zins, A.H. 2007. Tourism destination competitiveness: From definition to explanation? *Journal of travel research*, 46(3):46-86.

Middleton, V.T.C., Fyall, A. & Morgan, M. 2009. Marketing in travel and tourism. 4th ed. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Mihalic, T. 2000. Environmental management of a tourist destination: a factor of tourism competitiveness. *Tourism management*, 21(1):65–78.

Molewa, B.E.E. 2013. South African National Parks (SANParks): Annual report 2013/2014. www.sanparks.co.za/about/annual/ Date of Access: 30 Oct 2014.

Monroecollege. 2012. Exploratory, descriptive, and causal research designs. http://www.monroecollege.edu/AcademicResources/ebooks/9781111532406_lores_p01_ch03.pdf Date of access: 11 Nov. 2013.

Moore, C.W., Petty, J.W., Palich, L.E. & Longenecker, J.G. 2008. Managing small business: an entrepreneurial emphasis. 4th ed. Mason: South-Western Cengage Learning.

Mostert, P.G. & Du Plessis, P.J. 2007. Introduction to marketing management: a South African perspective. Faerie Glen, Pretoria: Mustard House Marketing.

Mouton, M.E. 2009. Socio-economic impact of an urban park: the case of Wilderness National Park. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation – MA).

Munro, J.K., Morrison-Saunders, A. & Hughes, M. 2008. Environmental interpretation evaluation in natural areas. *Journal of ecotourism*, 7(1):1–14.

National Department of Tourism (NDT). 2014. Annual report 2013/2014. <http://www.tourism.gov.za/AboutNDT/Publications/NDT%20Annual%20Report%202013-14.pdf> Date of access: 2 Oct 2014.

Navickas, V. & Malakauskaite, A. 2009. The possibilities for the identification and evaluation of tourism sector competitiveness factors. *The economic conditions of enterprise functioning*, 1(61):37–44.

Nel, J. 2008. Managing tourism businesses. (In George, R., eds. Managing tourism in South Africa. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa. p. 172–188).

Newall, J.E. 1991. The challenges of competitiveness. *Business Council on National issues*. Winnipeg, 30 Oct.
http://thomasdaquino.ca/assets/OCT_30_91_ENG_Speech_The_Challenge_of_Competitiveness.pdf Date of access: 2 Oct 2014.

Newall, J.E. 1992. The challenge of competitiveness. *Business quarterly*, 56(4):94–100.

Northern Cape tourism authority. 2013. Getting around: parks and reserves.
<http://www.northerncape.org.za> Date of access: 13 Feb 2013.

O’Laughlin, T. 1989. Walk softly – but carry a big education campaign. *Australian ranger bulletin*, 5(3):4–7.

Oberholzer, S. 2010. The Socio-economic impact of the Tsitsikamma National Park. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation – M.Com).

Obua, J. & Harding, D.M. 1996. Visitor characteristics and attitudes towards Kibale National Park, Uganda. *Tourism management*, 17(7):495-505.

Oh, H. 2001. Revisiting importance-performance analysis. *Tourism management*, 22(1):617-627.

Oh, H.C., Uysal, M. & Weaver, P.A. 1995. Product bundles and market segmentation based on travel motivations: a canonical correlation approach. *Hospitality management*, 14(2):123–137.

Oliver, J. 1992. All things bright and beautiful: are tourists getting responsible adult environmental education programmes? (In Weiler, B., eds. Ecotourism incorporating the global classroom. International conference papers, Canberra: Bureau of tourism research. p. 54–60).

Olsson, U.H., Foss, T., Troye, S.V. & Howell, R.D. 2000. The performance of ML, GLS, and WLS estimation in Structural Equation Modeling under conditions of misspecification and nonnormality. *Structural equation modeling: a multidisciplinary journal*, 7(4):557-595.

Orams, M.B. 1997. The effectiveness of environmental education: can we turn tourists into “greenies”. *Progress in tourism and hospitality research*, 3(1):295–306.

Oxford Dictionaries. 2014. National Parks
<http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/national-park?q=national+parks&searchDictCode=all> Date of access: 24 Nov 2014.

Öztürk, H.E. & Eraydin, A. 2010. Environmental governance for sustainable tourism development: collaborative networks and destination building in the Antalya tourism region. *Tourism management*, 31(1):113–124.

Page, S.J. & Connell, J. 2009. *Tourism: a modern synthesis*. 3rd ed. Hampshire: South-Western Cengage Learning.

Page, S.J. 2011. *Tourism management: an introduction*. 4th ed. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Page, S.J. & Connell, J. 2014. *Tourism: a modern synthesis*. 4th ed. Hampshire, UK: Cengage Learning.

Page, S.J. & Dowling, R.K. 2002. *Ecotourism*. Edinburgh Gate: Pearson Education.

Pallant, J. 2007. *SPSS survival manual: a step-by-step guide to data analysis using SPSS version 15*. 3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Parumasur, S.B. & Roberts-Lomard, M. 2012. *Consumer behaviour*. 2nd. Cape Town: Juta.

Passemard, D. & Kleiner, B.H. 2000. Competitive advantage in global industries. *Management research news*, 23(7/8):111-117.

Peake, S., Innes, P. & Dyer, P. 2009. Ecotourism and conservation: factors influencing effective conservation messages. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 17(1):107–127.

Pedersen, A. 2002. *Managing Tourism at World Heritage Sites: a Practical Manual for World Heritage Site Manager*. Paris: UNESCO World Heritage Centre.

Pietersen, J. & Maree, K. 2008. Standardisation of a questionnaire. (*In Maree, K., eds. First steps in research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publisher. p. 214-223).

Poon, A. 1993. *Tourism, technology and competitive strategies*. Wallingford: UK: CAB International.

Poon, A. 2003. Competitive strategies for a 'new tourism'. (*In Cooper, C., eds. Classic reviews in tourism*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications. p. 130–142).

Porter, M. E. 1985. *Competitive advantage: creating and sustaining superior performance*. New York: The Free Press.

Porter, M. E. 2008a. The five competitive forces that shape strategy. (*In Porter, M.E., eds. On Competition: updated and expanded edition Harvard Business Review Book: United States of America*. p. 25–41).

