

# **Travel motivations of tourists to selected Marine National Parks**

**Lourien Tiedt**

**11963107**

**B.Com Honours**

**November 2011**

**Potchefstroom**

# Abstract

Tourism comprises the world's largest industry, and beaches (marine tourism) are considered as one of the major tourism attractions in the world. Marine tourism includes different aspects such as the ocean, coastal water sports, hotels and restaurants, island and beach resorts, recreation, fishing boat operators, cruise ships and charter yacht companies. One of the main contributors to marine and wildlife tourism in South Africa, is South African National Parks (SANParks), comprising of 21 national parks. Of the 21 National Parks six are marine national parks covering 4004.4 square kilometres namely West Coast, Wilderness, Tsitsikamma, Addo Elephant, Agulhas and Table Mountain National Parks. The two most known Marine National Parks in South Africa are Tsitsikamma and Addo Elephant National Parks: Addo Elephant for the fact that it is the only national park in South Africa hosting the BIG 7, namely elephant, rhino, lion, buffalo, leopard, whales and great white sharks. Tsitsikamma National Park is important as it is the first and oldest Marine National Park in Africa.

South African National Parks receive thousands of visitors each year and tourists visiting these parks are a source of revenue for national parks and by determining travel motives, marketing can be undertaken more effectively, and specific factors can be taken into account when the marketing strategies are being planned. The literature review indicated that an understanding of tourist motives is a key aspect in understanding tourist behaviour. If the travel motives of tourists are known to product owners, in the case of South African National Parks, they will assist the product owner with product development as well as its marketing strategy. By understanding tourist behaviour one can understand why tourists buy certain products and why they make certain decisions. Tourist behaviour can be analysed in terms of the purchasing process a tourist goes through when making a decision. Different tourists will have different decision making processes and will have different motives for buying different products and services. To be able to understand how buyers proceed through the decision making process one has to look at the tourist decision-making process which consists of different influences like demographic factors, the marketing mix, internal/ psychological, external/social and situational factors.

From the literature review, the following travel motivations theories were identified: Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Murray's classification of needs, Mill and Morrison's needs and wants theory, Push and Pull theories and the Sun lust and Wanderlust theory. It was found in the literature review that there are some travel motives that are found in most of the nature based destinations such as "relaxation and escape", "learn about nature" and

“park attributes” to name but a few. The research, however, also found that travel motives are closely linked to what these destinations offer and it was also found that different marine destinations seem also to have different travel motives. The aim of this study is, therefore, to determine the travel motives of tourists to selected Marine National Parks in South Africa.

Secondary data was used to determine the visitor’s profile as well as the factor analysis on travel motives. Four hundred and eight questionnaires were administered to the Addo Elephant National Park and 495 to the Tsitsikamma National Park. The data analysis consisted of two parts, the first part was descriptive data and here the profile of the visitors to the two selected marine national parks was discussed. In the second part a factor analysis was conducted. The aim of a factor analysis is to reduce the data and to assist in the interpretation of the data. A factor analysis further describes the variance-covariance relationship among a number of variables in terms of a few underlying but unobservable random quantities, called factors. For this research a principal axis factor analysis with Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation rotation was performed on the 22 travel motive items.

The visitors’ profiles for both the parks were quite similar except for the following: The largest percentage of the visitors to Tsitsikamma National Park were Afrikaans speaking and not as in the case of Addo Elephant National Park most tourists were English speaking, The major markets for Addo Elephant National Park, were the Western and Eastern Cape Provinces and for the Tsitsikamma National Park the major markets were Gauteng and the Western Cape Provinces. The factor analysis regarding travel motives revealed the following four factors: Education and knowledge seeking, Relaxation and escape, Park attributes and Family togetherness.

A comparison was done regarding the travel motives of tourists to the two national parks to determine if there were any differences. A small to medium effect size was found for “relax and escape” and “education and learning about wildlife”, therefore, a small to medium statistical significant difference were found.

This research confirmed that different marine destinations have different travel motives. Therefore, marketers can use this information and focus on individual marketing for each park based on the products they offer.

*Keywords: Tsitsikamma National Park, Addo Elephant National Park, Marine national parks, Ecotourism, Market segmentation, Wildlife tourism, travel motives.*

## Opsomming

Toerisme word beskou as die wêreld se grootste industrie. Strande (marine toerisme) word beskou as een van die vernaamste toerisme aanskoulikhede in die wêreld. Marine toerisme sluit verskillende aspekte soos die oseaan (see), seekus gebaseerde watersport, hotelle en restaurante, eilande en strandoorde, ontspanning, diepsee hengeloperateurs, plesierbote en die verhuring van seilskepe in. Die Suid Afrikaanse Nasionale Parkeraad (SANParke), bestaande uit 21 nasionale parke, lewer een van die vernaamste bydraes tot die marine-en natuurlewe toerisme in Suid Afrika. Ses van hierdie Nasionale Parke is mariene parke wat 4004.4 vierkante meter beslaan. Hulle is die volgende: die Weskus-, Wildernis-, Tsitsikamma-, Addo Olifant-, Agulhas- en Tafelberg Nasionale Parke. Twee van die bekendste Marine Nasionale Parke in Suid Afrika is die Tsitsikamma- en die Addo Olifant Nasionale Park. Die Addo Olifant Nasionale Park vir die feit dat dit die enigste nasionale park in Suid Afrika is wat die GROOT 7(BIG 7) huisves, naamlik olifant, renoster, leeu, buffel, luiperd, walvis en groot wit doodshaai. Die Tsitsikamma Nasionale Park vir die feit dat dit die eerste en oudste Mariene Nasionale Park in Afrika is.

Suid Afrikaanse Nasionale Parke word jaarliks deur duisende toeriste besoek en is dan ook 'n belangrike bron van inkomste vir nasionale parke. Deur te bepaal wat die motief/we vir reis is, kan bemaking meer effektief onderneem word en spesifieke faktore kan in aanmerking geneem word wanneer bemakingstrategieë beplan word. 'n Literatuuroorsig het aangetoon dat die motief vir toer/reis 'n sleutelrol het in die verstaan van toeriste se gedrag. As die reismotiewe van toeriste aan produkeienaars, in die geval die Suid Afrikaanse Parkeraad bekend is, sal dit die produkeienaar help met die ontwikkeling en bemakingstrategie van hul produk. Deur die toeris se gedrag/optrede te verstaan sal verstaan word hoekom toeriste sekere produkte koop en waarom hulle sekere besluite neem. Toerisme gedrag kan geanaliseer word in terme van die koopproses waardeur 'n toeris gaan alvorens 'n produk aangekoop word. Verskillende toeriste sal deur verskillende besluitnemingsprosesse gaan en hulle sal almal verskillende motiewe/redes hê waarom verskillende produkte en dienste verkies word. Om te verstaan hoe kopers deur die besluitnemingsproses vorder, moet na die toeris se besluitnemingsproses gekyk word. Dit behels demografiese faktore, die bemakingsmengsel, interne/sielkundige-, eksterne/sosiale- en omstandigheidsfaktore, wat almal 'n invloed kan hê.

Uit die literatuuroorsig is die volgende teorieë as motivering vir reis geïdentifiseer: Maslow se hiërgie van behoeftes, Murray se klassifisering van behoeftes, Mill and Morrison se behoeftes en gebreksteorie, Push and Pull teorieë en die Sun Lust and Wanderlust teorie.

In die literatuuroorsig is gevind dat daar sekere reismotiewe is wat gevind kan word in die natuur gebaseerde bestemmings soos 'ontspan en ontvlug', 'leer oor die natuur', en 'eienskappe van die park', om maar 'n paar te noem. Die navorsing het egter ook gevind dat reismotiewe gekoppel is aan wat hierdie bestemmings bied asook dat verskillende mariene bestemmings verskillende reismotiewe het. Die doel met hierdie studie is om te bepaal wat die reismotiewe van toeriste wat Nasionale Marine Parke in Suid Afrika kies, is. Sekondêre data om die besoekersprofiel en die faktoranalise te bepaal, is gebruik. Vierhonderd en agtvraelyste is van die Addo Olifant Nasionale Park en 495 vir die Tsitsikamma Nasionale Park, teruggekry. Die data analise het uit twee dele bestaan, naamlik die eerste deel was beskrywende data en hier is die profiel van die besoeker aan die twee gekose marine parke bespreek. In die tweede deel is 'n faktoranalise uitgevoer. Die doel van 'n faktoranalise is om die data te verminder en om in die interpretasie daarvan te help. Verder beskryf 'n faktoranalise die variansie-kovariansie verhouding tussen 'n aantal veranderlikes in terme van 'n paar onderliggende maar onopmerklike toevallige kwaliteite, genoem faktore. Vir hierdie rede is 'n hoofas faktoranalise met Oblimin Kaiser Normalisation-rotasie uitgevoer op die 22 reismotiewe items. Die faktoranalise (Pattern matrix) het vier faktore geïdentifiseer.

Die besoekersprofiel vir beide die parke was baie dieselfde behalwe vir die volgende: die grootste persentasie van besoekers aan die Tsitsikamma Nasionale Park was Afrikaanssprekend, maar in die Addo Olifant Nasionale Park was die meeste Engelssprekend. Die grootste mark vir die Addo Olifant Nasionale Park was die Wes Kaap en Oos Kaap Provinsies, maar die Tsitsikamma Nasionale Park se grootse mark kom uit Gauteng en die Wes Kaap Provinsies. Die faktoranalise rakende reismotiewe het die volgende vier faktore aan die lig gebring: opvoeding en die soeke na kennis, ontspanning en ontvlugting, eienskappe van die betrokke park en die saamwees van familie. 'n Vergelyking is uitgevoer om te bepaal of daar verskille in die reismotiewe van toeriste na die twee nasionale parke bestaan. 'n Klein tot medium gevolg grote is gevind in die 'ontspan en ontvlug' en 'opvoeding en inwin van kennis oor die natuurlewe' groep, dus is 'n klein tot medium statistiese betekenisvolle verskil gevind.

Hierdie navorsing het bevestig dat verskillende mariene bestemmings verskillende reismotiewe het. Bemerkers kan dus hierdie inligting gebruik en fokus op individuele bemerking vir elke park, gebaseer op die produkte wat hulle aanbied.

Sleutelwoorde: Tsitsikamma Nasionale Park, Addo Olifant Nasionale Park, Marine Nasionale Parke, Ekotoerisme, Mark segmentasie, Natuurlewe toerisme, reismotivering.

# Acknowledgements

The author would like to thank the National Research Foundation (NRF), who made it financially possible to run this project. Without the NRF's assistance, the project would not have been feasible and successful and to the South African National Parks for supporting this research and for making this research possible.

# Acknowledgements

- Firstly, and above all, I give thanks to my Father in Heaven for the inspiration to complete this dissertation.
- Thank you to my parents for always believing in me, and for Gareth for the encouragement.
- A special thanks to Prof. Peet van der Merwe for his motivation and support.
- I would like to thank the NRF for the financial support to make this study possible.
- A special thanks to SANParks, for supporting the research on National Parks.
- I am grateful to Dr. S. Ellis (Statistical Department, NWU), thank you for replying to all the emails and the help.
- Thank you to Prof L.A. Greyvenstein for the language editing.

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## List of Abbreviations

SANParks: South African National Parks Board

ATKV: Afrikaanse Taal en Kultuur Vereniging

AENP: Addo Elephant National Park

TNP: Tsitsikamma National Park

MPAs: Marine Protected Areas

DEAT: Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism

IUCN: International Union for Conservation of Nature

WHS: World Heritage Site

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

TBCSA: Tourism Business Council of South Africa

FEDHASA: Federated Hospitality Association of South Africa

SATSA: South African Tourism Service Association

NTO: National Tourism Organisation

SAT: South African Tourism

# Chapter 1:

## Introduction and Problem statement

### 1.1 Introduction

Tourism comprises the world's largest industry, and beaches (marine tourism) are considered as one of the major tourism attractions in the world (Phillips & House, 2008:176). Marine tourism includes different aspects such as the ocean, coastal water sports, hotels and restaurants, island and beach resorts, recreation, fishing boat operators, cruise ships and charter yacht companies (Van der Merwe, Slabbert & Saayman, 2010). Marine protected areas are defined as: Any area intertidal or sub tidal terrain, together with its overlying water and associated flora, fauna, historical and cultural features, which have been reserved by law or other effective means to protect part or all of the enclosed environment (Kelleher & Kenchington, 1992).

One of the main contributors to marine and wildlife tourism in South Africa, is South African National Parks (hereafter referred to as: SANParks), comprising of 21 national parks. Of the 21 national parks six are marine national parks covering 4004.4 square kilometres (namely West Coast-, Wilderness, Tsitsikamma, Addo Elephant, Agulhas and Table Mountain National Parks (SANParks, 2009). The two most known marine national parks in South Africa are the Tsitsikamma and the Addo Elephant National Parks: Addo Elephant for the fact that it is the only national park in South Africa hosting the BIG 7, (namely elephant, rhino, lion, buffalo, leopard, whales and great white sharks.) and Tsitsikamma National Park is important as it is the first and oldest marine national park in Africa (SANParks, 2009).

The Tsitsikamma National Park was proclaimed in 1964, and covers 80 km of rocky coastline, consisting of spectacular landscapes with mountainous region covered in fynbos. This is one of the largest single units of "no take" (including fishing) Marine Protected Areas (MPA) in the world, conserving 11% of South Africa's Temperate South Coast rocky shoreline. The Addo Elephant National Park was proclaimed in 1931. The coastal area of the Addo Elephant National Park was proclaimed in 2005 and stretches between the Sundays River mouth and the Bushman's River mouth, and includes the Alexandria Dunefield – the largest and least degraded coastal dune field in the southern hemisphere. Part of the Addo Elephant National Park is Bird Island and St Croix Island in Algoa Bay. A Marine Protected Area (MPA) was proclaimed around Bird Island to protect important marine resources such as abalone.

South African National Parks receives many visitors each year and tourists visiting these parks are a source of revenue for SANParks. By determining travel motives, marketing can

be undertaken more effectively, and specific factors can be taken into account when the marketing strategies are being planned (Saayman, 2006; Law, Cheung & Lo, 2004). Kruger (2008) states that identifying travel motives is a “must know” for national parks to ensure that a competitive product is provided. The aim of this study is, therefore, to determine the travel motives of tourists to the above selected marine national parks in South Africa.

The purpose of this chapter is to determine the problem statement and objectives of the study. This chapter address the following aspects: literature review and problem statement, method of research, primary and secondary objectives, chapter classification and clarification of key word or concepts.

## **1.2 Problem statement**

Knowledge of visitors travel motivations and their association with destination selection, plays a critical role in predicting future travel patterns. Tourism motivation can be defined as ‘the global integration network of biological and cultural forces which gives value and direction to travel choices, behaviour and experience’ (Pearce, Morrison & Rutledge, 1998). Dann (1981:205) defines travel motives: as ‘a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor of a group of actors to travel’. Once an individual is aware of a potentially satisfying situation, a sequence of motivated behaviour is initiated with the goal of reaching that satisfied state (Iso-Ahola, 1982:256-262). Mill and Morison (1985:402) support the notion that motives play a very important role in the process of travelling. Travel motives comes into play when a person wants to satisfy a need and must take action to do so. Mill and Morison (1985:402) stated further that behaviour of tourists is influenced by a small number of factors, and a person can be motivated by more than one motive at a time.

Fodness (1994:557) stated that the effective tourism marketing is impossible without an understanding of the tourists’ travel motives, or, to put it differently, to know the answer to the question of *what motivates people to travel?*. The aim of marketing, according to Saayman (2006:27), is the effective and efficient use of resources in the changing environment of today, in order to ensure the profit, survival and growth of the tourism organisation/destination. As countries and destinations strive to increase their share of the international and national tourism market, it becomes important to understand why people travel and why they choose a specific ecotourism destination (Oh, Uysal & Weaver, 1995:123-137). Fodness (1994:557) adds that further insight into tourists’ travel motives can benefit tourism marketing, specifically with regard to product development, service quality evaluation, image development and potential activities.

People who live in cities, for example, are motivated to travel as tourists to wilderness areas because they need to escape from an artificial, monotonous environment. (Dann

(1977) and Matley(1976) as cited in Mansfeld (1992:399). Gray's travel-motivation theory, as noted by Mansfeld (1992:399), gives two motives why people go to natural settings. The first motive is the desire to go from a known to an unknown place called, in Gray's theory, 'wanderlust'. Secondly, a place "which can provide the traveler with specific facilities that do not exist in his or her own place of residence", referred in Gray's theory as 'sun lust' (Mansfeld, 1992:399). Although travel motives are only one variable explaining tourist behaviour, it is regarded as one of the most important variables because it is an impelling and compelling force behind all behaviour (Crompton, 1997; Iso Ahola, 1982:256-262).

It is further stated that travel motives can be based on push and pull factors. Internal motivators will include factors like the desire for escape, rest, relaxation, prestige, health and fitness, adventure and social interaction. External motivators are based on attractiveness of the destination, including tangible resources (beach, recreational activities and cultural attractions) and travellers perceptions and expectations (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994:844-846).

For South African National Parks to have an advantage over their competitors, effective and efficient utilisation of resources play a significant role. Hence attracting the right market is paramount (Phillips, 2009). One means of achieving this, according to Kruger (2008), is a greater understanding of travel motives of visitors/tourists since this will assist in the planning and management of tourism products, developments, and the marketing thereof (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Uysal, McDonald and Martin (1994) confirm this by stating that to market/manage a tourism product effectively, it is essential to generate more specific knowledge about visitors' travel motivations to parks and natural areas.

As a result the field of this research is directly linked to nature-based tourism. Research focusing on travel motivations to nature areas/ national parks were extracted. Subsequently examples of studies that have been done on travel motivations to nature areas/national parks are listed below:

Tao, Eagles and Smith (2004)	Travel motives of Asian tourists travelling to Taiwan's Toroko National Park
Uysal <i>et al.</i> (1994)	Travel motives of Australian tourists to US National Parks and nature areas
Rhodes (2005:1-10)	Analysed the travel motives of tourists travelling to natural areas in general
Saayman and Van der Merwe (2007)	Study about tourists travel motives to Kruger National Park in South Africa
Pearce and Wilson (1995:25-25)	Studied the travel motives of tourists viewing

	wildlife in New Zealand
Kruger and Saayman (2008)	Study of travel motives of tourists to Tsitsikamma and Kruger National Park
Van der Merwe, Saayman and Bothma (2010)	Study of travel motives as a key aspect in managing National Parks such as Karoo, Tsitsikamma and Kgalagadi Transfrontier National Park

From the above mentioned research it was found that some travel motives are universal like relaxation, excitement, family and socialising. Different travel motives were also found for tourists visiting nature areas due to the differences in products found at the destinations. Previous studies state learning about nature, to be free, being physically active, relaxing atmosphere, the nature and wildlife experience, photographic opportunities and nostalgia, to name but a few. The most consistent motives across the board were: education/learning about nature.

From the literature review three studies were found that have been conducted on travel motivations to marine national parks, namely those of Barison (1997) which focuses on the trends and prospects of the marine tourism industry as well as Kruger and Saayman (2008) and Van der Merwe *et al.* (2010) who did a study on travel motivations of tourists to selected marine destinations. These studies highlighted the following travel motives; culture, pleasure seeking/fantasy, relaxation, physical attributes, climate, destination attractiveness, adventure, personal attachment, site attributes, excitement, nature and peacefulness, education/learning about nature, participating in recreational activities and social contact.

From the above mentioned it was also discovered that different marine attractions do have different travel motives. Therefore, the question that can be asked is how would the travel motives of tourists to the Addo Elephant National Park compare to that of the Tsitsikamma National Park? Will they be different or correspond as a result of different products offered by the two parks as discussed earlier? As seen in the literature review, there are some travel motives that are basically found in all nature based destinations such as relaxation and escape to name but a few, however different marine destinations seem also to have different travel motives, as a result SANParks needs to determine the travel motives of tourists to each of their parks to develop marketing strategies that suit parks with different products. Therefore, to determine the travel motives to the two selected marine national parks are important for South African National Parks for product development and to develop better marketing strategies, for each (Saayman, 2006; Law *et al.*, 2004:355-362).

Kruger (2008) states that identifying travel motives are a “must know” for national parks to ensure a competitive advantage.

Therefore, the problem that arises is determining what motivates tourists to travel to the two selected Marine National Parks?

### **1.3 Primary and Secondary Objectives of the study**

The following primary and secondary objectives have been set for the study.

#### **1.3.1 Primary objective**

To determine the travel motives of tourists to selected marine national parks.

#### **1.3.2 Secondary objective**

The following secondary objectives are set for the study:

##### **Objective 1**

To conduct a literature analysis regarding travel behaviour and motives of tourists by means of a literature analysis.

##### **Objective 2**

To analyse literature on travel motives in the tourism industry with special reference to marine destinations.

##### **Objective 3**

To determine the travel motives of tourists to selected Marine National Parks by means of an empirical analysis.

##### **Objective 4**

To draw conclusions and make recommendations with regard to this study.

### **1.4 Research methodology**

#### **1.4.1 Literature Study**

A literature study was based on specific keywords: travel motives, travel motivations, National Park and marine. The theoretical framework of travel motives was investigated. This was done by means of analyses of journal articles, theses, newspaper articles, books and other tourism related literature. Information searches were conducted mainly through library catalogues as well as the Internet. Since an intensive literature study as well as an empirical survey (it was facilitated using questionnaires) were used, this study will incorporate both primary and secondary sources.

## 1.4.2 Empirical Survey

### 1.4.2.1 Research design and method of collecting data

Descriptive research was conducted by means of handing out questionnaires at the Tsitsikamma and Addo Elephant National Parks. A quantitative research study was conducted. Conducting a survey of a visitor is of high value to develop an accurate set of data that may be interrogated to more identifiable issues such as a demographic profile, visitors' perceptions and experiences (Prideaux & Crosswell, 2006:368)

### 1.4.2.2 Selection of the sampling frame

The secondary data were collected over a time period of four years (2005-2008) for Tsitsikamma National Park which added up to a total of 495 questionnaires. In the case of the Addo Elephant National Park, 442 questionnaires were completed during the same time frame. According to Saayman and Fouchè (2007:39), this number of questionnaires is sufficient due to the fact that the data revealed a similar pattern each year: therefore, it can be seen trustworthy. The secondary research was based on surveys conducted by the Institute for Tourism and Leisure Studies as indicated below in Tables 1.1 and 1.2.

**Table 1.1: Total number of questionnaires completed from 2005-2008 in the Tsitsikamma National Park**

Year	Month	Total
2005	November	83
2006	July	64
2007	June	41
2007	December	151
2008	April	156

**Table 1.2: Total number of questionnaires completed from 2005-2008 in the Addo Elephant National Park**

Year	Month	Total
2005	November	67
2006	July	91
2006	November	50
2007	July	68
2007	November	122
2008	November	112

### **1.4.2.3 Sampling method**

A non-probability sampling method was followed and availability sampling was conducted (for the primary and secondary data). The surveys consisted of a self administered questionnaire. The field workers were trained to ensure that they understood the aim of the study as well as the questionnaire.