Porter, M.E. 1991. *On competition and strategy: updated and expanded edition.* Harvard business review: Harvard Business School Publishing.

Porter, M.E. 2004. *Competitive strategy: techniques for analysing industries and competitors.* New York: Free Press.

Porter, M.E. 2008b. The five competitive forces that shape strategy. (*In* Porter, M.E., eds. *On Competition: updated and expanded edition* Harvard Business Review Book: United States of America. p. 3–35).

Porter, M.E. 2008c. *On competition and strategy: updated and expanded edition.* Harvard business review: Harvard Business School Publishing. 544 p.

Report of the President's Commission on Industrial Competitiveness. 1985. Hearing before the committee on finance. United States Senate. 99th Congress, first session on the 29 March 1985.

<https://www.google.co.za/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=4&ved=0CDMQFjAD&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.finance.senate.gov%2Flibrary%2Fhearings%2Fdownload%2F%3Fid%3D7d9ff7c4-987a-48ec-8eec-f45c913c1f01&ei=vvD-U9GxBPOA7Qbf-4G4BA&usg=AFQjCNE81GVLI4JPICAYzkN9WUR-8HTcAg&sig2=26BWInBJUUpcPTGEVJoicw&bvm=bv.74035653,d.d2s&cad=rja>
Date of access: 18 Sept 2013.

Risteski, M., Kocevski, J. & Arnaudov, K. 2012. Spatial planning and sustainable tourism as basis for developing competitive tourist destinations. *Procedia – social and behavioural sciences*, 44(1):375–386.

Ritchie, J.R.B. & Crouch, G. 2003. *The competitive destination: a sustainable tourism perspective.* Wallingford, UK: CABI Publishing.

Ritchie, J.R.B. & Crouch, G.I. 2010. A model of destination competitiveness/sustainability: Brazilian perspectives. *Brazilian public administration review Rio de Janeiro*, 44(5):1049-1066.

Roggenbuck, J. W. 1987. Park interpretation as a visitor management strategy. (*In Proceedings of the 60th Annual Conference of the Royal Australian Institute of Parks and Recreation, Canberra: Royal Australian Institute of Parks and Recreation, 24.1–2.14*).

Saarinen, J. 2005. Tourism in the Northern Wildernesses: Wilderness discourses and the development of nature-based tourism in Northern Finland. (*In Hall, C.M. & Boyd, S., eds. Nature based tourism in peripheral areas: development or disaster. Clevedon: Channel View Publications. p. 36-49*).

Saayman, A. & Saayman, M. 2009. Socio-demographic and behavioural determinants of visitor spending at the Kruger National Park in South Africa. *South African journal of economic and management sciences*, 12(4):493–512.

Saayman, M. 2009. Managing parks as ecotourism attractions. (*In Saayman, M., eds. Ecotourism: getting back to basics. Potchefstroom, North-West University: Leisure Publications. p. 345–383*).

Saayman, M. & Saayman, A. 2006. Estimating the economic contribution of visitor spending in the Kruger National Park to the regional economy. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 14(1):67-80.

Saayman, M. & Saayman, A. 2008. Estimating the economic contribution of visitor spending in the Kruger National Park to the regional economy. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 14(1):67–81.

Saayman, M. & Saayman, A. 2009. Why travel motivation and socio-demographics matter in managing a national park. *Koedoe*, 51(1):1-9.

Saayman, M. & Saayman, A. 2009. Why travel motivations and socio-demographics matter in managing a national park. *Koedoe*, 51(1):1-9.

Saayman, M. & Slabbert, E. 2004. A profile of tourists visiting the Kruger National Park. *Koedoe* 47(1):1–8.

Saayman, M. & Van der Merwe, P. 2007. Travel motivations of tourists visiting Kruger National Park. *Koedoe*, (50)1:154-159.

Saayman, M. 2002. Hospitality, leisure & tourism management. . Potchefstroom, North-West University: Leisure Consultants & Publications.

Saayman, M. 2006. Marketing tourism products & destinations: getting back to basics. 2nd ed. Potchefstroom, North-West University: Leisure Consultants & Publications.

Saayman, M., Saayman, A. & Ferreira, M. 2009. The socio-economic impact of the Karoo National Park. *Koedoe*, 51(1):1–10.

Saayman, M., Slabbert, E. & Van der Merwe, P. 2009. Travel motivation: a tale of two marine destinations in South Africa. *South African journal for research in sport, physical education and recreation*, 31(1):81–94.

Saayman, M., Van der Merwe, P. & Pienaar, J. 2009. Expenditure-based segmentation of tourists to the Kruger National Park. *Acta academica*, 41(3):107–127.

Said, A., Jaddil, E.F.J. & Ayob, N. 2009. An assessment of service quality in National Parks: a case study of Gunung Gading National Park. *The Icfai university journal of environmental economics*, 7(2):74–88.

Sala-I-Martin, X., Bilbao-Osorio, B., Blanke, J., Crotti, R., Hanouz, M.D., Geiger, T. & Ko, C. 2013. The global competitiveness index 2012-2013: strengthening recovery by raising productivity. The global competitiveness report 2012-2013. World Economic Forum. http://www3.weforum.org/docs/CSI/2012-13/GCR_Chapter1.1_2012-13.pdf Date of access: 2 Oct 2014.

Sandell, K. & Fredman, P. 2010. The right of public access –opportunity or obstacle for nature tourism in Sweden? *Scandinavian journal of hospitality and tourism*, 10(3):291-309.

SANParks see South African National Parks

Scace, R. C., Grifone, E. & Usher, R. 1992. Ecotourism in Canada: report to the Canadian environmental advisory council. Canada: Hull QC Environment.

Schermelleh-Engel, K. & Moosbrugger, H. 2003. Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: tests of significance and descriptive Goodness-of-fit measures. *Methods of psychological research online*, 8(2):23-74.

Scholtz, M. 2010. The influence of the 2008/2009 economic recession on travel behaviour of visitors to the Kruger National Park. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation – M.Com).

Scholtz, M., Du Plessis, E. & Saayman, M. 2014. Understanding visitors to Kruger National Park. (Unpublished Report). Potchefstroom, North-West University: TREES.

Scholtz, M., Kruger, M. & Saayman, M. 2013. Understanding the reasons why tourists visit the Kruger National Park during a recession. *Acta Commercii*, 13(1):1–9.

Schumacker, R.E. & Lomax, R.G. 2010. A beginner's guide to Structural Equation Modelling. 3rd ed. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Scott, B.R. & Lodge, G.C. 1985. US competitiveness in the World Economy. Harvard Business School Press: Massachusetts.

Sebola, M.P. 2008. South Africa and ecotourism: potential, opportunities and politics. *Journal of public administration*, 43(1):59-72.

Shackley, M. 1996. *Wildlife tourism*. London: International Thompson Business Press.

Shaw, G., Saayman, M. & Saayman, A. 2012. Identifying risks facing the South African tourism industry. *South African journal of economic management sciences*, 15(2):190–206.

Sheng, X., Simpson, P.M. & Siguan, J.A. 2014. U.S. winter migrants' park community attributes: an importance – performance analysis. *Tourism management*, 43 (1):55–67.

Shiffman, L.G. & Kanuk, L.L. 2007. *Consumer behaviour*. 9th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hill.

Shirazi, S.F.M. & Som, A.P.M. 2011. Destination management and relationship marketing: two major factors to achieve competitive advantage. *Journal of relationship marketing*, 10(1):76–87.

Shultis, J.D. & Way, P.A. 2006. Changing conceptions of protected areas and conservation: linking conservation, ecological integrity and tourism management. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 14(3):223–237.

Sibiya, V.A. 2013. South African National Parks (SANParks): Annual report 2013/2014. www.sanparks.co.za/about/annual/ Date of Access: 30 Oct 2014.

Slabbert, E. & Du Plessis, E. 2013. Do socio-demographic factors influence the travel behaviour of visitors to nature-based tourism products in South Africa? *African journal for physical health education, recreation and dance*, 19(3):639-661.

Smit, A.J. 2010. The competitive advantage of nations: is Porter's diamond framework a new theory that explains the international competitiveness of countries? *Southern African business review*, 14(1):105–130.

Smith, S.L.J. 2010. Practical tourism research. Wallingford: CABI.

South African National Parks (SANParks). 2008. Annual report. 167 p.
<http://www.sanparks.org> Date of access: 30 Apr 2011.

South African National Parks (SANParks). 2009. Annual report. 128 p.
<http://www.sanparks.org> Date of access: 30 Apr 2011.

South African National Parks (SANParks). 2010. Annual report 2009/2010. 144 p.
<http://www.sanparks.org> Date of access: 30 Apr 2011.

South African National Parks. 2014. SANParks Official Website.
<http://www.sanparks.org/parks/kruger/> Date of access: 9 Jul 2014.

SPSS Inc. (2012). *SPSS® 20.0 for Windows, Release 20.0.0*. Copyright© by
SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois. www.spss.com.

Stankovic, L. & Petovic, J. 2007. Marketing of tourism destinations of NIS.
Economics and organisations, 4(1):9–20.

Stern, E. & Krakover, S. 1993. The formation of a composite urban image.
Geographical analysis, 25(2),130–146.

Struwig, F.W. & Steed, G.B. 2001. Planning, designing and reporting research.
Cape Town, South Africa: Pearson Education.

Švajda J. 2011. Evaluation of integrated protected area management in Slovak
national parks. *Ekológia (Bratislava)*, 30(1): 41–155.

Swanson, K.K. & Horridge, P.E. 2006. Travel motivations as souvenir purchase
indicators. *Tourism management*, 27(4):671-683.

Swarebrooke, J., Beard, C., Leckie, S. & Pomfret, G. 2003. Adventure tourism: the new frontier. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Tabachnick, B.G. & Fidell, L.S. 2007. Using multivariate statistics. 5th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Tao, C.H., Eagles, P.F.J. & Smith, S.L.J. 2004. Profiling Taiwanese ecotourists using a self-definition approach. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 12(2):149–168.

Taplin, R.H. 2012. Competitive importance-performance analysis of an Australian wildlife park. *Tourism management*, 33(1):29-37.

Thompson, J. & Martin, F. 2010. Strategic management: awareness & change. Hampshire: SOUTH-WESTERN CENGAGE Learning.

Thompson, J., Scott, J.M. & Martin, F. 2014. Strategic management: awareness and change. 7th ed. Hampshire: Cengage Learning EMEA.

Tickell, C. 1994. Foreword. (In Cater, E. & Lowman, D., eds. Ecotourism: a sustainable option? Chichester: Wiley. p. ix–x).

Tiedt, L. 2011. Travel motivations of tourist to selected Marine National Parks. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation – M.Com).

Tomarken, A.J. & Waller, N.G. 2005. Structural equation modeling: Strengths, limitations, and misconceptions. *Annual review clinical psychology*, 1(1):31-65.

Tomczyk, A.M. 2010. A GIS assessment and modelling of environmental sensitivity of recreational trails: the case of Gorce National Park, Poland. *Applied geography*, 40(1):1-13.

Tourism update digi-mag. 2014. Is the Kruger becoming too commercialised? 9 Jul.
<http://tourismupdate.co.za/Contents/Editions/2014/July2014/Mpumalanga1.html>
Date of Access: 9 Jul 2014.

Travelsense.org. 2014. Travel tips. <http://www.travelsense.org/tips/ecotravel.cfm>
Date of Access: 16 Oct 2014.

Truss, C., Mankin, D. & Kelliher, C. 2012. Strategic human resource management.
Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tustin, D.H. 2005. Multivariate analysis. (*In* Tustin, D.H., Ligthelm, A.A., Martins, J.H. & Van Wyk, H.J., eds. Marketing research in practice. Pretoria: Unisa Press. p. 646-691).

United National World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO). 2014. UNWTO Tourism Highlights 2014 edition.
http://dtxtq4w60xqpw.cloudfront.net/sites/all/files/pdf/unwto_highlights14_en_hr_0.pdf
f Date of access: 28 Aug 2014.

Uysal, M., McDonald, C.D. & Martin, B.S. 1994. Australian visitors to US national parks and natural areas. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management*, 6(3):18-24.

Valentine, P. 1992. Nature-based tourism. (*In* Hall, C.M. & Weiler, B., eds. Special interest tourism. London: Belhaven Press. p. 105–127).