Questionnaires were handed out by trained field workers every evening between 18:00 and 20:00 at the selected camps in the selected national parks. This was done due to the fact that most tourists were then at their accommodation unit. Questionnaires were distributed amongst the tourists staying in both the chalets and camping sites and collected an hour later.

### **1.5.2.4 Development of Questionnaires**

The Institute for Tourism and Leisure Studies at the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus developed the questionnaire.

The questionnaire used to survey visitors to the Tsitsikamma and Addo Elephant National Parks consisted of three sections. In Section A, socio-demographic details were surveyed, Section B focused on the economic impact and motivational factors and Section C of the questionnaire consisted of more detailed information about the consumer.

### **1.5.2.5 Data Analysis**

Microsoft Excel was used for data capturing and basic data analysis. The data analysis consisted of two parts. The first part was descriptive data and here the profile of the visitors to the two selected Marine National Parks was discussed. In the second part a factor analysis was conducted. The Statistical Service at the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus, assisted in the processing of the data. The aim of a factor analysis is to reduce the data and to assist in the interpretation of the data. A factor analysis further describes the variance-covariance relationship among a number of variables in terms of a few underlying but unobservable random quantities, called factors.

The factor model can be grouped according to their correlations. That is, all variables in a particular group are highly correlated among themselves, but small correlations with variables in a different group. If this is the case, it is conceivable that each group of variables represents a single underlying factor that is responsible for the observed correlations. It is this type of structure that a factor analysis seeks to confirm (Johnson & Wichern, 2002).

A pattern matrix of the principal component factor analysis using an Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalisation was performed (on 22 motives) in order to explain the variance-covariance structure of a set of variables through a few linear groupings of these variables.

The mean value for each factor was calculated. The mean scores can be interpreted on the original 5-point Likers Scale of measurement. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient was also examined for each factor to check the reliability of the data. The Cronbach Alpha values were above .4 which shows consistency among the items measured.

## **1.5 Definitions of key concepts**

The following concepts are defined:

### **1.5.1 Marine tourism**

Marine tourism includes those recreational activities that involve travel away from one's place of residence and which have as their host of focus the marine environment (where the marine environment is defined as those waters which are saline and tide-affected) (Orams,1999:9, Singh, 2008:261)

### **1.5.2 Travel motivation**

A motivation is something which drives people to make decisions. Travel motivations are need or wants that drive tourists to make a decision about a specific destination (Saayman, 2001:12). Motivation in a general sense is that which influences the arousal, selection, direction and maintenance of all human behaviour. Motivation is this energy to study, to learn and achieve and to maintain these positive behaviours over time. Motivation is what stimulates tourists to acquire, transform and use knowledge (Groccia, 1992:20).

### **1.5.3 National parks**

South African National Parks (SANParks), manages a system of parks which represents the indigenous fauna, flora, landscapes and associated cultural heritage of the country. Of all the national parks, most have overnight tourist facilities, with an unrivalled variety of accommodation in arid, coastal, mountain and bushveld habitats. National parks offer visitors an unparalleled diversity of adventure tourism opportunities, which include game viewing, bush walks canoeing and exposure to cultural and historical experiences (SANParks, 2009).

### **1.5.4 Wildlife tourism**

Wildlife tourism is tourism undertaken to view and/or encounter wildlife. It can take place in a range of settings, from captive, semi-captive to in the wild, and it encompasses a variety of interactions from passive observation to feeding and/or touching the species viewed. When wildlife tourism occurs in natural areas it is referred to as tourism in the wild (Newson, Dowling & Moore, 2005: 18-20).

### 1.5.5 Ecotourism

Ecotourism is tourism that involves travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas (Ceballos-Lascrain,1991:25). According to Honey (1999:25) ecotourism is travelling to fragile, pristine and usually protected areas that strive to low impact and (usually) small scale.

### 1.5.6 Addo Elephant National Park

The original elephant section of the park was proclaimed in 1931, when only eleven elephants remained in the area - today this finely tuned ecosystem is sanctuary to over 450 elephants, Cape buffalo, black rhino, a variety of antelope species, as well as the unique flightless dung beetle are found almost exclusively in Addo Elephant National Park. Addo Elephant National Park has only just begun with plans to expand the 164 000 ha Addo Elephant National Park into a 360 000 ha mega-park. In addition, plans include the proposed proclamation of a 120 000 ha (296 500 acre) marine reserve that includes islands that are home to the world's largest breeding populations of Cape gannets and second largest breeding population of African penguins (SANParks, 2010).



Figure 1.1: Map of Addo Elephant National Park (Source: SANParks)

### 1.5.7 Tsitsikamma National Park

Tsitsikamma National Park is a marine park situated close to the town of Tsitsikamma and NatureValley, some 615km from Cape Town, 195km from Port Elizabeth and 68km from PlettenbergBay. Tsitsikamma National Park is situated in the heart of the Garden Route, founded in the Southern Cape of South Africa. The Park consists of 80 km of rocky coastline with impressive sea and landscapes, secluded valleys covered in mountain Fynbos and temperate high forests with deep river gorges leading down to the sea. The Tsitsikamma's spectacular scenery includes the Indian Ocean breakers, pounding rock cliffs, evergreen forests and fynbos. Tsitsikamma National Park is South Africa's third-most, frequently visited national park, making it one of the few National Parks where tourism revenue is adequately able to match the comprehensive expenses associated with conservation (SANParks, 2010)



Figure 1.2: Map of Tsitsikamma National Park (Source: SANParks)

### 1.6 Chapter classification

This study consists of five chapters. The following gives a brief outline of what the reader can expect from each of the chapters.

#### **Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement**

This chapter focuses on the introduction, problem statement, goal and objectives, method of research and definitions of key concepts.

#### **Chapter 2: Tourist behaviour and travel motives**

In Chapter 2 a literature analysis regarding the travel behaviour of tourists is conducted. Aspects that will be covered in this chapter are the importance of understanding the travel behaviour such as the tourist decision model, and the impact that travel behaviour has on travel motives with regards to the travel motives theories of Maslow's hierarchy of needs,

Murray's classification of needs, Mill and Morrison's needs and wants theory and the Push and Pull theories.

### **Chapter 3: Marine tourism**

Aspects that will be covered in this chapter are: an overview of marine tourism, the history of marine tourism, what is marine tourism, the marine tourism environment in South Africa, looking at the Marine National Parks and Marine Protected areas and Blue Flag beaches in South Africa, components of marine tourism, marine tourism opportunities, the role players in marine tourism and the impacts of tourism.

### **Chapter 4: Empirical results**

This chapter determines the reasons why tourists visit marine national parks and the travel motives looking at the age, level of education, province of residence, marital status, number of nights stayed and the number of visitors paid for. The results of the research and findings of the factor analysis will be discussed. A comparison will also be drawn up between these two parks.

### **Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations**

This chapter consists of conclusions drawn from the discussion in the foregoing chapters. Recommendations are made to SANParks. In this chapter, a summary will give the importance of determining travel motives, as well as a summary of the main issues that need to be considered when doing so.

## **Chapter 2:**

### **Tourist behaviour and travel motives**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

Tourist behaviour can be seen as the reason why tourists buy certain products, visit certain destinations and how their decisions are made (du Plessis & Rousseau, 1999:3). Marketers will optimize their effectiveness and efficiency of marketing strategies if they understand how tourists' decisions to purchase tourism products and services, are made. As the tourism industry matures and becomes more successful, marketing practices will increasingly be based on solid knowledge of tourists' behaviour (Dimanche & Havitz, 1994:52). Tourist behaviour has a major influence on the tourists' travel motivations and goes hand in hand (Kinneer, Berhardt & Krentler, 1995:180).

According to Saayman (2001:12), by determining the travel motives, marketing can be done more effectively and specific factors can be taken into account when marketing strategies are planned. This could further lead to a competitive advantage, vital in South Africa's very competitive tourism market (Uys & Saayman, 2004).

Understanding the tourists' motivations for visiting a particular area (in this case a National Park) can ultimately help entice more tourists to visit the area (Fodness, 1994). Further insights into tourists' travel motivation can benefit tourism marketers specifically with regard to market segmentation, product development, service quality evaluation, image development, and promotional activities (Fodness, 1994; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Kozak 2002).

Therefore, the aim of this chapter is to conduct a theoretical analysis regarding tourist behaviour and travel motivations. By determining the tourist behaviour, product owners will be able to understand the travel motives of the tourist better. The remainder of the chapter will focus on the following: tourists' decision-making process and determinants of tourist behaviour. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Murray's classification system, travel motivational theories and previous research conducted on travel motives will be analysed and discussed.

#### **2.2 Tourist behaviour**

According to Boveè and Thill (1992:150), tourist behaviour encompasses all the actions that are involved in the selecting, purchasing, using and disposing of tourism products. A tourist's buying behaviour refers specifically to the actions the tourists take when they

decide what to buy, and when making the actual purchase of a tourism product (Boveè & Thill, 1992:150).

It is important to define and understand the term tourist, to understand tourist behaviour better. A tourist is defined as a temporary visitor staying for at least 24 hours in a region for the purpose of leisure, business, visiting family and friends, or meetings and conferences (Reisinger, 2009:xviii) and tourist behaviour can be defined as the reason why tourists buy certain products, and how they make certain decisions (Peter & Olsen, 1994:32).

Crompton (1979) observed that it is possible to describe tourist behaviour and to classify a tourist, but it is more difficult to answer the question “why”, the key factor underlying all tourist behaviour. Several researchers such as Crompton (1997), Fodness (1994) and Iso Ahola (1982) have seen motivation as the driving force behind all actions of tourists. Motivation is then an initial point in studying tourist behaviour and beyond that for understanding systems of tourism (Gunn, 1988; Mill & Morrison 1985).

According to Hollensen (2003:113), the market for a producer or service provider is where the product or service is sold or delivered and profits are generated. By understanding and knowing tourists in terms of numbers and statistics, and explaining ‘how’ and ‘why’ they buy certain tourism products, one determines behaviour (Quester, McGuiggan, Perreault & McCarthy, 2004:180).

Organisations often consider the consumer’s wants and needs, but also rely on what motivates them to buy their products and services (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:6-7). According to Hall and Page (2006:69), no two individuals are alike and differences in attitudes, perceptions and motivations have an important influence of travel decisions.

Tourists make a number of buying decisions every day (Kotler & Armstrong, 2006:137), tourists base their decisions of where to go on holiday, on what they believe others expect them to go and visit. Understanding the consumer’s needs and buying process is the foundation of successful marketing. By understanding how buyers proceed through the decision making process, the various participants in the buying procedure, and the major influences on buying behaviour, marketers can acquire many clues about how to meet buyer’s needs. The next part focuses on the Tourist Behaviour Model.

### **2.3 Tourist Behaviour Model**

Tourist behaviour is a process rather than a distinct act (Kinnear, Berhardt & Krentler, 1995:180); in fact, tourist behaviour (see Figure 2.1) can be seen as a series of acts. According to Kinnear *et al.* (1995:180), tourist behaviour can be analysed in terms of the purchase decision process and the series of stages a tourist goes through in deciding whether to buy a product or service or not. What makes tourist behaviour even more difficult to understand is the fact that the process used by the tourist when making purchases decisions varies considerably (Hollensen, 2003:116).

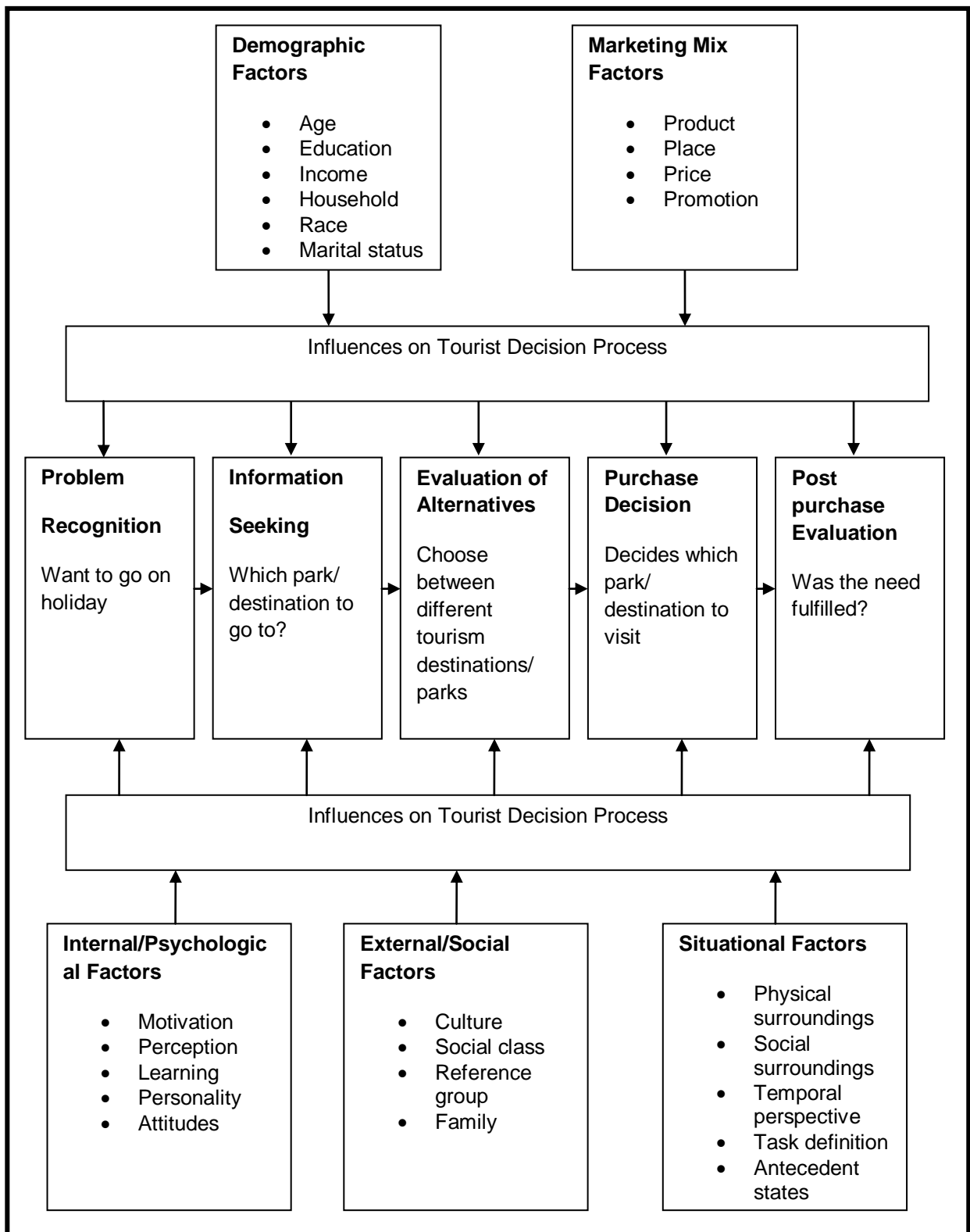


Figure 2.1. Expanded model of tourist behaviour (Adapted from Kinneer et al., 1995:177)

The Tourist Decision Process is made up of different stages:

- *Problem Recognition* – The process starts with problem recognition. Problem recognition takes place when tourists realize they need to do something to get to a

normal state of comfort. A tourist would realise the need to go on holiday due to motives which may drive him/her for example to rest and relaxation /adventure /visit friends and relatives (VFR) or to experience nature (Sheth & Krishnan, 2003:150, Bowen & Clarke, 2009:223).

- *Information Seeking* –The second stage of the process is described by Kinnear *et al.* (1995:181) as the identification of alternate ways of problem solution. According to Jobber (2004:70), the search can either be internal (for example, scanning one's memory to check what product or brand was bought when the last purchase decision occurred, including potential solutions, methods of comparing solutions, reference to personal experiences and marketing communications) (Sheth & Krishnan, 2003:151; Jobber, 2004:70), or external (being influenced by personal sources such as: friends, family, work colleagues and/or commercial sources, such as: advertisements and salespeople) (Jobber, 2004:71). Psychology wise this is also seen as a subconscious search for information. During the information seeking stage of the process, previous destinations visited, as well as new alternatives are identified. Tourist do engage in information searching before undertaking a trip, and the web has brought about a shift in the information seeking behaviour of tourists (Calero, Munoz & Moraga, 2008:531).
- *Evaluation of Alternatives* – This stage according to Jobber (2004) identifies the first step of evaluation as reducing the amount of potential alternatives, as mentioned under the previous stage, to a smaller set of brands which would then be in line for serious consideration before making a purchase. Evaluation of alternatives is a corner stone if any decision making process. The evaluation stage involves the selection of one option among the set of alternatives by using a specific decision strategy or a combination (Kozak & Decrop, 2009, 67). Jobber (2004) further states that a key determinant of the extent to which tourists evaluate a brand is their level of involvement and describes involvement as the degree of perceived relevance and personal importance accompanying the brand choice. After careful consideration, a choice will then be made by the tourist, which are processes described by Sheth and Krishnan (2003:152) as the choice models. This stage also focuses on which destinations would satisfy most of the needs identified. If nature and game-viewing are high on the priority list it will be considered as a stronger choice of destination compared to a resort like Afrikaanse Taal en Kultuur Vereniging (ATKV).
- *Purchase Decision* – Bothma (2009:29) and Sheth and Krishnan (2003:153) state that during this stage the chosen alternative from the previous step is formalised by the physical transaction, the product gets purchased and the tourist takes possession of the product

- *Post-purchase Evaluation* – this is the final stage of the decision-making process, and perhaps also the most important - the evaluation of the decision made. Armario (2008:368) declares that the fundamental premise behind these ideas is that the thoughts, decisions, and behaviour patterns for one activity bear upon the thoughts, decisions, and behaviour patterns for a host of activities. This also highlights the importance of visitor satisfaction for successful destination marketing as Yoon and Uysal (2005:47) so rightly state, because it influences the choice of destination, the consumption of products and services, and, especially valid to this discussion: the decision to return

Different buyers may engage in different types of decision-making processes depending on how highly involved they are with the product (tourism destination). Tourist buying behaviour, according to Drummond and Ensor (2005:69), relates to the end tourist, the individual who purchases products and services for personal consumption. The characteristics affecting tourist behaviour are illustrated in Figure 2.1. The following factors do influence the tourist decision-making process, namely: Demographic factors: age, income, education, household, race and marital status; The Marketing Mix includes the following variables: price, product, place and promotion and internal factors such as motivation, perception, learning, personality and attitude. External factors include culture, Social class, reference groups and family. Situational factors include physical surroundings, social surroundings, temporal perspective and task definition. All of these factors can influence tourists' decisions to buy a certain product or service. Figure 2.1 explain the characteristics affecting tourist behaviour.

### **2.3.1 Demographic factors:**

- Age: Age is an important factor for segmenting the market as well as to influence the consumer behaviour (Jain, 2009:121-137). The requirement for children is different from those of teenagers. If one takes age as a factor, youth tourism and the student market are characterised by tourism offers such as gap travel, backpacking and activity holidays. The silver market, or consumers over 55 years, has entirely different preferences when it comes to choosing a holiday (Robinson, Heitmann & Dieke, 2011:33). Therefore one can say that different age groups have different preferences.
- Education: Education widens a person's horizon. An educated person is more inclined toward advertisements than less educated ones (Jain, 2009:121-137). From the research conducted by The Institute for Tourism and Leisure on South African

National Parks since 2001 to 2010, it was found that the biggest percentage of visitors do have a degree or diploma or were post graduates (Van der Merwe, Scholtz & Saayman, 2010:9)

- Income: Income is the most important economic factor which may influence the consumer demand. There are many products in the market which the consumers want to buy but the income will not allow it. Thus current income decides the economic power of the consumer. If the income expectation of the consumer is weak, they will spend less and save more. There are different types of income namely, personal income, disposable income, discretionary income and family income:
  - Personal income: an increase in personal income usually increases the level of consumption and vice-versa. Personal income has a direct impact on the buying behaviour of any person
  - Disposable income: is the amount of money at the disposal of consumer for spending or saving or both after paying taxes. Any change in the disposable income will have a change in the consumer buying decision.
  - Discretionary income: is income that's available after meeting the basic needs of living such as food, clothing and shelter. An increase in discretionary income will lead to an increase in the spending by customers.
  - Family income: is the sum total of income of all the members of the family, in a joint family system it's not the income of an individual member that matters but the income of the whole family (Jain, 2009:121-137).
- Households/family: Most of the decisions made by consumers are taken within the environment of the family and are affected by the desires, attitudes and values of the other family members. Family also influences the decision-making process involved in the purchase of goods and services (Jain, 2009:121-137). Younger members of a family may have an input in where to go or which products to purchase, nonetheless, the parental subsystem retains the right of making the final decision (Hepworth, Rooney, Rooney, Storm-Gottfried & Larsen, 2010:259).
- Marital status: Changes in the family characteristics produce changes in lifestyle and dramatic changes in consumer behaviour. Family life cycle is a form of classification of family, marital status and work status of family members. There is a suggestion that men strongly dominate decisions concerning the actual date of vacation, the amount spend, the length of the stay and the price of lodging (Moutinho, 2011:100)

According to Cant *et al.* (2006:211), there are five stages in the family life cycle:

- Bachelorhood: Young, single men or women, with their own established households apart from their parents.
- Honeymooners: This stage starts after couples get married, and continues until the couple has their first child.
- Parenthood: This stage lasts until the last child leaves the house, and can also be divided into shorter phases – pre-school phase, *primary* school phase, high school phase and tertiary education phase.
- Post-parenthood: This stage is also known as the 'empty nest' stage and starts when all the children have left the household. Both parents can seek new interests, pursue their hobbies or travel, as they now have more money and time available.
- Dissolution: This stage occurs with the death of a spouse. The surviving spouse tends to lead a more economical life.

### **2.3.2 Marketing Mix factors**

The following marketing mixed factors play a role regarding tourist behaviour:

- Product: The study of consumer behaviour should indicate the types of products or services that will be successful. This can be extended into detailed product attributes and packaging decisions, including after sales service. It is crucial to look at the quality of the product and services, and the need to look at quality and its attributes from the perspective of the decision-making unit (Lancaster & Massingham, 2011:64-66).
- Price: Relationship between price and the consumer behaviour is important to the marketer. Consumers may be sensitive to price differentiations between competing brands, in that case the marketer will have to monitor competitors pricing strategies and either compete on price or try to add value to the product in another way. The marketer should, therefore, take into account the consumers' attitude towards the price of the product (Lancaster & Massingham, 2011:64-66).
- Place: These decisions concern channels of distribution from the producer to the consumer. Consumer behavioural research can indicate how many outlets there should be, and where they should be located. Research has shown that consumers like the convenience of supermarket shopping. Tourists no longer need to go into a travel agency to book a ticket as they can do it from their own home, online (Lancaster & Massingham, 2011:64-66).
- Promotion: Different consumer groups respond positively or negatively to marketing communication. Promotion can also be used to try to change a poor consumer image (Lancaster & Massingham, 2011:64-66). Promotion is the means by which

organisations communicate with present and prospective customers about their products. Effective promotion is an essential part of effective marketing (Lamb, Hair & McDaniel, 2011:14).

- Marital status: Changes in the family characteristics produce changes in lifestyles and dramatic changes in consumer behaviour.
- According to Cant *et al.* (2006:211), there are five stages in the family life cycle:
  - Bachelorhood: Young, single men or women, with their own established households apart from their parents.
  - Honeymooners: This stage starts after couples get married, and continues until the couple has their first child.
  - Parenthood: This stage lasts until the last child leaves the house, and can also be divided into shorter phases – pre-school phase, *primary* school phase, high school phase and tertiary education phase.
  - Post-parenthood: This stage is also known as the ‘empty nest’ stage and starts when all the children have left the household. Both parents can seek new interests, pursue their hobbies or travel, as they now have more money and time available.
  - Dissolution: This stage occurs with the death of a spouse. The surviving spouse tends to lead a more economical life.

The following factors also influence the tourist decision process: internal/psychological factors, external/social factors and situational factors.

### **2.3.3 Internal factors**

The internal factors which influence the decision-making process include: motivation, perception, learning, personality and attitudes.

- Motivation  
George (2008:169) and Middleton and Clarke (2001:71) state that motives are the psychological influences that affect an individual’s choices with regard to tourism, the motive to travel refers to a set of needs which cause an individual to take part in a tourism based activity (Park & Yoon, 2008:2). Motivation is the ‘Why’ of behaviour and is something that makes the individuals to act in a particular way and will be discussed in the second part of this chapter. In other words, tourists’ have certain needs that motivate them to travel, in order to satisfying these needs. Central to most content theories of motivation is the concept of need. Needs are seen as the forces that arouse motivated behaviour and it is assumed that, to understand human motivation, it is necessary to discover what needs people have and how it

can be fulfilled. From the outset, motivation has been an important topic of leisure and tourism study (Crompton, 1997; Dann, 1981; Galloway 1998; Veal 1997). Wahab (1975) suggested that the area of travel motivation is fundamental in tourism studies and basic to tourism development and will be discussed in the second part of this chapter

- Perception

Tourist perception can be defined as the process of translation of tourist information from the external world into the internal mental world that each one experiences (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999:104).

- Learning:

Learning is related to perception. Perceived information can be mentally assimilated or 'learned' in order to develop knowledge and skills that give new responses to the environment. This process of knowledge acquisition consists of storing information in the memory of associations. Those associations give birth to beliefs and feelings. For instance, a particular holiday destination may be connected with such different attributes as climate, culture, or nature as well as with how the tourist feels (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999:104).

- Personality:

Personality is a blend of characteristics that make a person unique. A person's personality determines how they are likely to respond to the environment around them and how they are likely to act in social situations. There are four main theories used to describe personality: Psychoanalytic, social-cultural, self concept and trait theories. The important one of the four, social cultural theories of personality are derived from an understanding of people's social and cultural backgrounds and context in relation to decision-making (Morgan & Summers, 2005:84).

- Attitudes:

Attitudes are learned and they are consistent, which means that while marketers have the ability to influence them, once formed they are hard to change. Attitudes ultimately guide all decision-making and like all evaluations they can range from positive to negative and can be either fiercely held or be very weak. Generally, attitudes are comprised of three elements: emotions, behaviours and thoughts, These three components interact to form overall attitudes and all components have to be consistent (Morgan & Summers, 2005:89)

### **2.3.4 External factor**

The external factors which influence the decision-making process include culture, social class, reference groups and family:

- Culture:

Culture is the complex abstract and material elements created by society. It refers to values, ideas, attitudes and meaningful symbols, as well as artefacts elaborated in a society. These elements are transmitted from one generation to another and serve to shape human behaviour. The concept of culture is broad and it is not easy to analyse the culture determination of behaviours. In the context of consumer behaviour one can regard culture as the total of learned beliefs, values and customs, including the material elements, which serve to regulate the consumption patterns of members in a particular society (Moutinho, 2011:85).

- Social class:

Within a society, an important broad factor influencing consumer behaviour is social class. This constitutes a relatively permanent division of categories in a society, a division that brings about restriction of behaviour between individuals in different classes. Social classes tend to be hierarchical but they may be dynamic. It is very likely that members of a social class will follow the standard of behaviour of that class (Moutinho, 2011:85).

- Reference group

Reference groups, including friends and relatives are also important factors in the overall decision-making process. According to Peter and Olson (1994), reference groups exert a major influence over most aspects of consumer behaviour, especially the decision-making process (Moutinho, 2011:102). Solomon (2004:366) describes three ways that reference groups influence consumers, namely informal, utilitarian and value-expressive influence:

**Informal influence:**

- The tourist (person) seeks information about various brands (Sun International, And Beyond, South African National Parks, Classic retreats) from an independent group of experts.
- The tourist seeks information from people who work with the product as a profession.
- The individual seeks knowledge and experience about a brand from reliable friends, family members and work colleagues.
- The person observes what experts do (which airline would a travel agent make use of?).

**Utilitarian influence:**

- The tourist decision to visit a certain destination, for example South African National Parks, depends on what his or her co-workers choose to do for holidays.
- The preferences of social groups influence which brands are bought.
- The preferences of family members influence the decision to purchase a certain tourism brand.
- The desire to satisfy the expectations that others might have of him or her also impacts the buying of certain brands.

**Value-expressive influence:**

- A tourist feels that a certain brand might change the image that other people might have of him, for example if he/she stays in The Palace at Sun City and not the Cabanas.
  - A tourist feels that some people that purchase a certain brand possess some characteristics he or she would like to have.
  - A tourist would like to be like the person displayed in a certain advertisement.
  - A tourist feels that some people who buy a certain brand are admired and respected by others.
- Family:  
Family is a major reference group since it is the source of most of our norms. Also, the family functions as a decision-making unit where the important decisions including consumption choices are made (Pizam & Mansfeld. 1999:111).

**2.3.5 Situational factors**

Four situational factors have an effect on the decision-making process: physical surroundings, social surroundings, task definition and temporal perspective. According to Parks, Quarterman and Thibault (2007:240), after identifying the need the consumer seeks information about the potential product and services. The consumer then develops a set of possible purchase options and evaluates each before making a purchase. The following factors will be discussed, physical surroundings, social surroundings, temporal surroundings and task definition.

- Physical surroundings  
Physical surroundings for example weather, geographical location, facilities available, advertising, etcetera, will influence buyers behaviour (Lubbe, 2003:40).
- Social surroundings

Social surroundings are the second situational variable which affects choice for example, a person's social network provides information about destinations and persuades one to visit particular places.

- Temporal surroundings

The third situational influence is the temporal perspective, such as the time of year and time constraints such as (for example) the fact that one may be forced to take holiday during school holidays (Decrop, 1999, Lubbe, 2003:41).

- Task definition

Task definition features of a situation include an intent or requirement to select, shop for, or obtain information about a general or a specific purpose (Yau & You, 1994:56).

Wahab (1975) suggested that the area of travel motivation is fundamental in tourism studies and basic to tourism development (Pearce, 2005:50) and will be discussed in the second part of this chapter.

## **2.4 Travel motives**

As countries and destinations strive to increase their share of the international and national tourism market, it becomes important to understand why people travel (travel motives) and why they choose a specific destination (tourist behaviour) (Oh, Uysal & Weaver, 1995:123). Motivation is the state of arousal or a drive or need which impels people to take part in an activity in pursuit of goals (Seaton & Bennett, 1996:66). The theory behind this definition is that once a person's goals have been achieved, the need subsides and the individual returns to a state of normality before new needs arise again. One of the most common theories of travel motives used in marketing is that of Maslow (1954:80-106), who proposed a hierarchy of individual needs.

A motivation is, therefore, something that drives one to making a decision and travel motivations are, therefore, these needs or wants that drive tourists to making a decision over a specific tourism destination (Saayman, 2001:12).

As previously mentioned many individuals who travel are able to articulate their own motivations for travelling, but the problem lies in the assumption that other tourists are also motivated by the same motives (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:242). This question "why a certain group of people choose a certain holiday experience" focuses on the similarities among groups of people and the kinds of experiences they seek (Goeldner & Ritchie,

2003:243). The following part of the chapter will focus on the most important motivation theories.

### 2.4.1 Travel motivation theories

In the next section the most important motivational theories will be discussed such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Murray's motivational theory, Dann's push and pull theory and Mill and Morrison's needs and wants theory.

- **Maslow's hierarchy of needs**

The theory of travel motivations has to begin with Maslow. Psychologist Abraham Maslow describes motivation as a means to satisfying human needs (Kotler & Armstrong, 2006:148-151). Maslow, one of the founders of humanistic psychology, focused on desires. Maslow felt that the study of motivation should be the study of the ultimate goals or desires of people, conscious and unconscious (Lester, 1995:32). In each person one finds 'higher level needs', as well as 'lower level needs'. Maslow believed that higher, more fragile needs are expressed only after we satisfy our physiological needs (air, food, water and sleep). If our basic needs are met, one will move on to actualising our potentials (Coon & Mitterer, 2008:338).

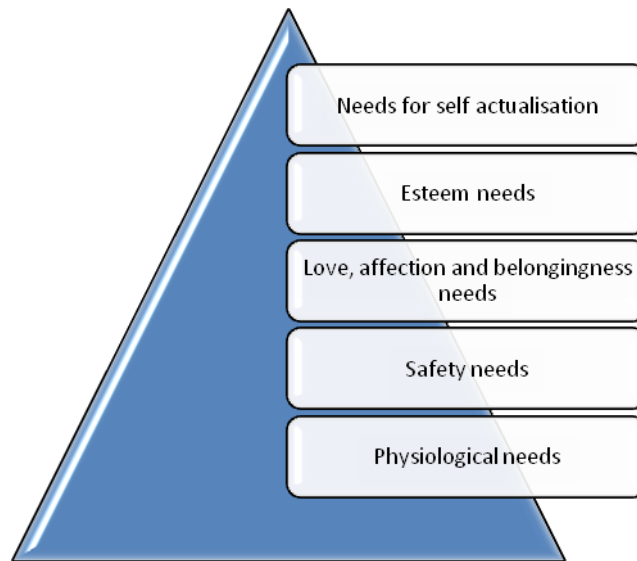


Figure 2.2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Source: Milliken & Honeycutt 2004:73)

Often better understood by non-psychologists is the classification system of Murray (Johnson & Thomas, 1992:36).

- **Murray 's classification of needs**

Murray sees the needs as varying independently; knowing the strength of one need will not necessarily have any impact on the strength of another. Therefore, to identify what motivates people (tourists) one must measure the strength of all their

needs rather than the hierarchical levels they have reached (Johnson & Thomas, 1992:36).

Even though Murray's work on human needs is not as popular as Maslow's hierarchy, Murray did, however, stimulate influential research into specific needs, particularly the needs for achievement, affiliation and power. From the point of view of travel motives, this then provides a much more comprehensive list of human needs that could influence tourist behaviour. Murray's needs provide a more useful starting point to conduct research regarding the particular type of need which people strive to fulfil through tourism (Johnson & Thomas, 1992:36).

- **Mill and Morrison's needs and wants theory**

Mill and Morrison (1985) reported that travel motivation occurs when an individual wants or desires to satisfy a need. Pizam *et al.* (1979) suggested that tourist motivation refers to the set of needs that influence (or push) a person to travel and participate in travel-related activities. Instead of following Maslow's (1943) theory of motivation as a hierarchy of needs, Mill and Morrison argued the key to understanding travel motivation was through the recognition of travel as a needs and wants satisfier, 'Motivation occurs when an individual wants to satisfy a need' (Mill & Morrison, 1992:17, Pike, 2008:104). They suggest this view of motivation was the difference between seeing the destination as a collection of attractions and seeing it as a place for satisfying needs and wants (Pike, 2008:104).

- **Push and Pull Theories:**

Dann (1977) utilised a non-social psychological view of travel motivation and proposed the most popular travel motivation theory, the push and pull model (Yu, 2008:53). Based on sociological interpretation of tourism motivation Dann (1977) adopted the socio-geographical terminology of "push" and "pull" factors, to explain factors which encourage or motivate people to leave home for another destination (push), and attributes of a destination that attract one towards it (pull). According to Dann, pull factors can only have validity after the push factors have already made up the mind of the individual to travel (Holden, 2006). The idea behind this two-dimensional approach is that people travel because they are pushed by their own internal forces and pulled by the external forces of the destination attributes (Cha, McCleary & Uysal, 1995:33-39).

Push factors listed in *Figure 2.3* include: novelty, escape, kinship, relationships, prestige and relaxation/hobbies (Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994). Push motivation is the

internal energy of the individual and increases the desire for people to travel (Dann, 1977:184-194).

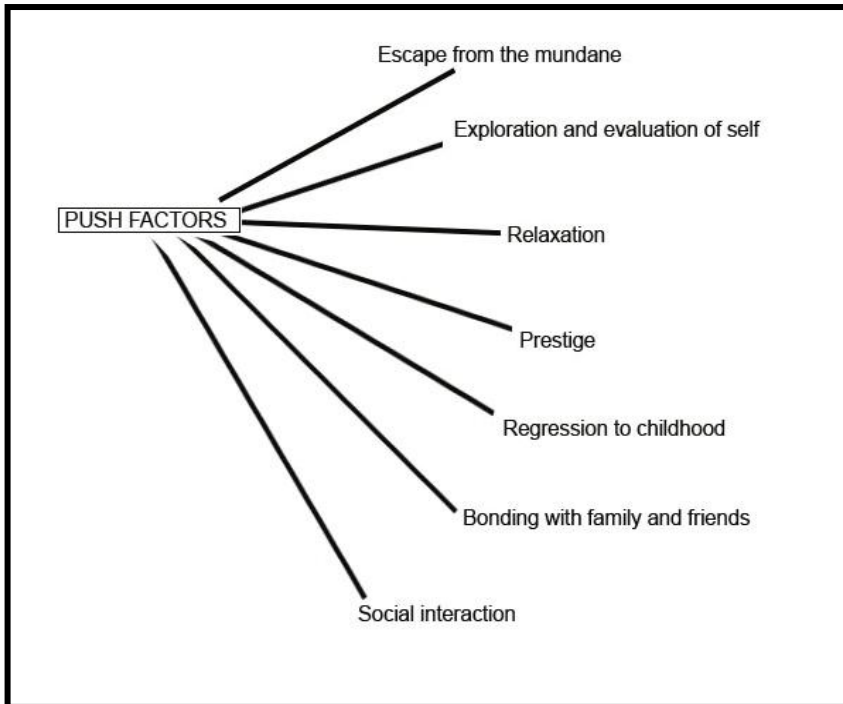


Figure 2.3: Push factors, adapted from Crompton (1979)

Pull factors in Figure 2.4 include budget, ease of travel, culture and history, wilderness, cosmopolitan environment and facilities (Wilson, 1991). According to Dann (1977:184-194), pull motives are an external force and influence where people travel to. Knowing travel motivations offers a basis for understanding motivations of tourists and assisting in providing a better tourism product.

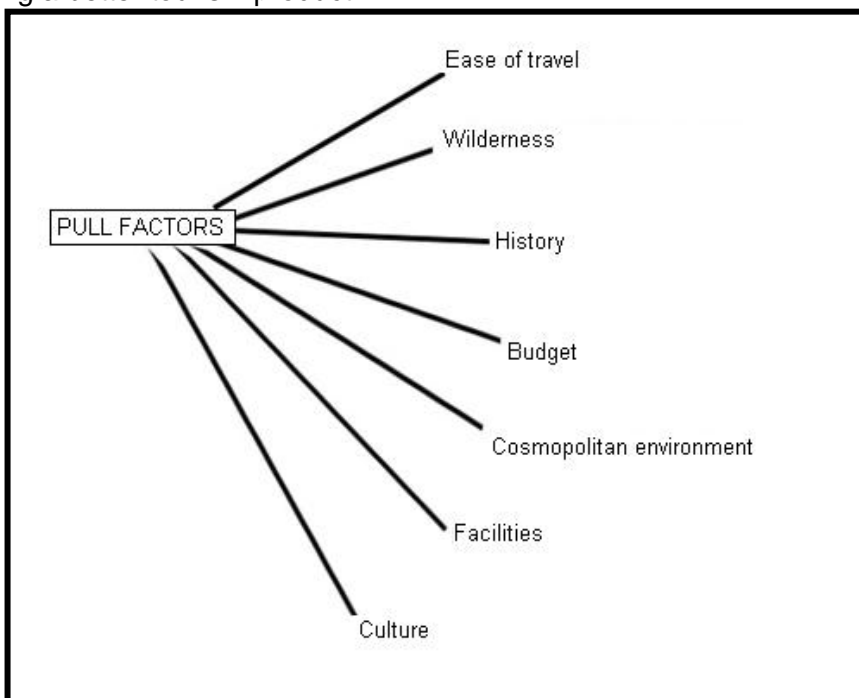


Figure 2.4: Pull factors adapted from Dann (1977)

- **Sun lust and Wanderlust Theory:**

In the early 1970's Gray used the terms sun lust and wanderlust tourism to categorise two types of tourism. Sun lust tourism is basically tourism motivated by the desire of rest, relaxation and the three S's, sun, sea and sand. Wanderlust tourism on the other hand is typically based on the desire to travel and experience different cultures and people (Dasgupta, 2011:36). It has been suggested that apart from an innate need to explore, all other travel motivations are learnt by individuals (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). Therefore, an individual's travel preference and behaviour can change during a lifetime as needs and motives are learned (Pike, 2008:209-210).

#### 2.4.2 Previous research regarding travel motives of tourist

Knowledge concerning motivations and the application thereof in marketing plans and strategies may enhance competitiveness in the tourism market (Jonker, Heath & du Toit, 2004:1; Pike, 2004:73), ensure long-term profit, survival, and growth of tourism destinations (Saayman, 2006:62). Fodness (1994:555) states that effective tourism marketing is impossible without understanding of the consumers' (tourists') motivations. In this case, what motivates tourists to travel to marine destinations? The aim of this study is to determine the travel motives to selected Marine National Parks and by looking at other studies (Table 2.1), one can determine if different destinations have different motivations.

*Table 2.1: Previous studies on marine destinations, nature areas and Parks*

Researchers	Travel motives to marine destinations	
Kozak (2002), Yoon and Uysal (2005), Molera and Albaladejo (2007), Saayman, Slabbert & Van der Merwe (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Culture</li> <li>• Pleasure</li> <li>• seeking/fantasy</li> <li>• Relaxation</li> <li>• Physical attributes</li> <li>• Climate</li> <li>• Destination attractiveness</li> <li>• Adventure</li> <li>• Personal attachment</li> <li>• Site attributes</li> <li>• Personal</li> <li>• Education</li> <li>• Rural life</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sites and festivals</li> <li>• Excitement</li> <li>• Knowledge and learning experience</li> <li>• Achievement</li> <li>• Family togetherness</li> <li>• Escape</li> <li>• Safety</li> <li>• Fun</li> <li>• Nature and peacefulness</li> <li>• Trip features</li> </ul>

Researchers	Travel motives to nature areas and Parks	
Tao, Eagles and Smith (2004), Kim, Borges and Chon (2006), Saayman and Van der Merwe (2007), Saayman and Saayman (2008) and Kruger and Saayman (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning about nature</li> <li>• Participation in recreation activities</li> <li>• Change from home or work</li> <li>• To be free</li> <li>• Seeing as much as possible</li> <li>• Being entertained</li> <li>• Being physically active</li> <li>• Experience new and different lifestyles</li> <li>• Feeling of mastery and achievement</li> <li>• Socialisation</li> <li>• Attributes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Family togetherness/socialisation</li> <li>• Site attraction</li> <li>• Festival attraction</li> <li>• Escape from routine</li> <li>• Activities</li> <li>• Attractions</li> <li>• Nostalgia</li> <li>• Novelty</li> <li>• Photography</li> </ul>

Based on an analysis of the findings in Table 2.1, it is clear that different tourists have a different motive for visiting different attractions and/or destinations. Motives like escape, family togetherness and learning were identified in both nature areas and parks and marine destinations.

When focusing on travel motivations of marine destinations, the following became apparent: Molera and Abaladejo (2007:761) identified five marine travel motives to Murcia (Spain), those of nature and peacefulness, physical and cultural activities, family, trip features and rural life. Saayman, Slabbert and Van der Merwe (2009) also identified five travel motivation factors to two marine destinations in South Africa, escape and relaxation, destination attractiveness, socialisation, personal attachment, site attributes and trip features. Yoon and Uysal (2005:51) who researched travel motivations of tourists to Northern Cyprus (in the Mediterranean Sea) identified eight “push” motivational factors (excitement, knowledge/education, relaxation, achievement, family togetherness, escape, safety/fun and away from home and seeing). Yoon and Uysal (2005) also identified nine pull motives (modern atmosphere and activities, wide space and activities, small size and reliable weather, natural scenery, different culture, cleanness and shopping, night life and local cuisine, interesting town and village, and water activities). Research conducted by Kozak (2002:224) regarding travel motivations of tourists to Mallorca (an island in Spain) revealed motives such as culture,

pleasure seeking/fantasy, relaxation and physical. Kruger and Saayman (2008) found that travel motives of tourists visiting the Tsitsikamma National Park which is also a Marine Park, situated on the Indian Ocean in South Africa, were motives such as knowledge seeking, nature experience, photography, escape and relaxation, park attributes and nostalgia.

Summarising the analysis of marine travel motives revealed that different destinations and products have different travel motives. Saayman *et al.* (2009) agree and state that the travel motivations of tourists to two marine destinations in South Africa revealed that there are similarities as well as clear differences. Therefore, one can see that motives are product or destination specific, which in turn implies that each destination has their own specific motivators. These motivators are useful in product development, as well as for developing marketing strategies. The results also indicated that marine tourists are seeking a variety of activities and things to do – much more than other types of tourism products (Saayman *et al.* 2009).

## **2.5 Conclusion**

The aim of this chapter was to analyse tourist behaviour and travel motives of tourists to selected marine destinations. Understanding the consumer's needs and buying process is the foundation of successful marketing. By understanding how buyers proceed through the decision making process, the various participants in the buying procedure, and the major influences on buying behaviour, marketers can acquire many clues about how to meet buyer's needs. The following factors do influence the tourist decision-making process, namely: Demographic factors: age, income, education, household, race and marital status; The marketing mix which includes the following variables: price, product, place and promotion. Internal factors: motivation, perception, learning, personality and attitude. External factors: culture, social class, reference groups and family. Situational factors: physical surroundings, social surroundings, temporal perspective and Task definition all of these factor can influence tourists' decisions to buy a certain product or service.