Van Aswegen, S. 2012. What is human resource management? (In Van Aswegen, S., Gobind, J., Havenga, W., Kleynhans, R. & Markham, L., eds. Introduction to human resource management: fresh perspectives. 2nd ed. Cape Town, South Africa: Pearson Education. p. 1–13).

Van Der Merwe, P. 2009. Adventure tourism. (In Saayman, M., eds. Ecotourism: getting back to basics. Potchefstroom, North-West University: Leisure Consultants. p. 219-250).

Van der Merwe, P. & Saayman, M. 2004. Managing game farms from a tourism perspective. Potchefstroom, North-West University: Leisure Consultants & Publications.

Van der Merwe, P. & Saayman, M. 2008. Travel motivations of tourists visiting Kruger National Park. *African protected area conservation and science*, 50(1):154–159.

Van der Merwe, P., Slabbert, E. & Saayman, M. 2011. Travel motivations of tourist to selected marine destinations. *International journal of tourism research*, 13(1):457–467.

Van Raaij, W. F. 1986. Consumer research on tourism: mental and behavioral constructs. *Annals of tourism research*, 13(1):1–9.

Van Zyl, C. 2008. The future of tourism. (In George, R., eds. Managing tourism in South Africa. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa. p. 337 – 353).

Vanhove, N. 2005. The economics of tourism destinations. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Veal, A.J. 2011. Research methods for leisure & tourism: a practical guide. 4th ed. Edinburgh Gate: Pearson Education Limited.

Venter, P. 2010. The nature of strategic marketing. (*In Louw, L. & Venter, P., eds. Strategic management: developing sustainability in Southern Africa. 3rd ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa. p. 1-23).*

Venter, P. 2013a. Analysing the industry environment. (*In Louw, L. & Venter, P., eds. Strategic management: developing sustainability in Southern Africa. 3rd ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa. p. 192-225.*)

Venter, P. 2013b. Analysing the internal environment. (*In Louw, L. & Venter, P., eds. Strategic management: developing sustainability in Southern Africa. 3rd ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa. p. 226-256.*)

Verma, G. 2008. Ecotourism and development in the new millennium. Delhi: MahadevParkashan.

Vodeb, K. 2012. Competition in tourism in terms of changing environment. *Procedia – Social and behavioural sciences*, 44(1):273–278.

Wade, D.J. & Eagles, P.F.J. 2003. The use of importance-performance analysis and marketing segmentation for tourism management in parks and protected areas: an application to Tanzania's National Parks'. *Journal of ecotourism*, 2(3):196-212.

Walker, J.R. & Walker, J.T. 2011. Tourism: concepts and practices. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.:

Wearing, S. & Niel, J. 2009. Ecotourism impacts, potentials and possibilities. 2nd ed. Amsterdam: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Weaver, D. & Lawton, L. 2006. Tourism management. 3rd ed. Milton Australia: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Weaver, D.B. 2001. Ecotourism as mass tourism: contradiction or reality? *Cornell hotel and restaurant administration quarterly*, 42(1):104–112.

Weaver, D.B. 2001. Ecotourism in the context of other tourism types. (*In Weaver, D.B., eds. The encyclopedia of ecotourism. Wallingford: CABI Publishing. p. 73-83*).

Weinberg, S.L. & Abramowitz, S.K. 2008. Statistics using SPSS: an integrated approach. 2nd edition. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Welman, C., Kruger, F. & Mitchell, B. 2005. Research methodology. 3rd ed. Cape Town: Oxford Southern Africa.

Whitman, M.E. & Woszczyński, A.B. 2004. The handbook of information systems research. Hershey, PA: Idea Group.

Wiersma, W. & Jurs, S.G. 2009. Research methods in education: an introduction. Pearson: USA.

Wiid, J. 2013. Conducting the investigation. (*In Wiid, J. & Diggins, C., eds. Marketing research. 2nd ed. Cape Town: Juta. p. 208–219*).

Wilkerson, C. 2003. Travel and tourism: an overlooked industry in the U.S. and tenth district. <http://www.kansascityfed.com/Publicat/ECONREV/Pdf/3q03wilk.pdf>
Date of access: 21 Jul 2014.

Wood, M.E. 2002. Ecotourism: principles, practices, and policies for sustainability. Paris: United Nations Environmental Programme, Division of Technology, Industry and Economics.

Wood, M.E. & Halpenny, E.A. 2001. Ecotourism certification and evaluation: progress and prospects. (*In Font, X. & Buckley, R.C., eds. Tourism ecolabelling: certification and promotion of sustainable management. Wallingford: CABI Publishing. p. 121–140*).

Wood, R. 2004. Delivering customer value generates positive business results: a position paper. *Futurics*, 28(1/2): 59-64.

World Commission in Environment and Development (WCED). 1987. The Brundtland Report – Our common future. London: Oxford University Press.

Wright, P., McMahan, G. & McWilliams, A. 1994. Human resources and sustained competitive advantage: a resource-based perspective. *International journal of human resource management*, 5(2):301–326.

Ye, Q., Zhang, Z. & Law, R. 2009. Sentiment classification of online reviews to travel destinations by supervised machine learning approaches. *Expert systems with applications*, 36(1):3527–6535.

Zeppel, H. 2009. National parks as cultural landscapes: indigenous peoples, conservation and tourism. (In Frost, W. & Hall, C.M., eds. *Tourism and national parks: international perspectives on development, histories and change*. London: Routledge. p. 259–282).

Zikmund, W.G., Babin, B.J., Carr, J.C. & Griffin, M. 2010. *Business research methods*. 8th ed. South Western Cengage Learning: Canada.

ANNEXURES

Annexure A: Research Questionnaire

KRUGER NATIONAL PARK OVERNIGHT VISITOR SURVEY NASIONALE KRUGERWILDTUIN OORNAGBESOEKERSOPNAME AFDELING A / SECTION A

1. Geslag / **Gender?**

M	1
F	2

9. Hoogste kwalifikasie / **Highest level of education**

2. In watter jaar is u gebore? /

19

What year were you born?