Motivations are needs or wants that drive tourists to make a decision about a specific destination (Saayman, 2001:12). Tourist behaviour is the reason why tourists buy certain products and make certain decisions. It's not only behaviour that leads to decision making but also what motivates them to make certain decisions. Different tourists will have different motives for visiting a destination. Not every tourist will have the same motive for the same destination, because not one individual is the same.

Different tourists will have different motives, but will there be a difference in the motives when a tourist visits a National Park rather than a Marine park? Marine tourism will be discussed in the next chapter.

## **Chapter 3:**

### **Marine Tourism**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

Lück (2007) stated that the marine environment encompasses two-thirds of the surface of the blue planet and the marine environment consists of inshore environments, such as estuaries, lagoons, atolls and reef systems, mud flats and mangroves. To the pelagic environments of the open oceans, the marine environment has become, even though relatively belatedly (Orams, 1999), a major venue for tourism and recreation and coastal and marine tourism is growing at an even faster rate than the general tourism sector. This growth reflects not only increased opportunities for marine recreation but also a 'generally increased level of interest in anything concerning marine environments' (Singh, 2008:270).

The sea offers many opportunities for recreation and tourism and in practical terms it is a source of food and transport. In the past, most of our marine environments were 'protected' from tourists use by inaccessibility, safety concerns and the relatively high cost of recreating in the sea. Coastal and marine tourism has become a big business that forms a significant component of the growing global industry. Marine tourism is characterised by different features, for example, it occurs in an environment in which one does not live and in which one is dependent on equipment to survive (Orams, 1999:4).

Marine tourism in South Africa offers a variety of products which include: scuba diving, surfing, snorkelling, swimming and whale watching. These activities and products can be found along South Africa's coast line of more than 3 000km, stretching from the Namibian coast (washed by the cold Atlantic Ocean) in the northwest around to the Mozambique border at Ponta do Ouro in the east (bathed by the warm Indian Ocean) (Myburgh & Saayman, 2001:75; South Africa Government, 2009).

Marine and coastal resources of South Africa are a rich and diverse national asset, providing important economic and social opportunities for an ever-increasing population, that in turn has developed a strong reliance on these resources for food, recreation, tourism, ecotourism, transport and financial gain (Attwood, Moloney, Stenton-Dozey, Jackson, Heydom & Probyn, 2002:68-83). South Africa's long coastline does need great measures to protect it. One such way of protecting it, is the establishment of marine protected areas (Rosmarin & Rissik, 2004:54).

One of the biggest tourism and ecotourism product providers in South Africa is the South African National Parks Board (SANParks) consisting of 21 national parks, each offering a variety of tourism and ecotourism products (SANParks, 2009). Of the 21 National Parks in South Africa six are Marine Parks namely; West Coast, Tsitsikamma, Agulhas, Addo Elephant, Table Mountain and Wilderness National Parks. As this research focuses on travel motives of tourists to Marine Parks it is eminent to conduct an analysis of marine tourism.

Therefore the aim of this chapter is to conduct a theoretical analysis of marine tourism. The following aspects will be addressed in this chapter namely: the history of marine tourism, different components of marine tourism, marine tourism in South Africa (Marine National Parks), marine protected areas, blue flag beaches, the different role players in marine tourism, marine tourism opportunities and social events and the impacts of marine tourism on the environment (triple-bottom-line approach).

### **3.2 The history of marine tourism**

Travel of recreational purposes is not a new phenomenon. It has existed for centuries and dates back to pre-biblical times (Adler, 1989:7-29). However, it has only become a globally significant enterprise in the latter part of the twentieth century. Travel to coastal areas for the purpose of leisure has existed throughout history. Certainly many subsistence food-gathering practises, such as fishing and shellfish collection, have been major motivations for people to live in and visit marine areas. However, recreational activities such as swimming, exploring, relaxing and social events have been major attractions which have drawn humans to coastal areas for thousands of years (Orams, 1999:11). One of the first references of humans making use a boat was Noah's ark, where Noah and his family was saved by God (Miller, 2007:18). In Genesis it is further mentioned that some of the first ships were built on the Mediterranean and Red Sea and that there was an interest in maritime discovery (Kitto, 1856:125).

Found in the literature are references of ancient people swimming and fishing for pleasure (Brasch, 1995). There is, therefore, evidence that 'marine tourism' has existed since the early stages of men. More detailed records regarding coastal recreation are available from the eighteenth century onwards. Prior to this time, in European societies at least, 'coastal scenery, was not viewed with any great enthusiasm' (Towner, 1996:169). However, by the early 1700s an interest in and appreciation of natural scenery, including the seas, became apparent and was reflected in the art and writing of the time (Corbin, 1994).

According to Towner (1996), the growth in interest in and use of the coast during the latter part of the eighteenth century resulted in a growth of seaside holiday towns throughout coastal Europe (Orams, 1999:12). More detailed records regarding coastal recreation are available from the eighteenth century onwards. Prior to this Romantic movement of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, wilderness areas in Europe and North America were seen as cursed and chaotic wastelands (Oelschlager, 1991).

While marine environments have long been, and continue to be venues for exploration, subsistence, transport and communication, merchant trade and conflict, recreation and tourist attention have relatively recently turned to the pursuit of marine experiences which led to the expansion of marine tourism over the past decades (Higham & Lück, 2008:1). In South Africa marine tourism started with the Portuguese navigators of the 15<sup>th</sup> century, Bartholomew Diaz and Vasco da Gama. Da Gama was followed by Perestrello in 1576 and he was followed by Sir Francis Drake who opened the sea route that led to extensive trade with the east coast of Africa and the Far East (Kraus, 1996:431) and a trading post was established in 1652 by the Verenigde Oost-Indische Comagnie (VOC) as a refreshment post for its ships at the Cape of Good Hope (Huigen, de Jong & Kolfin, 2010:5).

The following section will focus on what is marine tourism and what forms part of the marine tourism industry.

### **3.3 What is Marine tourism?**

Orams (1999:9) defines marine tourism as including 'those recreational activities that involve travel away from one's place of residence and which have as their host or focus the marine environment. Hall and Page (2006:292) said that such a definition is significant for as well as having a biological and recreational base, it also emphasises that consideration of the elements of marine and coastal tourism must include shore-based activities such as land-based whale watching, reef walking, cruise ship supply and yachting events within the overall ambit of marine tourism. Singh (2008:261) defines marine tourism as *those recreational activities that involve travel away from one's place of residence and which have as their host or focus the marine environment (where the marine environment is defined as waters which are saline and tide-affected)*. Lück (2008) further adds that some components of marine tourism form part of nature-based tourism such as whale watching and scuba diving to name but a few.

From the above mentioned definitions the following key aspects that form part of marine tourism were identified:

- Ocean and coastal water sports
- Hotels and restaurants
- Island and beach resorts
- Recreation activities: water and land based
- Fishing boat operators
- Cruise ships
- Charter yacht companies.

The historical roots of marine tourism are founded in the pursuit of the three Ss- sun, sea and sand. This means that marine tourism has been and will continue to be a significant sector of the larger tourism industry (Hudson, 2003:125-126) and comprises of the following components (Figure 3.1): cruise liners, the beach and the marine tourist. These components will be discussed in the part that follows.

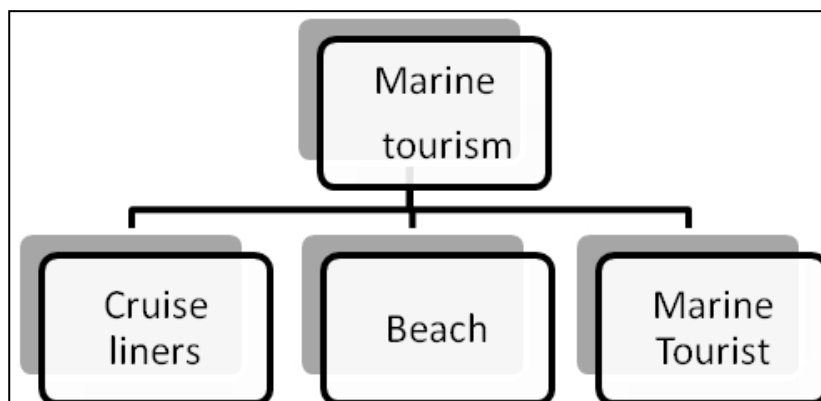


Figure 3.1: Components of Marine Tourism (Source: developed by author)

- **Cruise Liners**

Coastal cruising takes a number of forms, including sailing sightseeing cruises, ferry trips, diving and a range of other leisure and recreational activities. In coastal destinations that have access to significant marine resources, such as offshore islands or coral reefs, coastal cruising has become a major focal point for tourism industry. In many countries, marine public transport networks connect coastal settlements and offshore islands to major urban areas, enabling the tourism industry to capitalize on these networks to develop tourism activities (Dowling, 2006:233).

- **Beach**

Beaches are physical landmarks, and have always attracted people to a number of recreational activities. These activities can be divided into land and water-based activities. Land-based activities include fishing, ball sports, and leisure activities. Water-activities

include surfing, snorkelling, scuba-diving and windsurfing. The beach is, therefore, a meeting point for both tourists and local residents covering a number of different interests. Beach resorts are also part of beaches, they focus on creating a centre of attention around the natural beauty and attraction of the beach. Beaches are typically associated with sun and sand and offer activities that include sunbathing, boating, swimming, diving and numerous athletic activities (Lück, 2008: 57-58).

The beach developed as the activity space for recreation and tourism. The development of piers, jetties and promenades as formal spaces for organised recreational and tourism activities led to new ways of experiencing the sea (Hall & Page, 2006).

Many types of marine settings are popular with tourists, whereas beaches are by far the most popular destination, particularly those in close proximity to urban areas: Urban beaches are increasingly seen as the single most important recreational outlet for a large segment of the urban population (West, 1990:263). While beaches are without doubt the most popular marine tourist attraction, a second important location is islands. Of course these islands also include beaches; however, they provide a base for many marine activities and have proved to be immensely popular settings for tourism and associated development, including resorts, hotels, restaurants and activity providers (Orams, 1999). Some of the popular Islands are Hawaii, Maldives, Mauritius, Greek Islands, Cayman Islands and the Seychelles.

- **Marine tourist**

Marine tourists are diverse, and their characteristics are determined more by the nature of the activity in which they are involved than by any other influential variable. However, the demand for marine tourism is significantly influenced by the supply and more importantly the marketing, of marine tourism opportunities (Orams, 1999:42). South Africa is blessed with a variety of animals and plants and this is one aspect of the country that attracts a growing number of visitors each year. Therefore, conservation can only be really successful when as many people as possible understand what it is about and why it is important (Rosmarin & Rissik, 2004:54-55).

Tourists these days are not content simply to stay on the beach watching the sea. Today they want to make the sea itself their destination through, for example, cruises, sailing and diving holidays (Swarbrooke, 1999:158).

The following section will focus on marine tourism in South Africa and on the following components; Marine National Parks, Marine Protected Areas (MPAs), blue flag beaches, the private and the public sector.

### 3.4 The marine tourism environment in South Africa

Marine tourism in South Africa takes place through the following; Marine National Parks, Marine Protected Areas (MPAs), blue flag beaches, private sector and public sector (Figure 3.2). South Africa has some of the finest beaches in the world, from the pristine coastal stretch of white beaches in Cape Vidal in Kwa Zulu Natal to the sun drenched Camps Bay in the Western Cape. The beaches are ideal for swimming and surfing, and South Africa offers some of the best surfing spots in the world. Boulders Beach in the Western Cape is the home of the African penguin and Hermanus is the best land-based whale watching site in the world. South Africa's seas are rich in fish species, and the most spectacular of these is the great white shark (SouthAfrica.info. 2011). The part that follows will discuss the marine environment according to Figure 3.2.

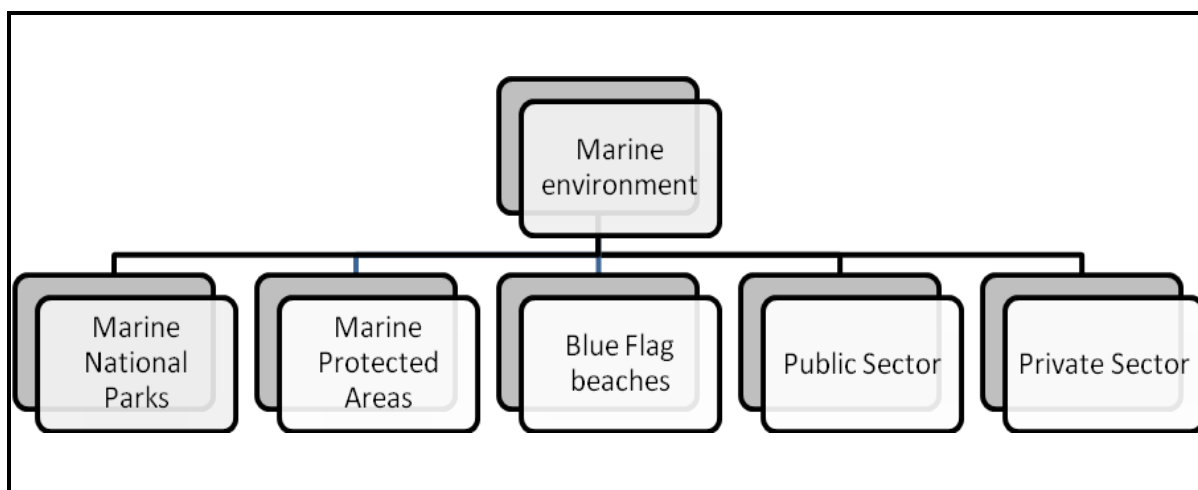


Figure 3.2: The marine environment in South Africa (source: developed by author)

#### 3.4.1 Marine National Parks in South Africa

Each of South Africa's 21 National Parks offer a variety of ecotourism products with six Parks protecting marine areas as listed in Table 3.1. According to the Department of Environmental Affairs, a total of 22% of South Africa's 3 000-km coastline has some degree of protection, but only 9% of the coastline is protected by no-take Marine Protected Areas (Category 1) with an additional 13% protected by limited extraction (Category 2) and closed area Marine Protected Areas (Category 3). The objective is to achieve 20% of no-take Marine Protected Areas coastline in South Africa (DEAT, 2011).

*Table: 3.1: Marine National Parks in South Africa*

Name	Description
Addo Elephant National Park	This park is situated in the Eastern Cape and is the country's third largest park and only big 7 park. There are plans to expand the park into a 360 000ha mega park, it also include the proposed proclamation of a 120 000 ha marine reserve
Agulhas National Park	Situated in the Western Cape this park is situated on the southern most tip of Africa with a cultural heritage that dates back to when the Khoi-Khoi people caught fish using ingeniously tidal traps. Numerous shipwrecks of the early explorers dot the coastline.
Tsitsikamma National Park	Tsitsikamma National Park is situated at the heart of the Garden Route. This is one of the largest Marine Protected Areas in the world. Tsitsikamma National Park is also the oldest marine park in South Africa. The Tsitsikamma area has a long history of marine and forest utilisation and most of the local communities rely mostly, in one form or another on these two ecosystems.
Wilderness National Park	This park is situated in the Garden Route in the Western Cape; Wilderness National Park is a combination of rivers, lakes, estuaries and beaches. Wilderness protects three major zones and has been proclaimed as a Ramsar site.

West Coast National Park	The park surrounds the Langebaan Lagoon, which is a world Ramsar site. This wetland offers exceptional birdlife, spring flowers and white beaches. The largest concentration of mammals is in the Postberg Reserve, but this is only open to public during flower season.
Table Mountain National Park	This park is situated at the most south western tip of Africa. This piece of land is surrounded by the waters of the Atlantic ocean and has within its boundaries two world-renowned landmarks, Table Mountain and the legendary Cape of Good Hope.

(Source: SANParks, 2010, SA venues, 2011)

### 3.4.2 Marine Protected Areas (MPAs)

The most widely known definition of a Marine Protected Area (MPA) given by the IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature) is *'any area of inter-tidal or sub-tidal terrain, together with its overlying water and associated flora, fauna, historical, or cultural features, which has been reserved by law or other effective means to protect part or all of the enclosed environment'* (IUCN, resolution 17.38).

There are several key elements in this definition that a number of authors have incorporated in their own analogous definitions for MPAs (Tunley, 2009:16). These elements are:

- MPAs are designated marine areas that can include subtidal and intertidal areas.
- MPAs have some form of protection and most often this is legally established, but it can be established through customs and traditions.
- MPAs are important not only for the protection of natural features but also cultural features and traditional uses or cultural practices.
- The protection provided by a MPA should cover the seabed and the water column.

- An MPA does not necessarily have the same level of protection throughout.

In common with protected areas on land they may be called ‘reserves’, ‘sanctuaries’ or ‘parks’. A list of categories has been developed by the IUCN. Ten categories were originally identified in 1978 but later reduced to six (Gubbay, 1995:3) namely:

- Strict protection (Strict Nature Reserve/ Wilderness Area).
- Ecosystem conservation of natural features (National Park).
- Conservation of natural features (National Monument).
- Conservation through active management (Habitats/Species Management Area).
- Landscape/Seascape conservation and recreation (Protected Landscape/ Seascape).
- Sustainable use of natural ecosystem (Managed Resource Protected area).
- MPAs have succeeded in further degradation of marine habitats and communities.

#### 3.4.2.1 Marine Protected Areas in South Africa

The value of MPAs as a tool for marine conservation and the associated benefits for fisheries management have been recognised by the South African government through the national legislation that integrates marine conservation and fisheries management. This recognition of the value of MPAs by government was further emphasised through the commitment to incorporate 20% of the coastline within MPAs by 2010 (DEAT 2006b).

MPAs form an important part of the foundation of marine conservation in South Africa and are essential for fishery management (Attwood, Mann, Beaumont & Harris, 1997). There is a total of 22 MPAs in South Africa (Table 3.2) that incorporates a range of types of management areas consisting of multi-purpose MPAs, no-take zones, Ramsar Sites, World Heritage Site (WHS) and a core area of a UNESCO Biosphere Reserve (Tunley, 2009).

*Table 3.2 Marine Protected Areas in South Africa*

MPA's	Description
<b>Tsitsikamma MPA</b>	This park was proclaimed in 1964 and is the oldest and largest ‘no take’ marine protected area in Africa.
<b>Trafalgar MPA</b>	It’s a provincial reserve near Margate and is one of the smallest marine protected areas in South Africa; this park is situated in Kwa-Zulu-Natal.
<b>Table Mountain MPA</b>	This park is managed by SANParks and fishing is allowed in the majority of the area subject to permits, it also includes six ‘no take’ zones.

<b>Isimangaliso MPA</b>	The entire coastline of this park is protected under the World Heritage Convention Act. In this park there are two contiguous marine protected areas.
<b>Stilbaai MPA</b>	Stillbaai offers a complete protection from fishing and bait collection of the Goukou estuary. Fishing is allowed in a controlled zone of the protected area.
<b>Sardinia Bay MPA</b>	This park is situated in the Eastern Cape and includes habitats like rocky platforms, sandy beaches, subtidal rocky reefs and is adjacent to the Sardinia Bay reserve.
<b>Robbeberg MPA</b>	This marine protected and is situated in the Western Cape and all forms of fishing are prohibited except for fishing from the shore.
<b>Pondoland MPA</b>	This is South Africa's largest marine protected area in terms of surface area. This area includes a wide range of marine and coastal habitats with some of the most pristine estuaries in the country.
<b>Langebaan and Sixteen Mile Beach MPA</b>	These two areas form part of the West Coast National Park and are also Ramsar listed sites.
<b>Hluleka MPA</b>	This area is situated in the Eastern Cape and is highly vegetated with grasslands, thicked and coastal forests, while the coast consists of mainly of rocky shores with small sand beaches and a lagoon.
<b>Aliwal Shoal MPA</b>	This marine protected area protects the fossilized and the marine environment of the area. This MPA is situated in the Eastern Cape Province.
<b>Betty's Bay MPA</b>	This area is important for the protection of the Stony Point African penguin colony, abalone and the west coast lobster.
<b>De Hoop MPA</b>	Within this protected area there are elements representing both warm water east coast species and cold water west coast species.
<b>Dwesa Cweva MPA</b>	This area is a strictly 'no take' zone and includes the tidal portion of the Mbashe river. This park is situated in the Eastern Cape Province.
<b>Gou Kamma MPA</b>	This marine protected area protects the intertidal species,

	off shore reefs and estuaries.
<b>Jutten, Marcus and Malgas MPA</b>	These areas are important habitats of the seabird species. This area is located off the coast of Saldanha bay.
<b>Bird Island MPA</b>	This island forms part of the Addo Elephant National park and is important for the protection of abalone and holds a large concentration of seabirds.
<b>Helderberg MPA</b>	This area is next to the Helderberg coastal reserve. The area has sandy beaches and a low profile sandstone offshore

(Source: Lemm and Attwood, 2003)

South Africa is obligated to reflect the commitments and imperatives of the conventions that it is party to in its national legislation. The commitments of relevance to MPAs are reflected in South Africa's legislation: National Environmental Management Act, Marine Living.

Resources Act and National Environmental Management Protected Areas Act, World Heritage Convention Act and the National Environmental Management Biodiversity Act are measures that have been put into place to protect our marine destinations.

Zoning is a management tool that indicates which part of each protected area may be used for human and recreation activities and fishing. A large percentage of Marine Protected areas are 'no take' zones. The next part of this chapter will discuss zoning as a form of protection in MPAs.

- **Zoning of Marine Protected Areas**

Zoning is usually the best way of ensuring strict protection of a multiple-use protected area. Various areas are allocated for various uses (Table 3.3). This is usually the best way of ensuring strict protection of a core zone as part of a larger, multiple-use area (Kelleher, 1999).

Table 3.3: Marine Protected Areas zone types

<i>Five marine protected zone types</i>	
1.	Artisanal fishing (Traditional methods of fishing and users )
2.	No entry (Research and monitoring only)
3.	No-take (Non extractive activities only, example no fishing)
4.	Special use (e.g. ports, shipping lanes, cruise-ship anchorage, intensive water sports areas, etc.)
5.	General use

(Source: Agardy, 2010:71)

- **No take' Marine Protected Areas**

In the marine environment one of the strictest forms of protection is the No-take area. These areas may comprise a whole marine protected area being a core zone within a multi-use MPA. Within them any removal of marine species and modification or extraction of marine resources (through fishing, mining or drilling) is prohibited (Bishop, 2004:112). Under the National Legislation of the Marine Living Resources Act of 1998, there are currently 22 Marine Protected Areas in South Africa.

Its not only our oceans and wetlands that need to be protected but also our beaches, The blue flag is an exclusive eco-award given to beaches and marinas that meet strict criteria for both water quality and environmental management and in South Africa there are currently 29 blue flag beaches. This concept will be discussed in the following part of the chapter.