3. Huistaal / **Home language?**

Afrikaans	1
Engels / English	2
Ander, spesifiseer / Other, specify):	3

Geen skool / No school	1
Matriek / Matric	2
Diploma, graad / Diploma, degree	3
Nagraads / Post-graduate	4
Professioneel / Professional	5
Ander, spesifiseer / Other, specify	6

4. Huwelikstatus / **Marital status**

Enkellopend / Single	1
Getroud / Married	2
Woon saam / Living together	3
Geskei / Divorced	4
Wewenaar, Weduwee / Widow/er	5

10. Wat is jou bruto jaarlikse inkomste? / **What is your annual gross income?**

< R20 000	1
R20 001 - R140 000	2
R140 001 - R221 000	3
R221 001 - R305 000	4
R305 001 - R431 000	5
R431 001 - R552 000	6
R552 001 >	7

5. Insluitend uself, hoeveel mense is in u toer-groep? / **Including yourself, how many people are travelling in your group?**

Aantal / **Number**

11. Wanneer het u besluit om die park te besoek? / **When did you make your decision to visit the park?**

6. Insluitend uself, vir hoeveel persone betaal u in u toergroep? / **Including yourself, how many**

people are you paying for?

Aantal / **Number**

7a. Provinsie / **Province?**

Wes-Kaap / Western Cape	1
Gauteng	2
Oos-Kaap / Eastern Cape	3
Noordwes / North West	4
Mpumalanga	5
Noord-Kaap / Northern Cape	6
KwaZulu-Natal	7
Limpopo	8
Vrystaat / Free State	9
Buite RSA grense / Outside RSA borders	10

7b. Indien buitekant die grense van RSA, dui asb u land van herkoms aan. / **If outside RSA borders, please specify your country of origin.**

8. Op watter ouderdom was u eerste bloedstelling aan Nasionale Parke? / **At which age were you first exposed to a National Park?**

Spontane besluit / Spontaneous decision	1
'n Maand gelede / A month ago	2
Meer as 'n maand gelede / More than a month ago	3
Ander, spesifiseer / Other, specify	4

12. Met watter tipe vervoer reis u na die Park? / **Which mode of transport do you use to travel to the Park?**

4x4	1
Kombi	2
Rekreasie-voertuig / Leisure vehicle	3
Sedan	4
2x4/Bakkie	5
Ander (spesifiseer) / Other (specify)	6

13. Wie het die besoek aan die park geïnisieer? / **Who initiated the visit to the park?**

Self	1
Vriende / Friends	2
Eggenoot / Spouse	3
Familie / Family	4
Ander, spesifiseer / Other, specify	5

AFDELING B / SECTION B

14. Vergesel u kinders u na die Park? / Are your children accompanying you to the Park?	Ja / Yes	1
	Nee / No	2

15. Hoeveel het u tydens u besoek aan die volgende bestee? / **How much did you spend during your visit to the Park on the following?**

1. Ingangs- en bewaringsfooie / Entrance and conservation fee	R
2. Akkommodasie / Accommodation	R
3. Restourante / Restaurants	R
4. Kos / Food	R
5. Drinkgoed / Beverages	R
6. Klere en skoene / Clothes and footwear	R
7. Vervoer na en by die Park / Transport to and at the Park	R
8. Aandenkings en juwele / Souvenirs and jewellery	R
9. Ander uitgawes nie hierbo vervat nie (Spesifiseer) / Other expenses not listed above (Specify)	R
	R
	R

16. Besit u 'n "Wild Card"? / **Are you a Wild Card holder?**

Ja / Yes	1
Nee / No	2

17. Hoeveel keer het u hierdie Nasionale Park oor die afgelope drie jaar besoek, insluitend 2013? / **How many times have you visited this National Park over the past three years, including 2013?**

As 'n dagbesoeker / As a day visitor	
As 'n oornagbesoeker / As an overnight visitor	

18. Hoeveel nagte oornag u in die Park? / **How many nights are you overnighing at this park?**

--

19. Van al die diere/voëls wat in Nasionale Parke gekry word, watter een is u gunsteling? Noem asb slegs EEN dier/voël. / ***Of all the animals /birds found in National Parks, which is your favourite?***

Please name only ONE animal/bird.

20. Waar het u van die Park te hore gekom ?/

Where did you hear about the Park?

a. Webwerf / <i>Website</i>	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
b. Skoue / <i>Shows (Getaway)</i>	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
c. Vriende & familie / <i>Friends & family</i>	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
d. Radio	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
e. TV	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
f. Tydskrifte / <i>Magazines</i>	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
g. SANParke / <i>SANParks</i>	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
h. Vorige besoeke / <i>Previous visits</i>	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
i. Facebook	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
j. Twitter	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
k. Internet blogs	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
l. Ander / <i>Other</i> (Spesifiseer / <i>Specify</i>)	Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No

AFDELING C / SECTION C

21a. Die Nasionale Krugerwildtuin (NKW) het 'n mededingende voordeel as gevolg van... (gebruik die skaal en beantwoord asb al die moontlikhede) /

The Kruger National Park (KNP) has a competitive advantage due to... (use the scale and please answer all possibilities).

	Stem volkome saam / Totally agree				
	Stem saam / Agree				
	Neutraal / Neutral				
	Stem nie saam nie / Do not agree				
	Stem glad nie saam nie / Totally disagree				
1. die verskeidenheid spesies fauna en flora wat die park bied (336 bome, 49 vis, 34 amfibië 114 reptiele, 507 voëls, 147 soogdiere en 20 000 insekte) / <i>the variety of fauna and flora species (336 trees, 49 fish, 34 amphibians, 114 reptiles, 507 birds, 147 mammals and 20 000 insects)</i>	1	2	3	4	5
2. die verskeidenheid bedreigde spesies soos die wilde hond, renoster en swartwitpens wat in die park besigtig kan word / <i>the variety of endangered species such as the wild dog, rhino and sable antelope that can be viewed in the park</i>	1	2	3	4	5
3. die Groot 5 (leeu, olifant, buffel, swart renoster en luiperd) / <i>the presence of the Big 5 (lion, elephant, buffalo, black rhino and leopard)</i>	1	2	3	4	5
4. die Groot 6 voëlsoorte: Bromvoël, Gompou, Swartaasvoël, Breëkoparend, Visuil and Saalbekooievaar / <i>the Big 6 birding: Ground Hornbill, Kori Bustard, Lappet-faced Vulture, Martial Eagle, Pel's Fishing Owl and Saddle-billed Stork</i>	1	2	3	4	5
5. die verskeidenheid bome insluitend die Kremetartboom, Koorsboom, Knoppiesdoring, Maroela, Mopanie / <i>the variety of trees including the Baobab, Fever Tree, Knob Thorn, Marula, Mopane</i>	1	2	3	4	5
6. die ideale wildkyk geleentheid in die park / <i>the ideal game viewing in the park</i>	1	2	3	4	5
7. die goed ontwikkelde wildernis en 4x4 roetes / <i>the well-designed wilderness and 4x4 trails</i>	1	2	3	4	5
8. die NKW is 'n leier in bewaringsmetodes en strategieë / <i>the KNP is a leader in conservation methods and strategies</i>	1	2	3	4	5
9. die noordelike en suidelike streke wat verskillende wildkyk en bioom ervarings vir die toeris bied / <i>northern and southern regions which offers a different wildlife and biome experience for the tourist</i>	1	2	3	4	5