### **3.4.3 Blue Flag Beaches**

*Blue flag can be defined as an exclusive eco-award given to beaches and marinas that meet strict criteria for both water quality and environmental management.* It was introduced in 1987 and sets common standards of good management across the world. To earn a Blue Flag, a facility has to pass several tests. Water quality is sampled 20 times in summer and must reach the higher of two standards sets in the organisation's Bathing Water Directive. Beaches and Marinas are monitored both before and during the award year to ensure that all criteria are being fulfilled and that a high standard is being maintained (Olson & Olson, 2010:40).

This Blue Flag campaign is currently active in 27 countries and mostly in European countries but was joined by South Africa in 2001, making it the first country outside Europe to gain Blue Flag status. Blue Flag is awarded for one year only encouraging continual maintenance of coastal management (Atkinson & Clark, 2005).

The Blue Flag criterion for South Africa is somewhat different from the criteria for Europe. South African beaches must first apply to run a pilot phase and only a year afterwards can a beach apply for full Blue Flag status (Honey, 2002:219). South Africa must comply with 14 requirements, some of them include excellent water quality, environmental education and information, environmental management, together with high safety standard and services. If some of these specifications are not fulfilled during the season for which the award is granted, the Blue Flag award is withdrawn. The international Blue Flag campaign includes environmental education for decision-makers and members of the public as well

as tourism operators (Du Plessis & Cleary, 2005:62). Currently there are 29 Blue Flag beaches in South Africa (Table 3.4).

*Table 3.4: Blue Flag beaches in South Africa*

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• MacDougall’s Bay, Port Nolloth</li> <li>• Yzerfontein Main beach, Yzerfontein</li> <li>• Big Bay beach, Bloubergstrand Cape Town</li> <li>• Clifton 4th beach, Cape Town</li> <li>• Camps Bay, Cape Town</li> <li>• Muizenberg, Cape Town</li> <li>• Strandfontein beach, Cape Town</li> <li>• Mnandi beach, Cape Town</li> <li>• Bikini beach, Gordon’s Bay</li> <li>• Kleinmond beach, near Hermanus</li> <li>• Hawston beach, Hermanus</li> <li>• Grotto beach, Hermanus</li> <li>• Lappiesbaai, Stilbaai</li> <li>• Santos beach, Mossel Bay</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Humewood beach, Port Elizabeth</li> <li>• Hobie beach, Port Elizabeth</li> <li>• Wells Estate, north of Port Elizabeth</li> <li>• Kelly’s beach, Port Alfred</li> <li>• Kariega Main beach, Kenton-on-Sea</li> <li>• Boknes beach, Kenton-On-Sea</li> <li>• Gonubie beach, East London</li> <li>• Trafalgar beach, south coast KZN</li> <li>• Marina beach, south coast KZN</li> <li>• Ramsgate beach, near Margate</li> <li>• Margate beach</li> <li>• Alkantstrand, Richards Bay</li> <li>• Robberg 5 beach, Plettenberg Bay</li> <li>• Dolphin beach, Jeffrey’s Bay</li> <li>• Hartenbos beach, Mossel Bay</li> </ul>
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#### **3.4.4 Private Sector**

The private sector’s involvement in tourism is mostly to be motivated by profit, as tourism entrepreneurs (Shaw & Williams, 1994) invest in business opportunities. This gives rise to a complex array of large organisations and operators involved in tourism ( multinational chain hotel like the Holiday Inn) and an array of smaller businesses and operators (Hall & Page, 2006:125). The private sector, particularly tour operators and lodge operators, play a number of important roles (including product development, marketing, investment and operators) (Ashley, Roe & Goodwin, 2001:9). In South Africa the private sector does not only represent the accommodation and hospitality organisations but also certain government bodies. These bodies include TBCSA (Tourism Business Council of South Africa and FEDHASA (Federated Hospitality Association of South Africa). The South

African Tourism Service Association (SATSA) is the foremost body representing the private sector of the tourism industry (Lubbe, 2003:173-181).

### 3.4.5 Public Sector

The Department of Tourism (formally known as DEAT) is a public sector body that aims to develop the tourism sector as a national priority in a sustainable and acceptable manner so that it will significantly contribute to the empowerment of the quality of life of every South African. Governments and other public sector bodies become involved with tourism because of the impacts and benefits it has on society at large. Government normally has an established National Tourism Organisation (NTO). They have certain functions like: establishing of a tourism policy, destination promotion, infrastructure provision, maintaining tourism attractions and tourism information services. South African Tourism (SAT) is the national agency (NTO) responsible for the international marketing of South Africa as a preferred tourist destination. Their aim is to make tourism the leading economic sector in South Africa and so promote sustainable economic and social empowerment of all South Africans (Lubbe, 2003:177-178).

Marine tourism opportunities consist of the following components; activity based which includes activities like surfing, scuba diving; nature-based activities, social and culture activities like maritime museums and social events like the Cape to Rio race. These following activities will be discussed under marine tourism opportunities.

### 3.5 Marine tourism opportunities

The diverse range of opportunities for tourists to recreate in the marine environment can also be viewed as a spectrum. The spectrum categorises marine recreation according to its distance from shore because it is the single factor that most strongly influences the activities undertaken, the experience available and the type of environment in which activities occur (Orams, 1999). The spectrum categories will be discussed in the Table 3.5.

*Table 3.5: The spectrum of Marine Recreation Opportunities*

Spectrum of Marine Recreation Opportunities	
<b><i>Class I</i></b> <b><i>Easily accessible</i></b>	Location: Beaches and intertidal area and include the following activities: swimming, sunbathing, people watching, eating, sightseeing and playing games.
<b><i>Class II</i></b> <b><i>Accessible</i></b>	Location: Intertidal → 100 metres off shore and include the following activities: swimming, snorkelling, fishing, surfing,

	windsurfing, non-powered boating and jet-skiing.
<b>Class III</b> <b>Less accessible</b>	Location: 100 metres → 1km off shore and include the following activities usually boat-based, sailing, fishing and snorkel or scuba diving.
<b>Class IV</b> <b>Semi-remote</b>	Location: Isolated coasts 1- 50km offshore and include the following activities: Some scuba diving, submarining, powerboat (offshore equipped), and sailing – larger sailboats.
<b>Class V</b> <b>Remote</b>	Location: Uninhabited coastal areas > 50kms offshore, and include the following activities: offshore sailing, live-aboard offshore fishing, remote coast sea-kayaking.

(Source: Orams, 1999:44)

The spectrum categorises marine recreation according to its distance from shore because it is the single factor that most strongly influences the activities undertaken (Orams, 1999:44). The spectrums in Table 3.5 will now be discussed.

- Class I represents an easy accessible zone, activities that takes place in this zone are sunbathing and games that can be played on the beach.
- Class II represents the accessible zone, activities that take place are in the small waves up to 100m, and include swimming, snorkelling, fishing and surfing.
- Class III represents the less accessible zones, activities take place between 100m and 1km off shore, sailing, deep sea fishing and scuba diving.
- Class IV represents the semi-remote zone. This zone is between 1 km and 50km off shore. Activities that take place in this zone are scuba diving, submarining and larger sailboats.
- Class V represents the remote zone. This zone is further than 50 km offshore, there's not much activity that takes place in this zone but the few that take place in this zone are the following; fishing, sailing and remote coast sea kayaking.

Consideration of where a particular marine tourism operation or activity lies in the Spectrum Marine Recreation Opportunities clarifies the environment characteristics and the experiences available for the wide variety of marine tourism enterprises. (Orams, 1999:44). The following section will focus on the different marine tourism activities that consist of activity based marine tourism that include activities like scuba diving, surfing, sailing and water skiing, nature based marine tourism, social and cultural events like picnics on the beach and maritime museums and social events like the whale festival in Hermanus and the Cape to Rio yacht race.

### **3.5.1 Activity-based marine tourism**

There are many activities that have become universally popular in marine situations. Whilst they are dependent on certain types of marine environment or condition, the prime attraction for the participants is the activities rather than the location. Examples include surfing, windsurfing, fishing, scuba diving, water-skiing and sailing. Each of these activities has millions of regular participants (Orams, 1999). Among the specialist activities of coastal (marine) tourism, the sport of scuba diving has been one of the most popular, with an increasing trend in the recent years. Diving tourism is considered to be one of the most dynamic and profitable forms of tourism. Some of the most popular scuba destinations are the Caribbean, Red Sea, Thailand and Australia's Great Barrier Reef, which is also one of the largest marine parks in the world. Other destinations are seeing the potential and are developing scuba diving tourism, among them Scotland, Malta and South Africa (Garrod & Wilson, 2003:217).

### **3.5.2 Nature-based marine tourism**

Marine tourism also overlaps with nature based tourism, but differs from the wider tourism industry. An important distinction of marine tourism and normal tourism is that marine tourism occurs (for the most part) on, in and under a medium, namely water. This has a significant influence over the nature of marine tourism activities due to two factors: (i) most activities are dependent upon equipment (such as boats and other vessels) and, (ii) safety issues are of greater importance. It can be argued that marine tourism is nature based tourism and for most marine tourism activities like scuba diving, surfing, fishing, sailing, water skiing, sea kayaking and wind surfing it is a valid argument (Singh, 2008:260). Some of the top surfing spots in South Africa include; Big Bay at Bloubergstrand, Jefferys Bay, Durban and Sodwana Bay (Armstrong & Fitzpatric, 2008:601).

### **3.5.3 Social and cultural attractions**

It is well documented that the social interactions form an extremely important part of tourism experiences (Leiper, 1995). Opportunities to go on holiday and to have fun with friends remain one of the most important motivators for recreation travel (Leiper, 1995).

Many tourists visit locations such as Miami Beach to look at scantily clad men and women because they are different from people at home. Marine settings are also locations that are used for social gatherings and celebrations. Bonfires on beaches, picnics and barbecues, parties on cruise boats and beach-based recreational team sports are all examples of the importance of social interaction in many marine tourism activities (Orams, 1999:51).

Maritime museums are found in almost every county that has links to the sea. These museums not only preserve the socio-culture history of a country's maritime past but also serve as marine tourism attractions themselves. Maritime museums the world all over are adopting new strategies to attract tourist (Orams, 1999). One of South Africa's Maritime museums is in Mossel Bay and is also a main urban attraction, namely the Bartholomew Dias Museum complex which displays on the history of European principally, Portuguese, seafaring arranged around a full size replica of Dias' original caravel is on show (Pinchuck, McCrea & Reid, 2002:249).

### **3.5.4 Social events**

There are a multitude of specific marine-based events that are significant tourist attractions. Many of these events are regular occurrences, such as those that are held on an annual basis. Many of these events attract tens of thousands of spectators in addition to the participants (Orams, 1999). One of the marine tourism events that takes place annually since 1971 in South Africa is the Cape to Rio Yacht Race. Social events also include festivals in South Africa. Some of these of events are; the Whale Festival in Hermanus which is the best land-based whale watching site in the world (Hampton, 2004:270), the Crayfish festival in Lamberts Bay, Knysna Oyster Festival and the Sedgefield Lake Festival, to name but a few.

Most marine tourism activities are dependent on the quality of the resource; for example, fishing cannot occur if there are no fish. The impact of tourism and other human activities on the marine environment inevitably affects our ability to utilise that environment for recreation and tourism.

In marine tourism different role players are found. These role players will be discussed in the following section of the chapter.

### 3.6 Role Players

There are different key role players in marine tourism namely; government, marine tourist, community and the tour operator (Figure 3.3). The next section will discuss each role player.

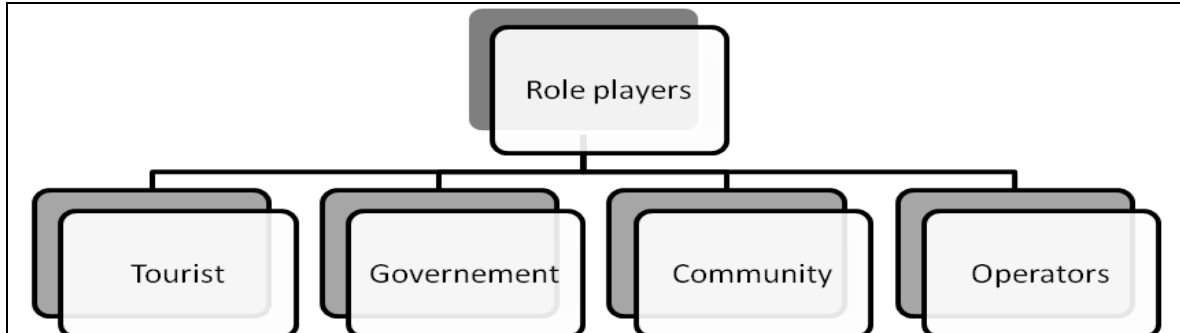


Figure 3.3: Role players in marine tourism (source: developed by author)

#### 3.6.1 The Marine Tourist

Within every marine recreational activity there will be a diverse range of age groups and people represented (Orams, 1999). Most activities are perceived as being more ‘adventurous’ or having higher risk of injury, such as surfing, windsurfing, sailing and scuba, (dominated by males and younger age groups). Those activities that are either passive, wildlife based or social tend to be dominated by older age groups and, in some cases, by females. An additional generalisation to most marine activities is that they tend to be patronised, relative to other land-based recreational pursuits, by upper socio-economic groups. This is understandable given the often significant cost of equipment associated with marine activities (Orams, 1999).

Research on whale watchers shows that they also are predominantly for higher-income and older age groups and are relatively well educated (Forestell & Kaufman, 1990; Neil & Orams & Baglioni, 1996) and scuba diving is dominated by males and younger age groups (Davids & Tisdell, 1995:19-40, Orams, 1999:36), as are activities such as sailing, windsurfing and surfing. Those activities that are perceived to be more adventurous and higher risk are patronised mainly by males (Ewert, 1989). Activities such as wildlife watching, beach walking, sun bathing and swimming show a much more diverse demographic profile.

#### 3.6.2 The Government

Management of Marine Parks in South Africa falls under the Department of Tourism. They have different legislation that is in place for managing these parks and reserves and one of these Acts is The Marine Living Resources Act (1998). This act recognises the subsistence fishing sector for the first time and takes cognisance of the fact that many coastal

communities of South Africa derive their livelihoods directly from marine resources. The Marine Living Resources Act has greatly improved the parameters of management requirements since 1999, contributing to the overall superior marine legislation. To ensure the sustainability of natural resources around the coast and to secure the future livelihoods of such coastal communities, several Sustainable Coastal Livelihood Initiatives were introduced at provincial level. The majority of these programmes form part of the National Coastal Management Initiative driven by civil society, government (DEAT) and private businesses. In more recent years, national government has further devolved enforcement and compliance responsibility to provincial and local authorities and other conservation agencies for example. South African National Parks (SANParks) (Atkinson & Clark, 2005:14-21).

The conservation sector is concerned with tourism that involves natural or social conservation. Role players in natural conservation are bodies that govern conservation such as the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (changed to Department of Tourism) as well as attractions where conservation takes place for example National Parks, National and World Heritage sites (Ivanovic, Khunou, Reynish, Pawson & Tseane, 2009:90).

The department of Environmental Affairs provides national leadership for promoting sustainable coastal development in South Africa. This is primarily achieved through coast care, a partnership programme involving the private and public sectors.

### **3.6.3 The Community**

Many coastal communities of South Africa derive their livelihoods directly from marine resources. The fishing industry (primary, secondary and tertiary aspects thereof) is a source of employment for nearly 28 000 people living at or near the coast (Mather, Brits, Hecht & Sauer, 2003).

### **3.6.4 The tour operator**

The industry involvement is most likely to be motivated by profit and as tourism entrepreneurs invest in business (Hall & Page, 1999), financial viability may be appraised together with the level of engagement with environmental sustainability and social responsibility through the triple-bottom-line approach (Carter & Carter, 2007:18). This role player also includes the private sector, that's made up of the accommodation sector- the hotel, guesthouse, bed and breakfast owners, restaurant and resort owners.

The following section will discuss the environmental, social-cultural and economic impact of marine tourism.

### 3.7 Impacts of marine tourism

There are a number of ways of categorising the impact of tourism. One of the most common known is what is used by Mathieson and Wall (1982:94) which divided impacts into three categories, economic, social and environmental (Hall and Page, 2006:144). These economic, social and environmental categories have both negative and positive impacts (Figure 3.4).

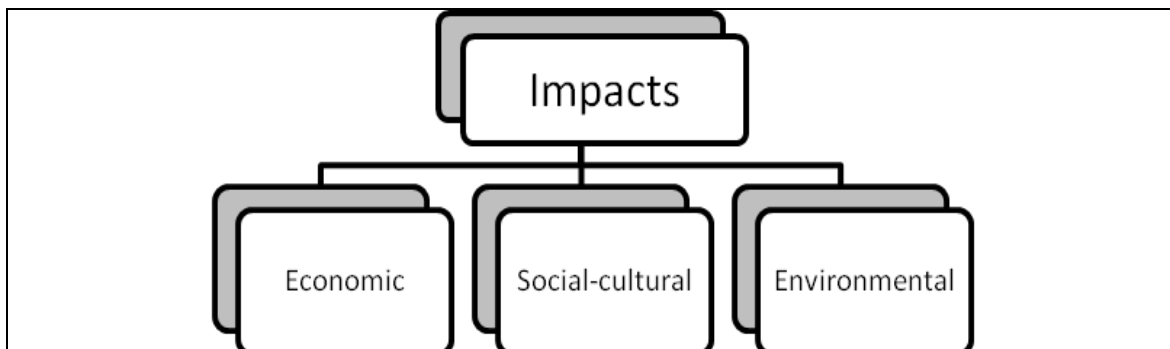


Figure 3.4: Impacts of tourism (source: developed by author)

#### 3.7.1 Economic Impact

The marine and coastal environment and its associated resources contribute considerable value to the South African economy in terms of employment, recreation and tourism (White Paper: Sustainable Coastal Development 2000).

It is important to establish from the outset that the economic impact of marine wildlife tourism is only part of a much bigger picture in terms of its overall economic value. Wells (1997) distinguishes between the economic impact of nature tourism, which he defines as the amount of money spent by nature tourists in the economy on travel, accommodation, food, souvenirs and the total economic value, which covers the broader economic benefits of conservation which can be associated with a nature tourism destination. Direct use by tourists is only one of the economic values which flows from nature tourism destinations (Wells, 1997:9).

Countries are encouraged to invest in tourism because of its evident economic benefits – particularly foreign exchange earnings, employment and infrastructural development such as transport networks. Cost-benefit analysis of tourism development has tended to concentrate on these positive outcomes, while scant attention has been given to the social,

environmental and other costs associated with development (Warren & Taylor, 1994:1). The opportunities for employment, tourism and recreation provided by the marine and coastal environment and its resources, have contributed considerably to the South African economy (DEAT, 2006a).

There is no doubt that tourism development has a widespread economic benefit. There are numerous examples of communities, regions and even nations that have been rejuvenated economically, with the resultant social benefits of greater employment, better services, improved health and generally improved standard of living. It appears to be an industry that needs little capital investment when, for example, the attractions of an area already exist. It brings a significant influx of cash into an area, spread over a wide variety of service industries such as food, accommodation and transport as well as the attraction itself (Orams, 1999:66).

From the above it is clear that the positive economic impact includes contributions to the local community and job creation, and negative impacts would be: increases in the price of land, house and even food prices in tourist destinations, which became particularly evident during the tourist season (Manson, 2003:37).

### **3.7.2 Social Impact**

The social impact of tourism refers to the manner in which tourism and travel affect changes in the collective and individual value systems (for example alleviating poverty), behaviour patterns (communities attitude toward the tourist and attraction), community structures, lifestyles and the improvement of their quality of life (Hall, 1995; Manson, 2003).

There are numerous examples of communities, regions and even nations that have been rejuvenated economically, with the resultant social benefits of greater employment, better services, improved health and generally improved standards of living. While some locals may resent the prevalence of tourists in locations like Antigua or Hawaii, there is no denying that these same locals benefit from the businesses, services and infrastructure that these tourists support (Orams, 1999). Important social opportunities have been provided to the South African population through the use of the marine environment and its associated natural resources for food, commercial gain, recreation and transport (Attwood *et al.*, 2000 & Atkinson & Clark 2005).

Once again the social impact of tourism can be positive but also negative. Positive social impacts include the revival of traditional art of handicraft activity as a result of tourism demand, creation of employment and improving their quality of life. Negative social impacts include the loss of cultural identity, particularly when tourists are from the developed world

and the hosts are located in a developing country (Manson, 2003). Page and Connell (2006:432) identified some negative social impacts: overcrowding and traffic, increase in crime, reduction in local services and import of new cultural ideas.

### **3.7.3 Environmental impact**

Tourism can lead to the direct destruction of biotopes through the construction of tourist facilities such as hotel complexes, theme parks and marinas. More significantly, such developments are often set within sensitive landscapes especially coastal, mountain and heritage environments (Shaw & Williams, 2002:305). According to Manson (2003:37), the positive environmental impacts include the following: revenue generated from visits to sites of natural attraction being used to restore and maintain the attraction, as well as enhanced interest from visitors in the importance of the natural environment and, therefore, a greater willingness to support measures to protect the environment. Negative impacts include the following loss of coastal and marine resources, damage and destruction to coastal ecosystems through tourism development, damage to coral and marine resources and pollution (air pollution from vehicles, noise and litter dropped by visitors) (Manson, 2003; Hall & Page, 2006).

For some time it has been popular to think about tourism impacts in three domains, economic, social and environmental but recently tourism researchers have borrowed the term the triple-bottom-line approach for company accounting (Weed, 2007:396).

## **3.8 Conclusion**

The main aim of this chapter was to conduct a theoretical analysis regarding marine tourism. The following components were discussed in the chapter; the history of marine tourism, marine tourism in South Africa, the role players in marine tourism, marine tourism opportunities and the impacts of marine tourism on the environment.

Form the literature it is clear that certain measurements have been put in place for the conservation of the marine environments through the establishing of Marine National Parks, Marine Protected Areas and Blue Flag beaches, but the literature also shows that there is room for improvement, and the government has committed to protect 20% of South Africa's 3 000km coastline. Marine Protected Areas are a tool for marine conservation and fisheries. The value of MPAs as a tool for marine conservation and the associated benefits for fisheries management have been recognised by the South African government through the passing of national legislation that integrates marine conservation and fisheries management (Tunley, 2009)

Marine tourism is a fast growing industry in the world and is becoming more known in South Africa. Protecting the marine environment is very important because it creates an economic benefit for the host community and some of the coastal communities are dependent on the marine tourism (creating employment).

## **Chapter 4:**

### **Empirical results**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

The aim of the research is to determine the travel motives of tourists visiting two selected Marine National Parks in South Africa. Once the travel motives and visitor's profiles have been determined the information can be used for product development, branding, market segmentation and marketing for these selected Marine Parks (Saayman, Fouchè & Kruger, 2008).