10. een van die rykste biodiversiteit (ses ekosisteme) van enige nasionale park / one of the richest biodiversity (six ecosystems) of any national park	1	2	3	4	5
11. die status as vlagskippark van Suid Afrikaanse Nasionale Parke / its status as the flagship park of South African National Parks	1	2	3	4	5
12. die park se wêreldbekende beeld en aansien / the parks' world-renowned image and reputation	1	2	3	4	5
13. die bekende handelsmerk van die park as bestemming / it being a well-branded tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5
14. die verskeidenheid van aktiwiteite wat aangebied word, soos begeleide staptoere, begeleide wildritte, self-ry wildritte, 4x4 roetes en bosstaptoere / the variety of activities such as guided hiking tours, guided game drives, self drives, 4x4 routes and bush walks	1	2	3	4	5
15. die intrepresiasiesentrums in die ruskampe wat goed uitgelê is / the well-designed interpretation centres at the rest camps	1	2	3	4	5
16. goeie onderhoud van infrastruktuur soos paaie en piekniekfasiliteite / well-maintained national park infrastructure, such as roads and picnic facilities	1	2	3	4	5
17. die park se toeganklikheid vir verskillende tipes voertuie / easy access for different types of vehicles	1	2	3	4	5
18. die verskeidenheid akkommodasie beskikbaar (soos rondawels, gesinshutte, gastehuse, hutte tente, karavaan en kampeerplekke asook bosveldkampe) / a wide range of accommodation facilities (from chalets, bungalows, family cottages, huts, guest houses, tents, caravan and camp sites as well as bushveld camps)	1	2	3	4	5
19. die gereelde opdatering en onderhoud van inligtingsborde in die ruskampe / the well-maintained and updated information boards at the rest camps	1	2	3	4	5
20. die beskikbaarheid van park winkels in die NKW ruskampe wat toeriste die daaglikse benodighede bied / the availability of park shops in the KNP rest camps offering tourists the necessary day-to-day essentials	1	2	3	4	5

21. die beskikbaarheid van kwaliteit konferensiefasiliteite / <i>its high quality conference facilities on offer</i>	1	2	3	4	5
22. die implementering van groen inisiatiewe in die park se ruskampe soos herwinbare asblikke en sonpanele / <i>the implementation of green initiatives in the parks rest camps such as recycle bins and solar panels</i>	1	2	3	4	5
23. die universiële toeganklike fasiliteite (toeganklik vir persone met gestremdhede) / <i>its universal accessibility (disabled-friendly) facilities</i>	1	2	3	4	5
24. die goed ontwikkelde roetes en uitleg van die NKP / <i>well-designed routes and layout of the KNP</i>	1	2	3	4	5
25. die bestuur van die toeristegetalle gedurende piekseisoen / <i>the management of tourist numbers during peak seasons</i>	1	2	3	4	5
26. die feit dat die park in sy 115de bestaansjaar is (een van die oudste nasionale parke) / <i>the fact that the park is in its 115th year of existence (one of the oldest national parks)</i>	1	2	3	4	5
27. die park se status as een van die grootste nasionale parke in Afrika / <i>its status as one of the largest national parks in Africa</i>	1	2	3	4	5
28. die verskeidenheid akkommodasie wat in prys en styl verskil: van rustiek tot luuks / <i>the variety in accommodation options that vary in price and style: from rustic to luxurious</i>	1	2	3	4	5
29. die aantal en verskeidenheid ruskampe / <i>the number and variety of rest camps</i>	1	2	3	4	5
30. die park se ryk geskiedkundige agtergrond / <i>the parks' rich cultural heritage</i>	1	2	3	4	5
31. die groot area wat die park strek / <i>the massive expanse of the KNP</i>	1	2	3	4	5

AFDELING D / SECTION D

22. Hoe beoordeel u die volgende in terme van onvergeetlike natuur ervaring in the Park? / *How do you rate the following in terms of a memorable nature experience in the Park?*

	Uiters belangrik / Extremely important				
	Baie belangrik / Very important				
	Belangrik / Important				
	Minder belangrik / Slightly important				
	Glad nie belangrik nie / Not at all important				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Eerste waarnemings / <i>First-time sightings</i>	1	2	3	4	5
2. Groot hoeveelhede spesies / <i>Large numbers of species</i>	1	2	3	4	5
3. Verskeidenheid spesies / <i>Variety of species</i>	1	2	3	4	5
4. Groot aantal van 'n spesifieke spesie / <i>Large numbers of a specific species</i>	1	2	3	4	5
5. Verrassings of iets buitengewoons / <i>Surprises or things out of the ordinary</i>	1	2	3	4	5
6. Om dinge te sien wat jy die minste verwag / <i>Seeing things that you least expect</i>	1	2	3	4	5
7. Verwagtinge dat jy spesifieke spesies gaan sien / <i>Expectations that you are going to see specific species</i>	1	2	3	4	5
8. Die drama wat in die natuur ontvou, byvoorbeeld 'n vangs / <i>The drama unfolding in nature, for example a kill</i>	1	2	3	4	5
9. Die nabyheid aan 'n spesie / <i>The close proximity to a species (The closer the better)</i>	1	2	3	4	5
10. Om na aan gevaarlike diere te kom, byvoorbeeld buffels / <i>Getting close to dangerous animals, e.g. buffalo</i>	1	2	3	4	5
11. Om 'n aangesig-tot-aangesig ervaring te hê / <i>To have an eye-to-eye experience</i>	1	2	3	4	5
12. Die stilte en rustigheid wat die natuur bied / <i>The quietness and stillness that nature offers</i>	1	2	3	4	5
13. Om spesies te kan sien sonder dat hulle van jou teenwoordigheid bewus is / <i>To be able to spot species without them being aware of your presence</i>	1	2	3	4	5
14. Om genoeg tyd by 'n besigtiging deur te bring om sodoende alles in te neem / <i>To be able to spend enough time at a sighting to take it all in</i>	1	2	3	4	5