The aim of this chapter is determine the visitors profile and travel motives of tourists to the Addo Elephant and Tsitsikamma National Parks This chapter is divided into three parts; the first part portrays the profile of the visitors to the two selected marine national parks; the second part of the chapter the travel motives of the tourists are discussed and the third part a comparison of the travel motives of tourists of the two parks are conducted.

#### **4.2 Visitors profile**

Secondary data was used to develop the visitor's profile of tourists to the selected marine national parks (Table 4.1). The reason for determining the visitor profile to each of these parks (Addo Elephant being a big seven and Marine National Park and Tsitsikamma being the oldest marine park in South Africa) was to determine if there were any differences in the profile of tourists due to the different products offered by the two national parks (see page 11). This information will assist SANParks in the branding, marketing and product development within the two marine national parks (Saayman *et al.*, 2008).

The secondary data are based on research conducted at the two parks from 2005 to 2008 (see Chapter 1: Tables 1.1 & 1.2. The visitor's profile includes the following categories: language, age, marital status, province of residence, level of education, and number of nights spent at the parks will be discussed in the next part of the chapter. The visitor's profile data for each park will be discussed separately as well as the combination of the two parks' data.

#### 4.2.1 Language

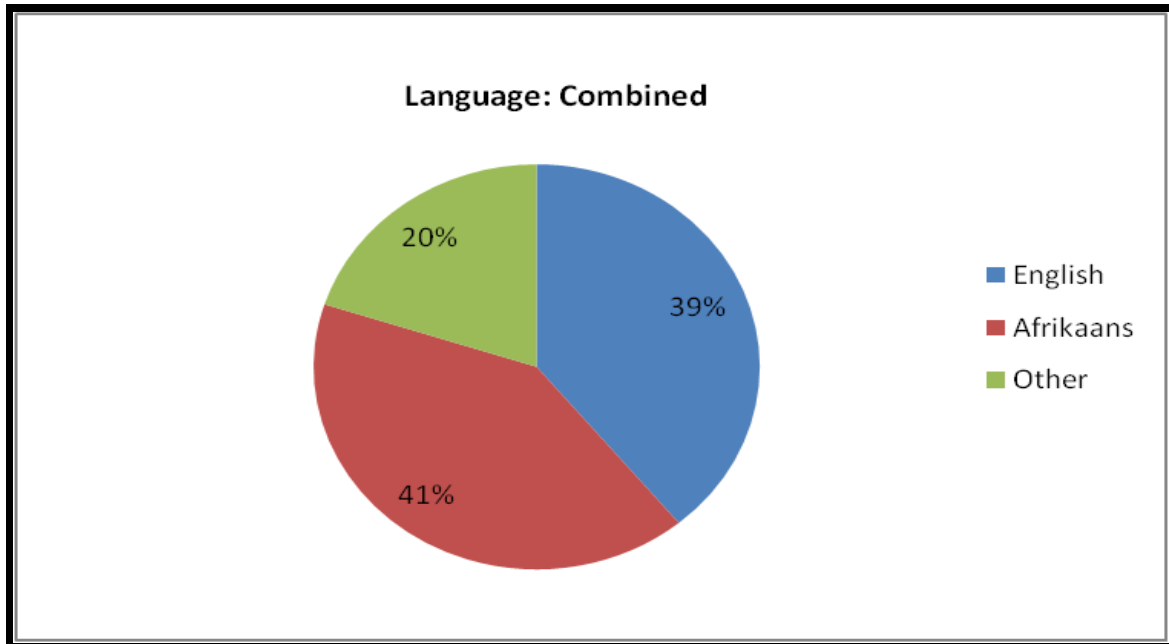


Figure 4.1: Language of the two parks

According to Figure 4.1, the languages most spoken by tourists to the two marine national parks, are Afrikaans (41%) and English (39%). When each park is analysed separately it is interesting to note that Addo Elephant National Park (Figure 4.2) attracts more English speaking visitors (43.43 % English and 31% Afrikaans) than the Tsitsikamma National Park (Figure 4.3) which attracts more Afrikaans speaking (51%) visitors than English speaking visitors (34%).

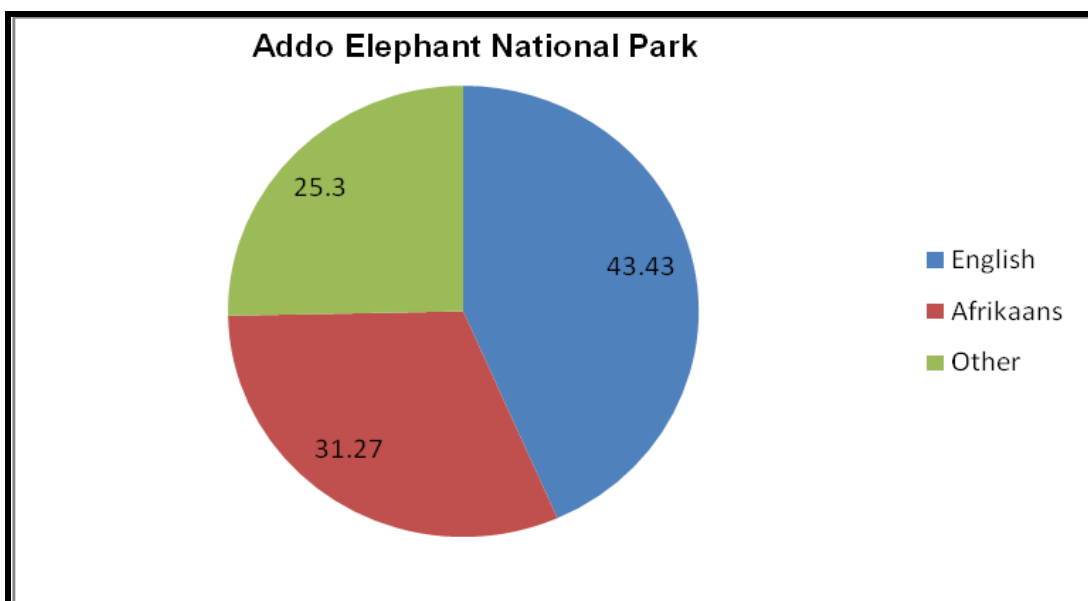


Figure 4.2: Language of Addo Elephant National Park

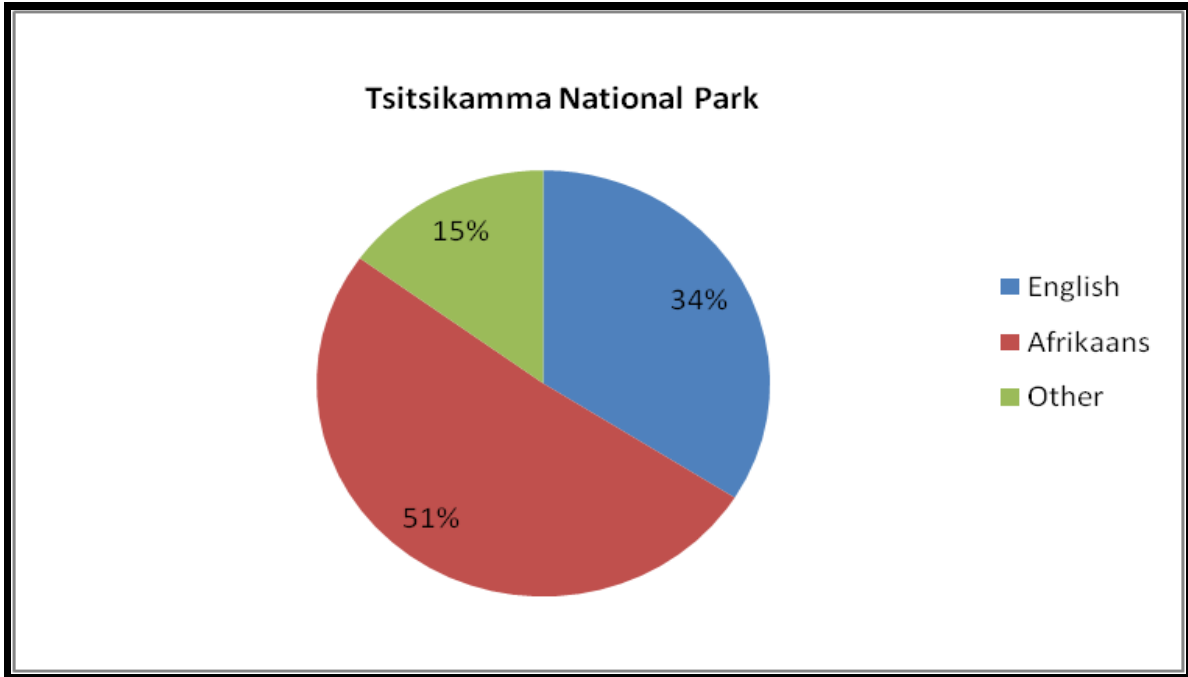


Figure 4.3: Language of Tsitsikamma National Park

**4.2.2 Age**

The largest percentage of tourists were between 35 and 49 years of age (40%) followed by 29% in the age group 50 – 64 years (Figure 4.4). Similar results were found individually for each park. The largest percentage of visitors to the Addo Elephant National Park (Figure 4.5) were between 35 and 49 years of age (33%) and 50 and 64 (32%). Similar results were found for visitors to the Tsitsikamma National Park (Figure 4.6) namely 35 and 64 (46%).

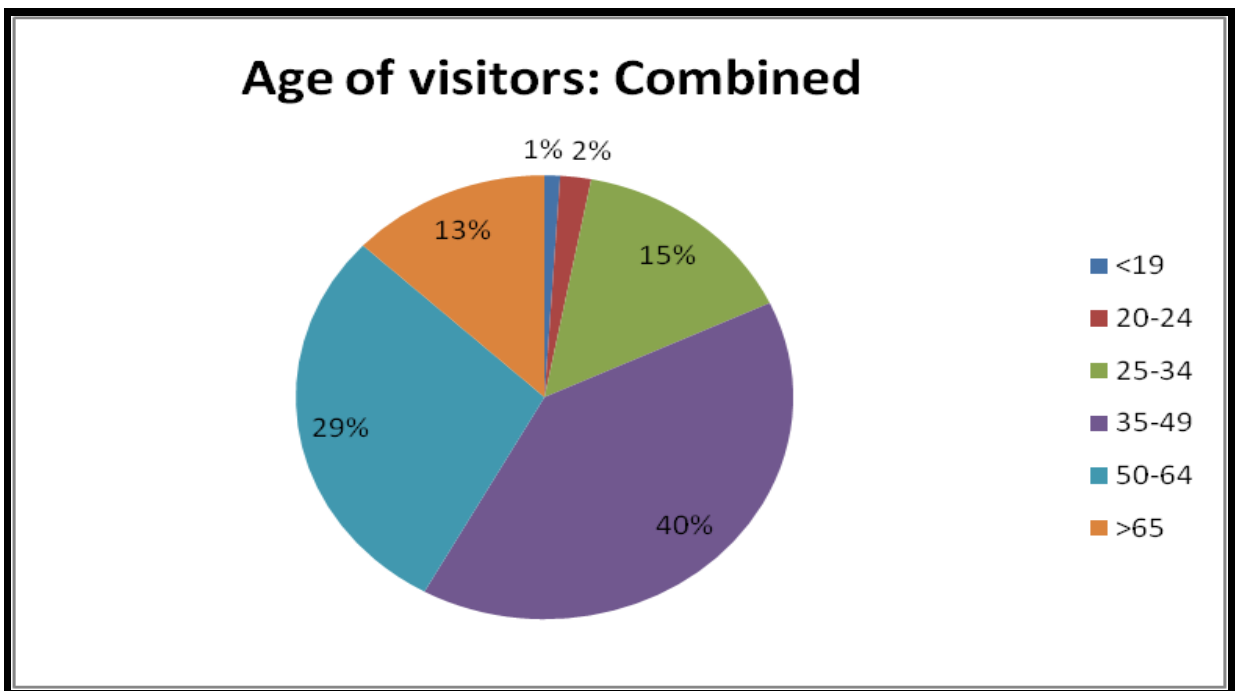


Figure 4.4: Age of visitors to the two parks

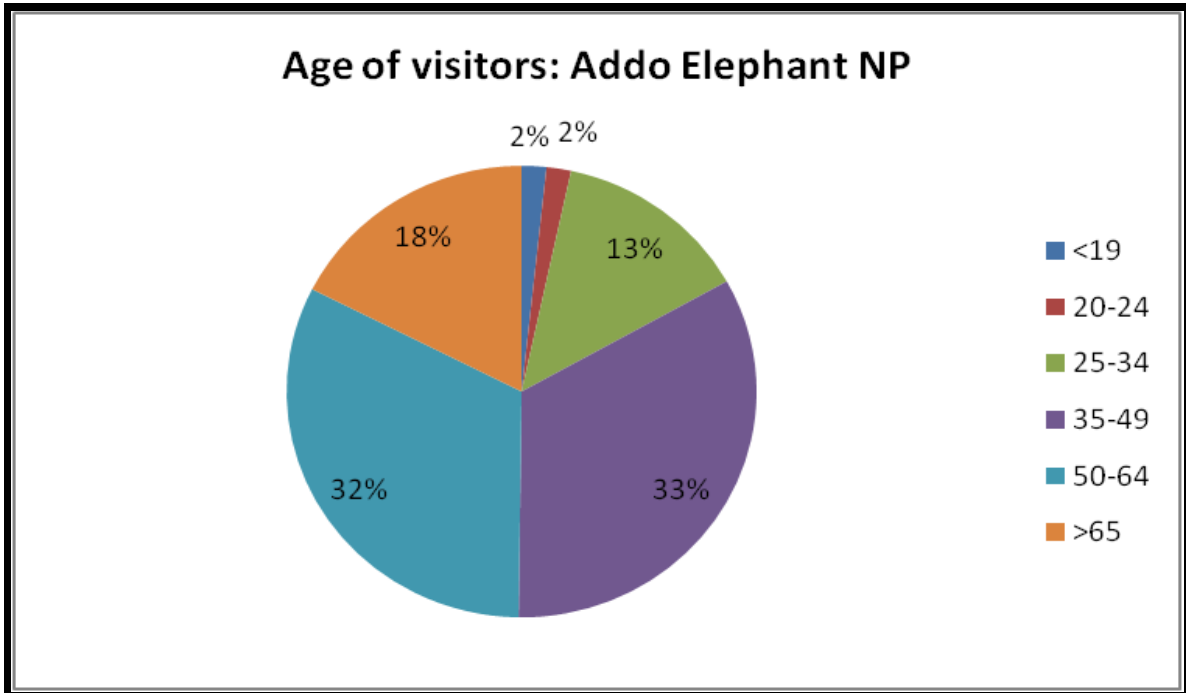


Figure 4.5: Age of visitors to Addo National Park

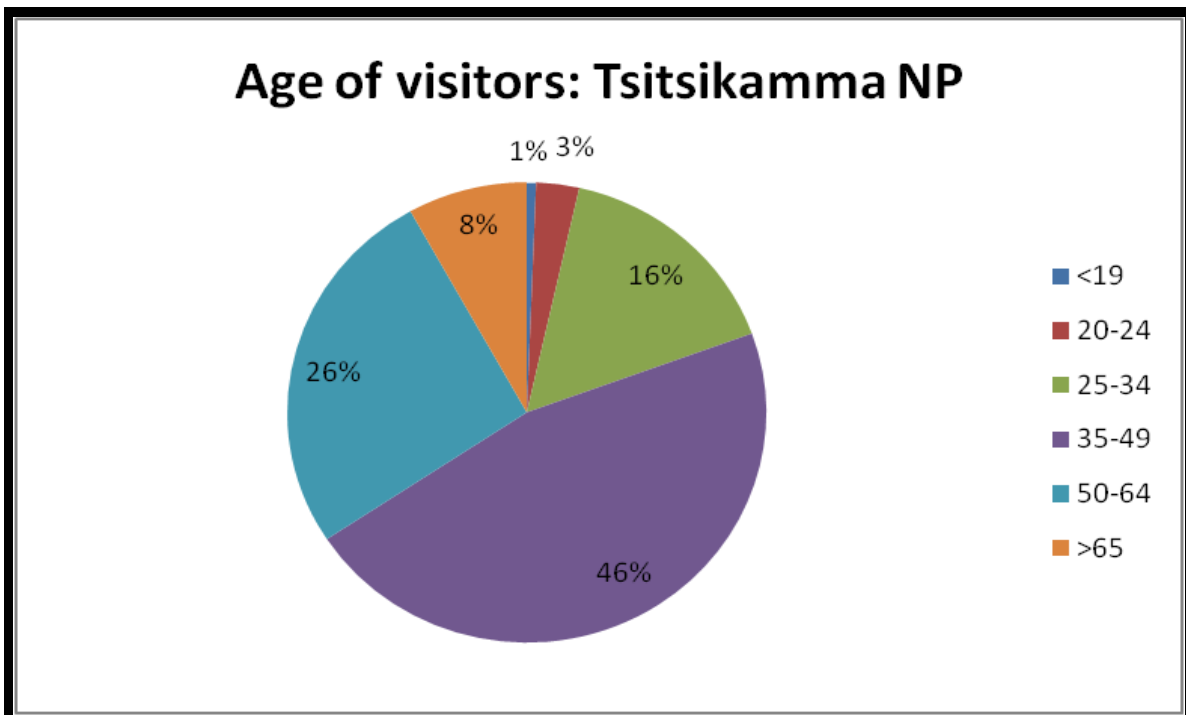


Figure 4.6: Age of visitors to Tsitsikamma National Park

#### 4.2.3 Province of residence

Figure 4.7 indicates that 37% of the visitors were from Western Cape and 29% from Gauteng. When the parks are analysed individually it is found that the Addo Elephant National Park attracts more visitors from the Western Cape (49%) and Eastern Cape (28%) than from Gauteng (11%) whereas the Tsitsikamma National Park attracts more visitors

from Gauteng (44%) than Western Cape (28%). This clearly indicates that the two marine parks origin of main tourism market regarding province differs. This has important marketing value for SANParks. There is, however, no clear reason why this is the case.