15. Om skaars spesies raak te sien / To spot scares species	1	2	3	4	5
16. Om die Groot Vyf te sien / To spot the Big Five	1	2	3	4	5
17. Om die ervaring met iemand spesiaal te deel / To be able to share the experience with someone special	1	2	3	4	5
18. Om die spesie duidelik te kan sien / Being able to clearly see the species	1	2	3	4	5
19. Om 'n spesifieke spesie, wat ek nog nooit van te vore gesien het nie, te kan waarneem / Being able to see a specific specie that I have never seen before	1	2	3	4	5
20. Om genoeg tyd te hê om te kan fotografeer / To have enough time to photograph	1	2	3	4	5
21. Dit is 'n kombinasie van dit wat die park my bied / It is a combination of what a park has to offer	1	2	3	4	5
22. Die misterieuse omgewing en spesies dra by tot 'n onvergeetlike ervaring / The mystery surroundings and species contribute to memorable experience	1	2	3	4	5
23. Tipe spesie / Type of species	1	2	3	4	5
24. Interaksie wat daar plaasvind tussen spesies / Interaction between species	1	2	3	4	5
25. Die Atmosfeer / The Ambience	1	2	3	4	5
26. Inligtingsborde rakende fauna/flora in die park / Information boards regarding the faun/flora in the park	1	2	3	4	5
27. Goeie uitleg van park, ruskampe en roetes / Good layout of the park, rest camps and routes	1	2	3	4	5
28. Toeganklikheid van die park / Accessibility of the Park	1	2	3	4	5
29. Beskikbare van volledige roetekaarte met beskrywende inligting / Available route maps with descriptive information	1	2	3	4	5
30. Interaktiewe veldgidse op wildritte en begeleide uitstappies / Interactive fieldguides on game drives and guided walks	1	2	3	4	5
31. Beskikbare boeke, brosjures, inligtingspamflette en parkgidse (oor diere, insekte, voëls en bome) / Available books, brochures, information pamphlets and park guides (for animals, insects, birds and trees)	1	2	3	4	5
32. Uitkenbaarheid van bome, bv. naamplaatjies of inligtingsborde. / Identification of trees, e.g. name plates or information boards	1	2	3	4	5
33. Uitkykpunte in die Park / Lookout points in the Park	1	2	3	4	5
34. Voëlkykpunte in die Park / Bird hides in the Park	1	2	3	4	5

35.Ouditorium met natuurvideos / Auditorium with nature videos	1	2	3	4	5
36.Interpretasie-aktiwiteite bv skyfievertonings, inligtingsessies en spesialispraatjies / Interpretation activities, e.g. slide shows, informative sessions and specialist talks	1	2	3	4	5

AFDELING E / SECTION E

23a.Op 'n skaal van 1 tot 5 , waar 1 die gewildste en 5 die minder gewildste is, dui asb aan hoe graag u die volgende spesies van die Groot 5 sou wou sien tydens u besoek aan die park. **Please rank the following Big 5 species according to your preference to see them while you visit the park, where 1 is the most most popular and 5 is the least popular.**

	<i>Glad nie gewild nie / Not at all popular</i>				
	<i>Minder gewild / Less popular</i>				
	<i>Neutraal / Neutral</i>				
	<i>Gewild / Popular</i>				
	<i>Baie gewild / Very popular</i>				
1. Leeu / Lion	1	2	3	4	5
2. Olifant / Elephant	1	2	3	4	5
3. Buffel / Buffalo	1	2	3	4	5
4. Luiperd / Leopard	1	2	3	4	5
5. Renoster / Rhino	1	2	3	4	5

23b. Hoeveel is u bereid om te betaal in Rand waarde (R) om die Groot 5 spesies te sien? / **How much are you willing to pay in Rand (R) value to see the Big 5 species?**

Leeu / Lion	R
--------------------	---

Luiperd / Leopard				R
--------------------------	--	--	--	---

Olifant / Elephant	R
Buffel / Buffalo	R

Renoster / Rhino				R
-------------------------	--	--	--	---

24a. Is u lid van enige omgewingsbewaringsorganisasie of skenk u geld? / **Are you a member of any conservation organisations or do you give money for conservation?**

Ja/ Yes	1
Nee/ No	2

24b. Indien JA in 24a. vir watter organisasie/s skenk u geld? / **If YES in 24a, to which organisations do you give money to?**

AFDELING F / SECTION F

25. Beoordeel volgens die skaal waarom u die Park besoek het (beantwoord asb al die moontlikhede).

Rate on the scale why you visited the Park (please answer all possibilities).

Stem volkome saam / Totally agree					
Stem saam / Agree					
Neutraal / Neutral					
Stem nie saam nie / Do not agree					
Stem glad nie saam nie / Totally disagree					
1. die park is 'n alles-inklusiewe vakansiebestemming is / <i>the park is an all-inclusive holiday destination</i>	1	2	3	4	5
2. die klimaat wat die park 'n goeie vakansiebestemming maak regdeur die jaar / <i>the park is an all-year-round destination due to its climate</i>	1	2	3	4	5
30. die spirituele ervaring wat aan toeriste gebied word / <i>the spiritual experience it offers tourists</i>	1	2	3	4	5
3. besoeke aan die park deel van my leefstyl is / <i>travelling to the park is a part of my lifestyle</i>	1	2	3	4	5
4. die park is moet sien besienswaardigheid is / <i>its status as a must-see destination</i>	1	2	3	4	5
5. die park is 'n waarde vir geld besienswaardigheid is / <i>the park is a value-for-money destination</i>	1	2	3	4	5
6. die ontspannende omgewing en wegbreek van normale omstandighede wat dit bied / <i>the relaxing environment and escape from normal routine it offers</i>	1	2	3	4	5
7. die goed ingeligte en hoë gehalte opvoedkundige ervaringe wat dit vir die hele gesin bied / <i>the quality of well-informed educational experiences it offers to the whole family</i>	1	2	3	4	5
8. die onvergeetlike ervaring wat dit bied / <i>the memorable experience it offers</i>	1	2	3	4	5
9. die park bied verskillende produkte en dienste / <i>the park offers a variety of products and services</i>	1	2	3	4	5
10. die park bied ideale fotografie geleenthede (plante, diere en landskap) / <i>the park offers ideal photographic opportunities (animals, plants and landscape)</i>	1	2	3	4	5
11. die park is 'n ideale gesinsvakansie bestemming / <i>the park is the ideal family holiday destination</i>	1	2	3	4	5
12. 'n besoek aan die park dra by tot my welstand / <i>a visit to the park contributes to my well-being</i>	1	2	3	4	5

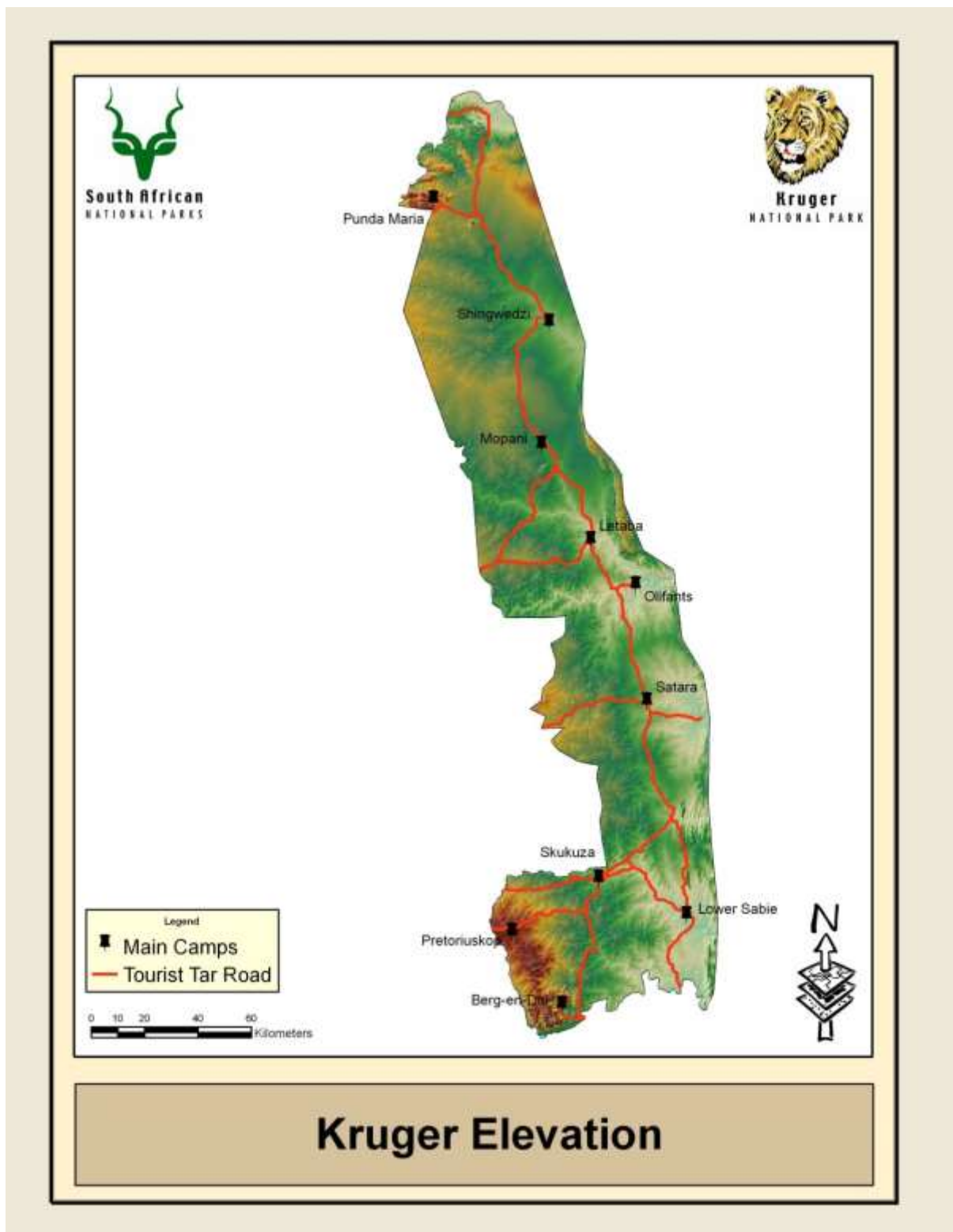
26. Enige voorstelle of aanbevelings? / *Any recommendations or suggestions?*

Dankie en geniet u besoek aan die Park! /

Thank you and enjoy your visit to the Park!

**Navorsing gedoen deur TREES, Noordwes- Universiteit,
Potchefstroomkampus in samewerking met SANParke / Research done by
TREES, North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus in collaboration with
SANParks ©Kopiereg/Copyright 2013**

Annexure B: Map of the Kruger National Park



Source:

http://www.sanparks.org/images/parks/kruger/conservation/scientific/maps/map_images/elevation.jpg

Rutendo Corporate Solutions

Believing in your potential

CERTIFICATE OF LANGUAGE EDITING AND PROOF READING

This certificate serves to confirm that, Elmari Snoer from Rutendo Corporate Solutions has proof read and edited the following PhD:

Developing a competitiveness model for South African National Parks

Author: Willy Engelbrecht.

The language editing focused on:

- Grammar and syntax
- Spelling
- Style

Any concerns or questions can be forwarded to
elmarisnoer.rutendo@gmail.com

Date of language editing / proof reading: November 2014