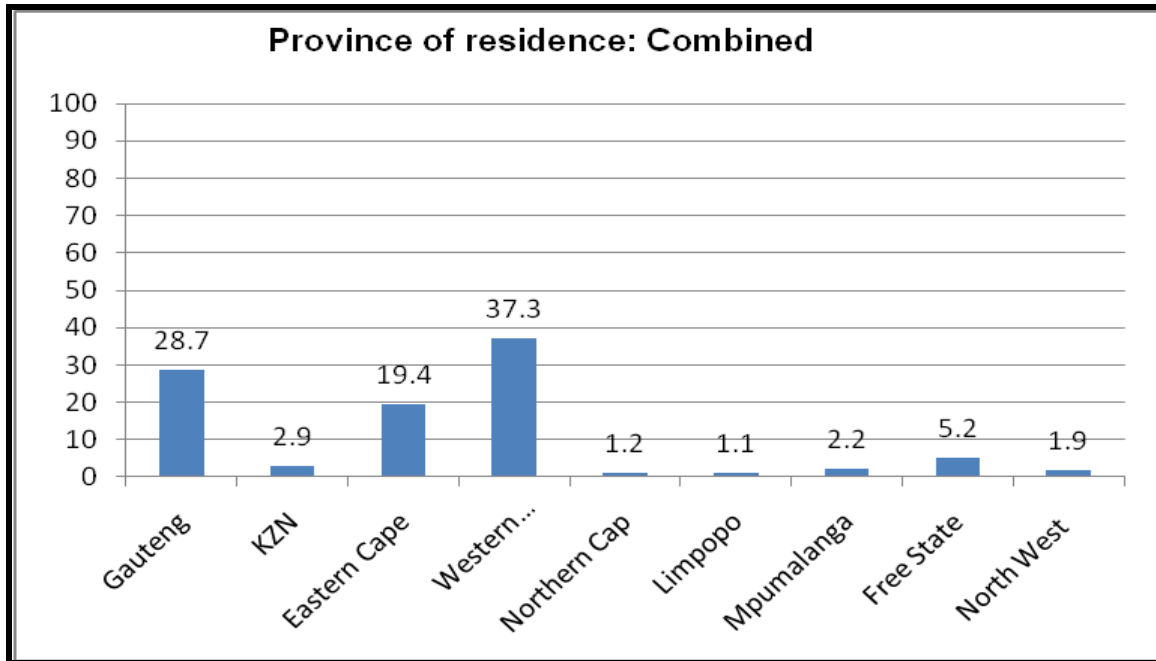


Figure 4.7: Province of residence for the two parks

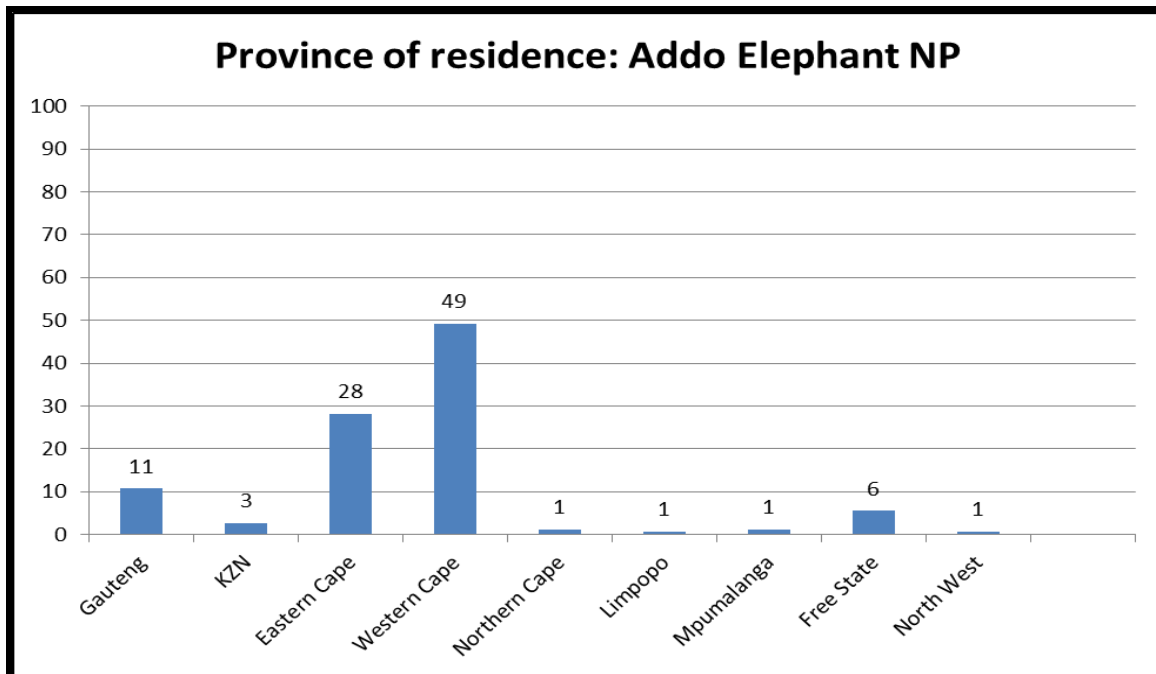


Figure 4.8: Province of residence for Addo Elephant National Park

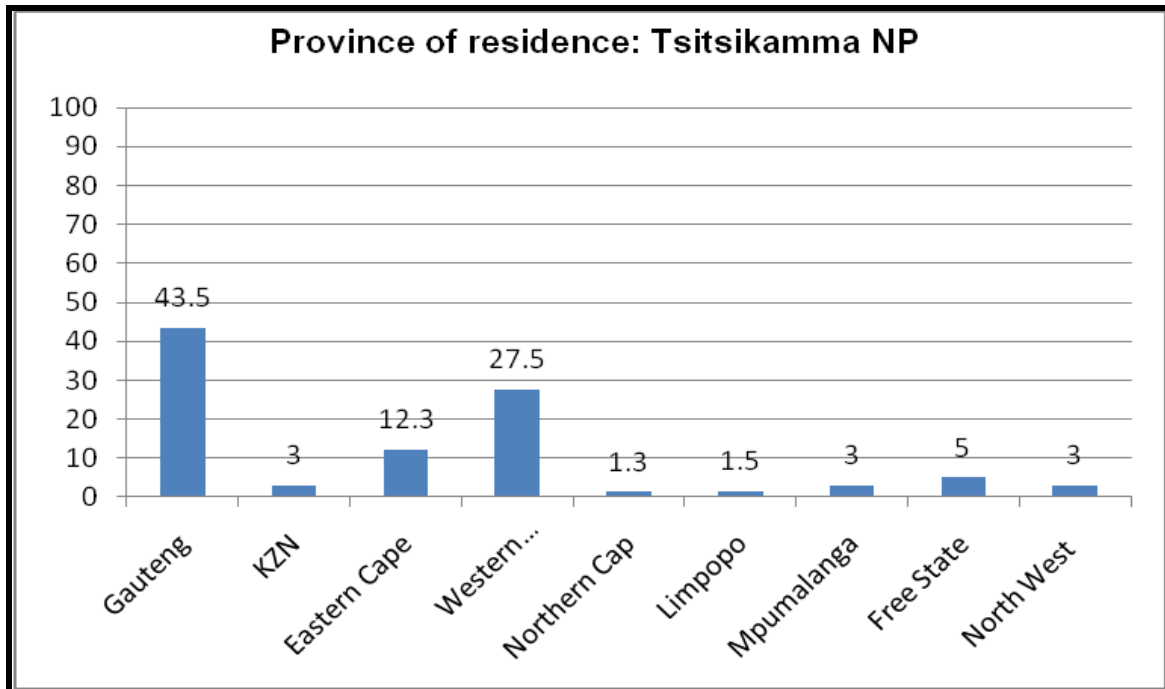


Figure 4.9: Province of residence for Tsitsikamma National Park

#### 4.2.4 Marital status

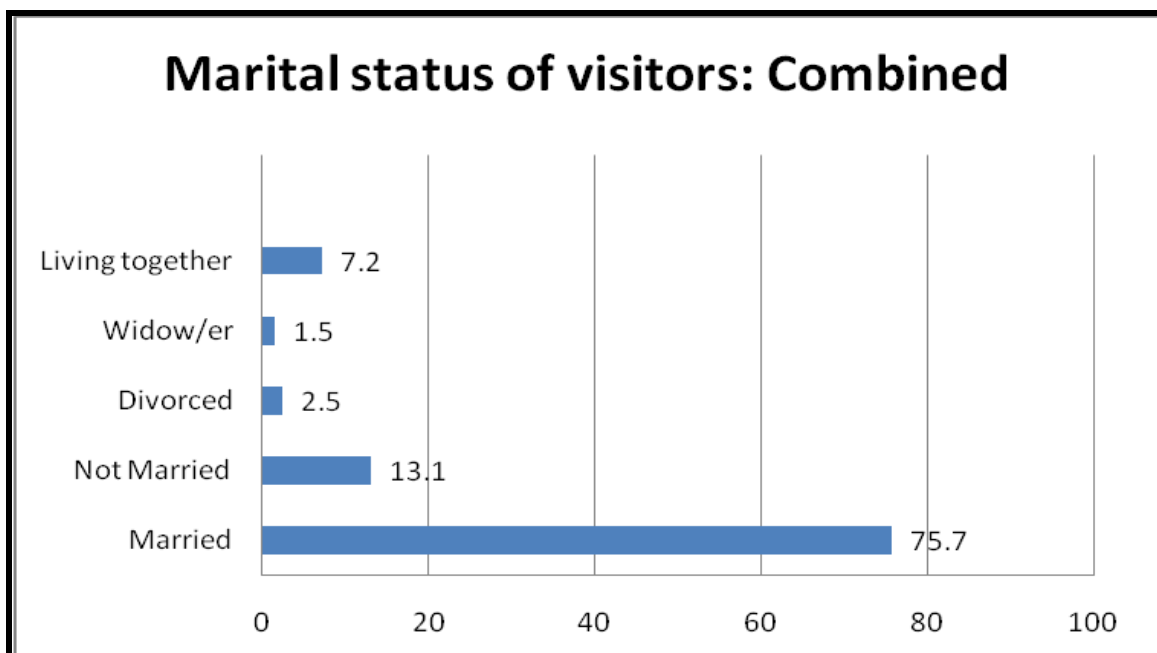


Figure 4.10: Marital status of visitors to the two parks

Figure 4.10 indicates that the majority of the visitors to both the parks are married (76%), while 13% are not married and 7% live together. The same trend can be seen when one look at the parks separately, 73% of the visitors to the Addo Elephant National Park (Figure 4.11) are married, 14% are not married. At the Tsitsikamma National Park (Figure 4.12) 79% of the visitors are married and 12% are not married.

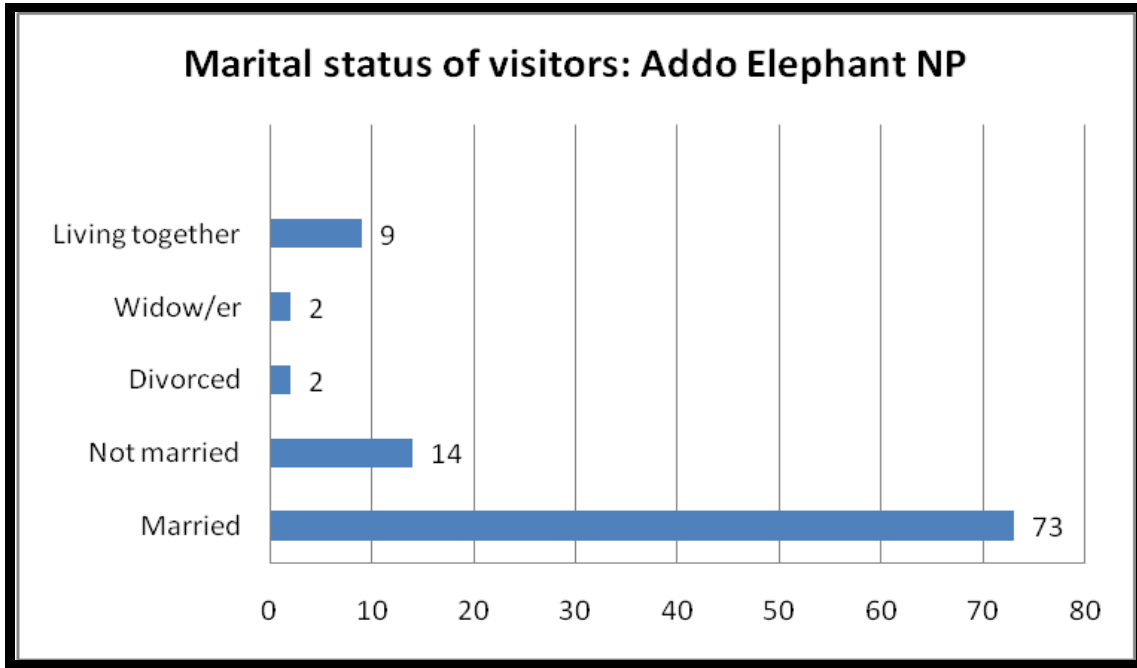


Figure 4.11: Marital status for Addo Elephant National Park

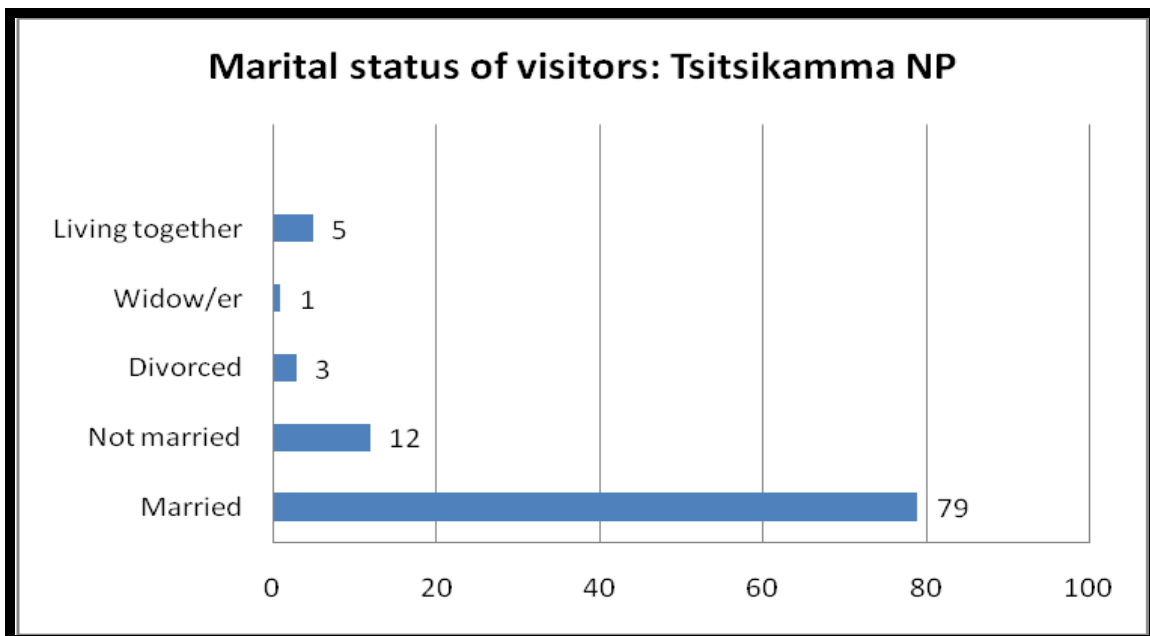


Figure 4.12: Marital status for Tsitsikamma National Park

#### 4.2.5 Level of Education

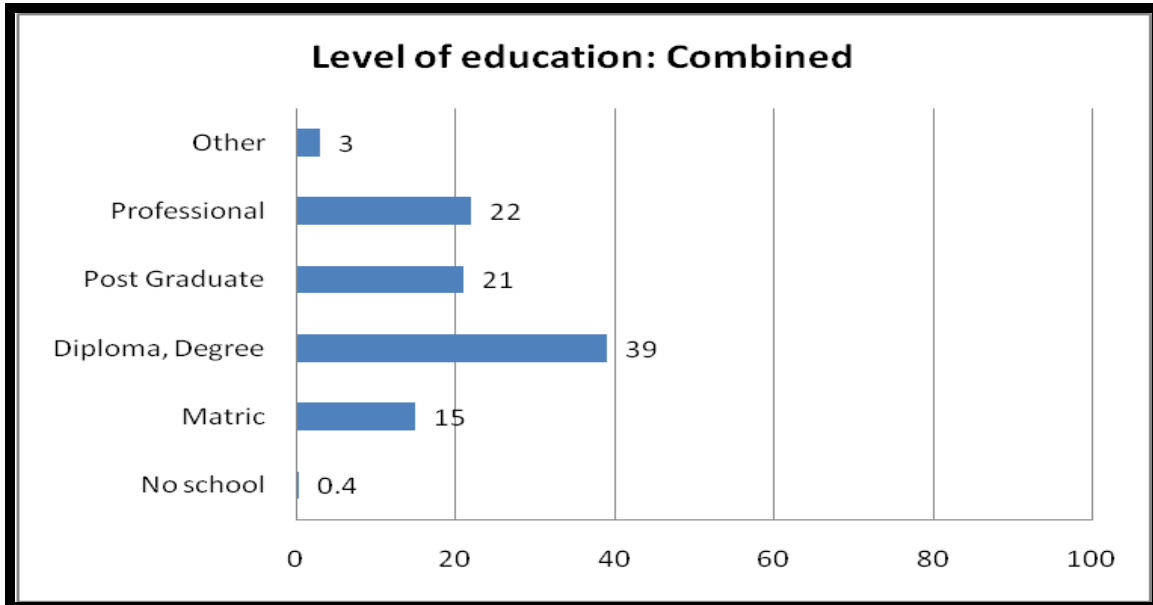


Figure 4.13: The level of education of visitors to the two parks

The visitors to the parks are well educated, with 39% having a diploma/degree, 22% had qualified professionally and 21% have a post graduate degree (Figure 4.13). A similar trend can be seen at the Addo Elephant National Park (Figure 4.14) with 38.9% having a diploma/degree, 21.3% has qualified professionally and 18% had a post graduate degree. However, the same trend can be seen at Tsitsikamma National Park (Figure 4.15) with 40% of the visitors having a degree/diploma, 23% have a post graduate degree and 22% have qualified professionally. Therefore, one can conclude by stating that the average visitor's to the selected parks are well educated.

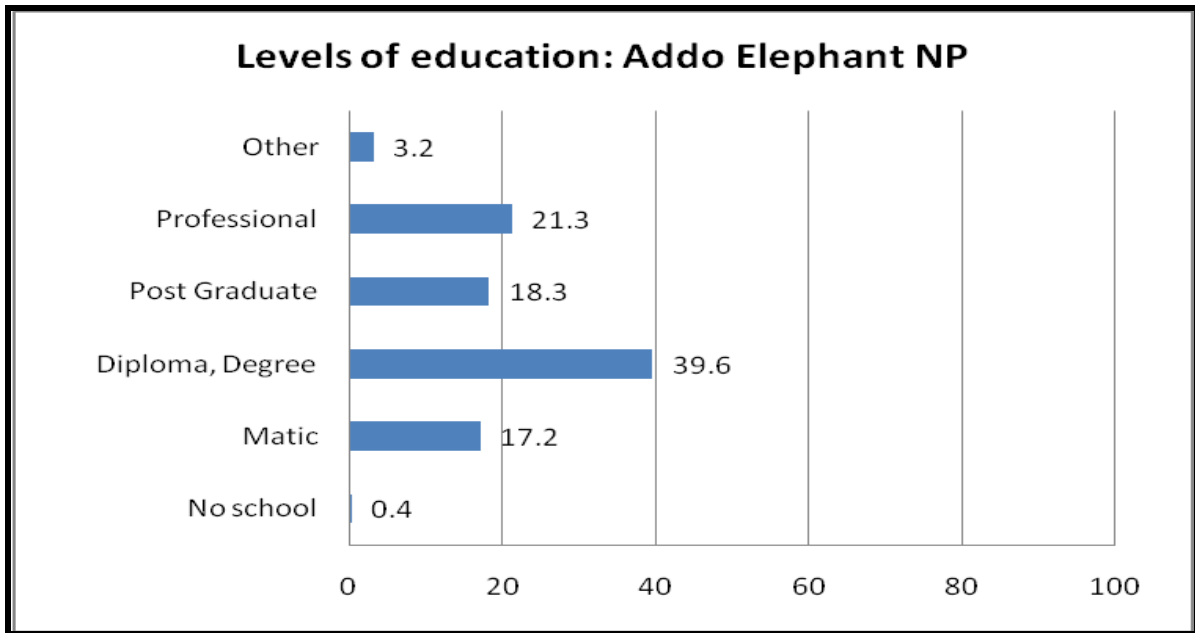


Figure 4.14: The level of education of visitors to Addo the Elephant National Park

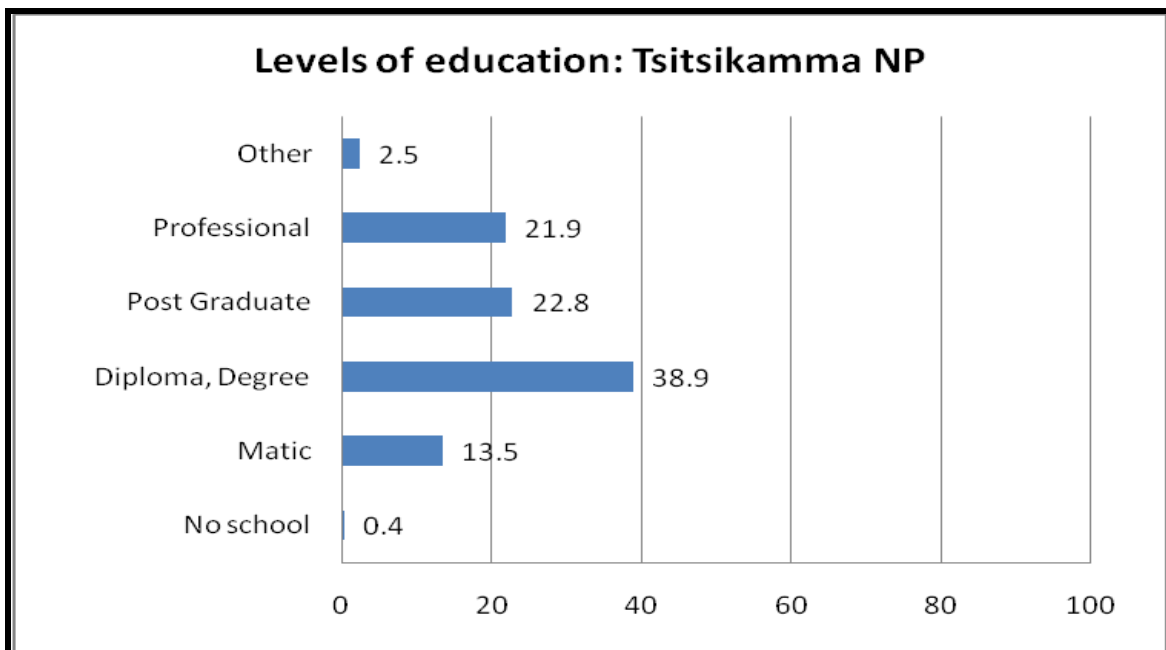


Figure 4.15: The level of education of visitors to the Tsitsikamma National Park

#### 4.2.6 Number of visitors paid for

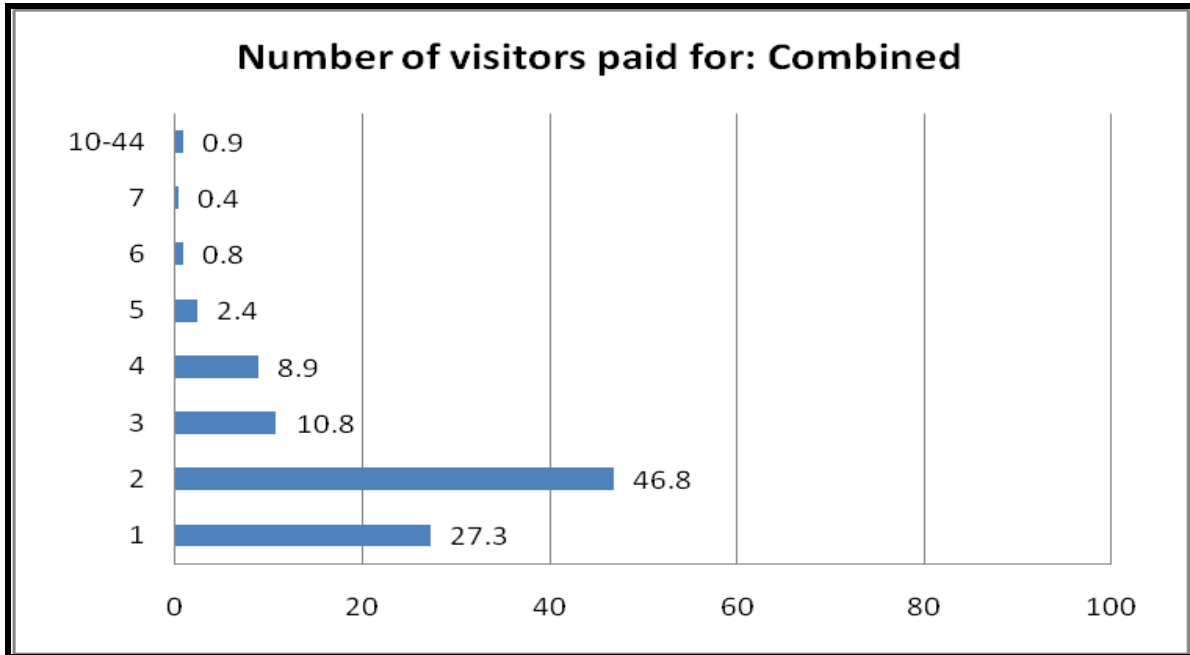


Figure 4.16: Number of people paid for, for the two parks

The majority of the respondents visiting the two national parks paid for two people (47%), followed by those paying for one person (27%) and 11% of visitors who are paying for three people (Figure 4.16). Visitors to the parks are married and travel in a group of two or one person. When looking at the parks individually, it is interesting to see that the largest percentage of the respondents visiting the Addo Elephant National Park pay for two people (54%) (Figure 4.17) where at the Tsitsikamma National Park (Figure 4.18) the largest percentage of visitors pay for one person (45%), followed by two people (39%) in Figure 4.18. This has important future development implications that SANParks has to keep in mind in the future when developing new products such as accommodation.

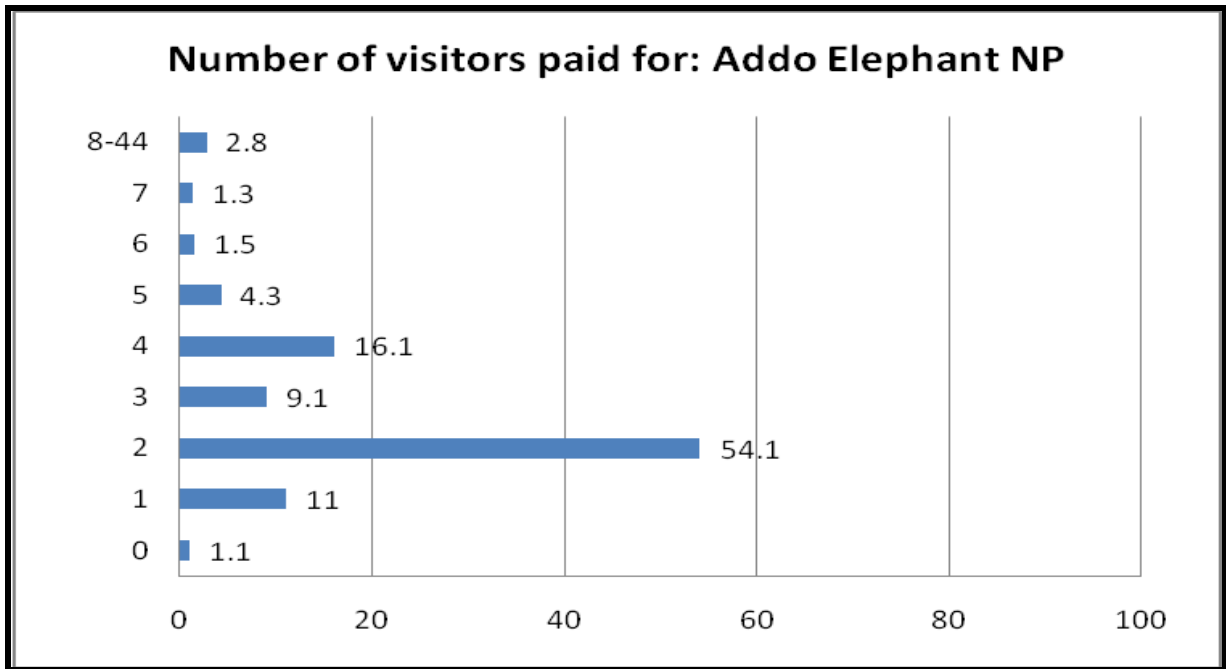


Figure 4.17: Number of visitors paid for Addo Elephant National Park

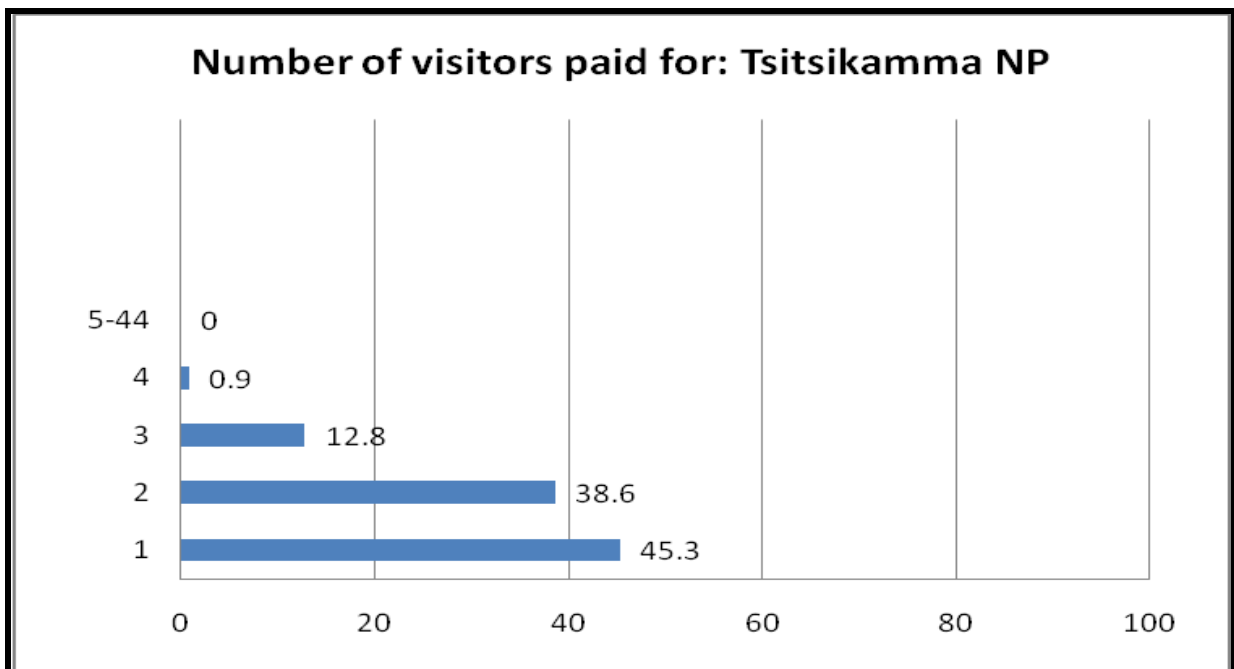


Figure 4.18: Number of visitors paid for Tsitsikamma National Park

#### 4.2.7 Number of nights stayed

Figure 4.19 indicates that the majority of the visitors to the two national parks stay for two nights (38%), followed by one (20%) and three nights (19%) respectively. Similar results were found with the individual analysis at the parks: the Addo Elephant National Park (Figure 4.20) the majority of the visitors stay two nights (40%), followed by one night (22%) and three nights (20%) and at Tsitsikamma National Park 35.7% two nights, 17.8% three nights and 17.1% one night. (Figure 4.21)

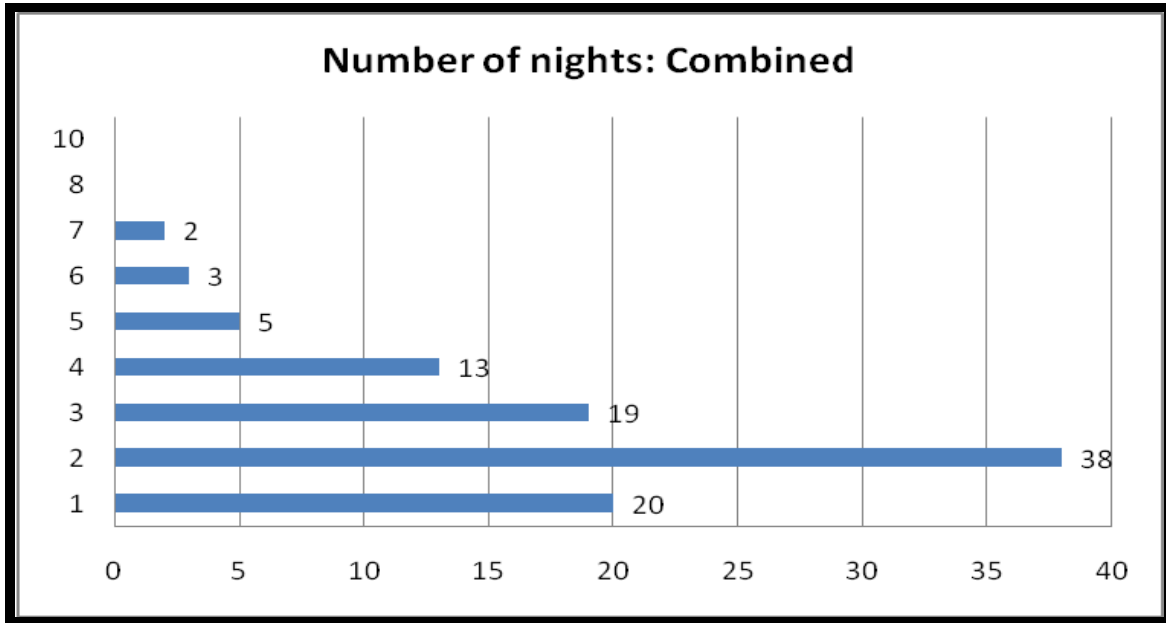


Figure 4:19 The number of nights visitors stayed at the two parks

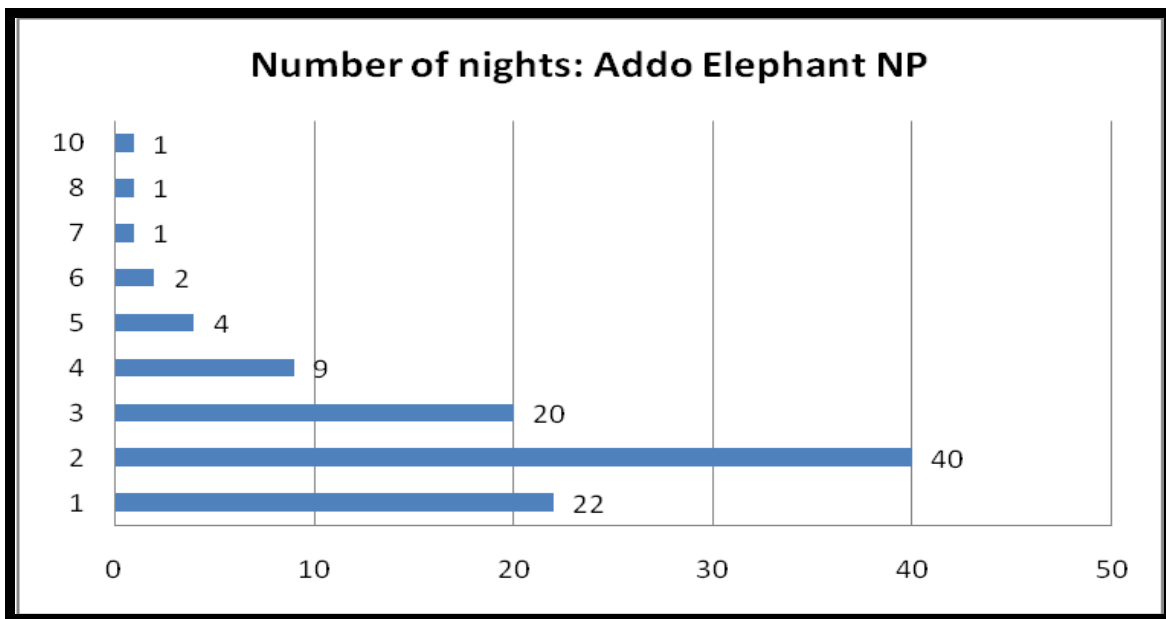


Figure 4.20: The number of nights visitors stayed at the Addo Elephant National Park

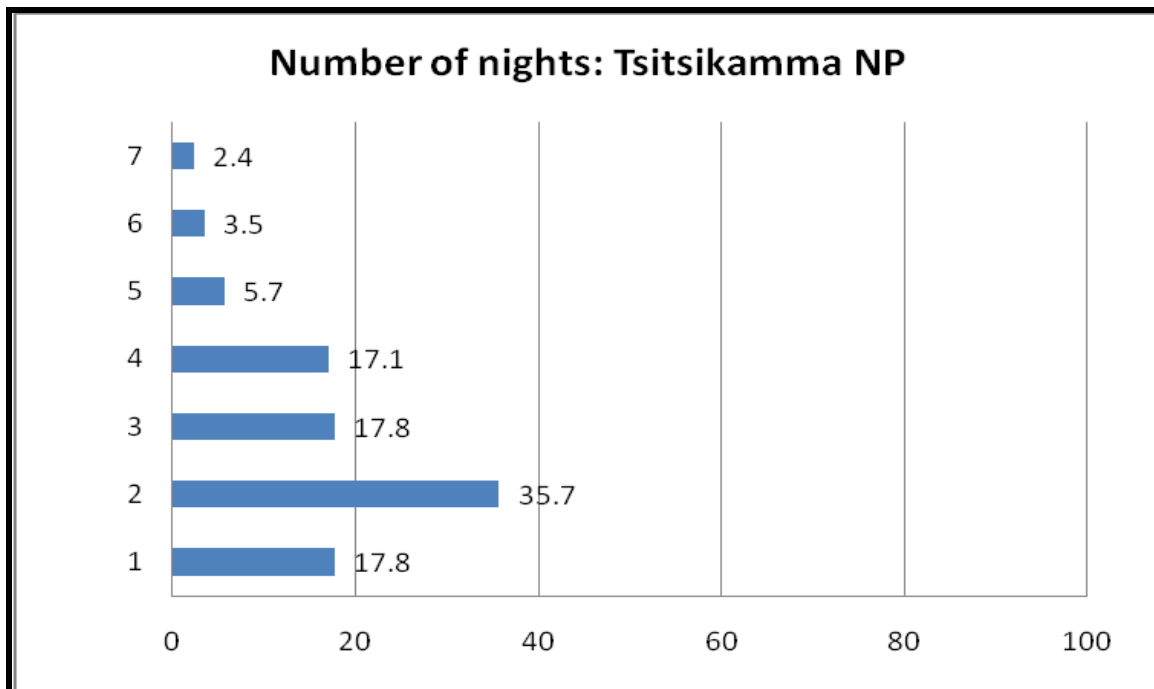


Figure 4.21: The number of nights visitors stayed at the Tsitsikamma National Park

To summarise the research regarding the visitor's profiles to the two selected national parks the following summary is provided to indicate differences and similarities between the two parks.

- The largest percentage of the visitors to the Tsitsikamma National Park were Afrikaans speaking and in the case of the Addo Elephant National Park, English speaking.
- The largest percentage of the visitor for both parks was between the ages of 35 and 49.
- The largest percentage of the tourists visiting the Addo Elephant National Park was from the Western Cape Province and the largest percentage of the tourists visiting Tsitsikamma National Park was from the Gauteng Province.
- The largest percentage of the tourists to both parks had a diploma or a degree.
- The largest percentage of the tourists to both parks was married.
- The largest percentage of the tourists visiting Addo Elephant National Park paid for two people, while the majority of the tourists visiting Tsitsikamma National Park paid for one person.
- The largest percentage of tourists to both parks stayed between 2- 4 nights.

The next section of the chapter will discuss the travel motivations to the two national parks which was determined by means of a factor analysis. The different factors that were identified will also be discussed in this section of the chapter.

### **4.3 Travel motivation**

The combined factor analysis for the Addo Elephant and the Tsitsikamma National park will be discussed next.

#### **4.3.1 Factor analysis**

The aim of a factor analysis is to reduce the data and to assist in the interpretation of the data. The factor analysis further describes the variance-covariance relationship among a number of variables in terms of a few underlying but unobservable random quantities, called factors (Table 4.1).

The factor analysis (Pattern matrix) identified the following four factors for the Addo Elephant and the Tsitsikamma National parks (combined): Education/Knowledge (factor 1), Relaxation and Escape (factor 2), Park attributes (factor 3) and Family togetherness (factor 4). The mean value for each factor was calculated, the mean scores can be interpreted on the original 5-point Likerts Scale of measurement. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient was also examined for each factor to check the reliability of the data. The Cronbach Alpha values were above .4 which shows consistency among the items measured. When dealing with the Cronbach Alpha, "Kline (1999) notes that although the generally accepted value of 0.8 is appropriate for cognitive tests such as intelligence tests, for ability tests the cut-off point of 0.7 is more suitable. He goes on to say that when dealing with psychological constructs, values below even 0.7 can, realistically, be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured" (Field, 2009:675).

##### **4.3.1.1 Combined factor analysis**

A factor analysis was conducted regarding the question of what motivates people to travel to the Addo Elephant and Tsitsikamma National Parks. Four main factors were identified (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Factor analysis for Addo Elephant and Tsitsikamma National Park

	Factor 1: Education/ Knowledge seeking	Factor 2: Relaxation and escape	Factor 3: Park attributes	Factor 4: Family togetherness
Mean value	2.99	3.61	1.97	3.17
Cronbach's Alpha	0.883	0.679	0.737	0.583
Learn about endangered animals	.891			
Learn about animals	.876			
Learn about a specific animal	.785			
Learn about plants	.721			
Photographs of animals	.649			
Educational reasons	.592			
Photographs of plants	.505			
Learn about nature	.296			
Appreciation for endangered species	.387			
To explore	.304			
To relax		.714		
Get away		.650		
Great accommodation & facilities		.547		
Climate of destination		.455		
Conference			-.844	
Events			-.751	
Grew up with park			-.544	
Well known brand			-.531	
Hiking trails			-.416	
Benefits of children				-.616
Family recreation				-.399
Spend time with friends				-.252

The factor analysis revealed the following information:

- **Factor 1: Education/ Knowledge seeking**

Education and knowledge seeking were identified as a motive which included constructs such as: learn about endangered species, animals and specific plants, to learn about nature, to explore, the photography animals and plants. This factor has a mean value of 2.99 which is the third highest of the four factors identified. Oh, Uysal and Weaver, (1995:123) and Swanson and Horridge (2006:677) confirm this

factor as a travel motive of tourists to nature based areas. Education and knowledge has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.833 which is good from a statistical point of view.

- **Factor 2: Relaxation and escape**

Relaxation includes constructs such as: to get away and to relax, great accommodation facilities and the climate of the destination. Tourists who travel to marine parks want to escape from their daily routine and want to relax and enjoy the wildlife of the park. Saayman *et al.* (2009) confirmed relaxation and escape as a motive to nature-based destinations such as marine areas which support this research of marine parks. The mean value of relaxation was 3.61 which is the highest of the four factors, making it the most important travel motive of tourists to marine parks. Relaxation had a Cronbach Alpha of 0.679 which is acceptable.

- **Factor 3: Park attributes**

Activities include constructs such as conferences and events, hiking trails and grew up with the park. Saayman and Van der Merwe (2007), Molera and Albaladejo (2007), and Kim, Borges and Chon (2006) confirm “park attributes” as an travel motive for tourists. This factor has a mean value of 3.17, the second highest of the four factors. Park attributes has a Cronbach Alpha of .737 which is good

- **Factor 4: Family togetherness**

Family togetherness includes constructs such as benefits of children, family recreation and to spend time with friends. This factor had the lowest mean value with 1.91. Kozak (2002), Yoon and Uysal (2005), Molera and Albaladejo (2007), Saayman *et al.* (2009) confirmed family togetherness as a motive to marine destinations. Family togetherness had a Cronbach Alpha of 0.583.

#### **4.3.1.2 Comparison between the two parks**

The purpose of the study was to draw a comparison between travel motives of tourists to the Addo Elephant National Park and the Tsitsikamma National Park. The smaller the P-value the better the results (Cleophas, Zwinerman & Cleophas, 2006:109)

Table 4.2: Travel motive comparison: Addo Elephant and Tsitsikamma National park

Factors	Park	Mean value	Standard deviation	N - value	Effect size	P-value
Factor 1 Education/knowledge seeking	Addo	3.16	0.92	498	0.35	0.000000
	Tsitsikamma	2.82	1.96	488		
Factor 2 Relax/ Escape	Addo	3.41	0.90	492	0.44	0.000000
	Tsitsikamma	3.81	0.78	491		
Factor 3 Park attributes	Addo	3.00	1.21	477	0.28	0.000009
	Tsitsikamma	3.33	1.08	476		
Factor 4 Family togetherness	Addo	1.83	1.02	472	0.27	0.000005
	Tsitsikamma	2.10	0.82	475		

The mean values indicate the level of importance for the two parks attributed to each factor. Ellis and Steyn (2003:51-53) introduced a measure that is called the effect size, which not only makes the difference independent of units and sample sizes, but also relates it with the spread of the data. Cohen (1988:29-46) gives the following for the interpretation of the effect size in the current case:

- small effect:  $d=0.2$
- medium effect:  $d=0.5$
- large effect:  $d=0.8$

When dealing with the Cronbach Alpha, Kline (1999) notes that although the generally accepted value of 0.8 is appropriate for cognitive tests such as intelligence tests, for ability tests the cut-off point of 0.7 is more suitable. He goes on to say that when dealing with psychological constructs, values below even 0.7 can, realistically, be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured (Field, 2009:675). The smaller the P-value the more reliable the results (Cleophas, Zwinerman & Cleophas, 2009:129).

- Factor 1: Education and knowledge seeking  
Factor one has an effect size of 0.35, and P-value of 0.0000 which indicate a small to medium effect, therefore indicating a small statistical significant difference. From the results it is clear that tourists to the Addo Elephant National Park indicated that they feel that education as travel motive is more important that for tourists to the

Tsitsikamma National Park. This information, therefore, adds to the development of marketing material as well as the marketing strategy for the Addo Elephant National Parks. Marketers for the Addo Elephant National Park can advertise the park as an ecotourism destination where tourists have the opportunity to learn about nature.

- Factor 2: Relaxation and escape

Factor two has an effect size of 0.44, and P-value of 0.00000 which indicate a small to medium effect, therefore indicating a statistically significant difference. 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. Again SANParks marketers need to stretch the fact that Tsitsikamma National Park will provide tourists with the opportunity to relax and to escape from their everyday routine.

- Factor 3: Park Attributes

Factor three had an effect size of 0.28, and a P-value of 0.00009 which indicate a small effect size, therefore indicating a small statistically significant difference between the two parks. Therefore, a small significant difference exists between the two parks regarding this travel motive.

- Factor 4: Family togetherness

Factor four had an effect size of 0.27, and a P-value of 0.000005 which indicate a, small effect size. Therefore, a small significant difference exists between the two parks regarding this travel motive.

Therefore, difference in the travel motives exist for tourists to marine parks such as the Addo Elephant National which provides tourist with traditional wildlife such as elephants, lions, rhino’s and other antelope species together with its marine life, and the Tsitsikamma National Park which is mainly a marine park with beautiful scenic areas as well birdlife and small antelope species. The results also indicate that tourists had a stronger motive to “relax and escape” who visit the Tsitsikamma National Park which can be due to its marine wildlife and scenic beauty. This research contributes to the marketing of these two marine parks as it shows that marketing strategies must take these findings into consideration cognise when developing marketing material for parks. It also shows that SANParks cannot market all its parks under the same strategy, but need to diversify it.

#### **4.4 Conclusion**

The aim of this chapter was to determine the visitors profile visiting the Addo Elephant and the Tsitsikamma National Park, and to determine the travel motivations of visitors to the selected national parks (Addo Elephant and Tsitsikamma National Park).

The visitor's profile gave the following important differences: the largest percentage of the visitors to the Tsitsikamma National park were Afrikaans speaking and in the case of the Addo Elephant National Park, English speaking. The largest percentage of the tourists visiting Addo Elephant National Park were from the Western Cape and the largest percentage of the tourists visiting the Tsitsikamma National Park were from the Gauteng province.

The factor analysis was conducted for the two parks individually as well as combined to determine the travel motives of tourists to marine national parks. Four factors were identified namely: "Education and knowledge" seeking, "Relaxation and escape", "Park attributes" and "Family togetherness".

The most important motive found at the Tsitsikamma National Park was "relaxation and escape" whereas tourists to the Addo Elephant National Park indicated the motive "education and knowledge seeking" as more important. This research confirms that there are common motives as well as unique motives for visiting National Parks in South Africa (Van der Merwe & Saayman, 2010).

From this research it is clear that when developing marketing strategies for marine parks one needs to focus on these four travel motivations as well as the differences between the motives for each park.

## Chapter 5

### Conclusions and Recommendations

#### 5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to draw conclusions and to make recommendations, concerning this research.

The main goal of the study was to determine the travel motives to selected marine national parks in South Africa, namely the Addo Elephant and the Tsitsikamma National Parks. To achieve the main goal the following objectives were set:

*Objective 1: To conduct an analysis regarding tourist behaviour and travel motivations of tourists.*

The objectives were met in Chapter 2 by literature analysis regarding tourist behaviour and travel motives. The main aspects of tourist behaviour that were covered were: what is a tourist, what is tourist behaviour, the determinants of consumer behaviour, the decision choice and decision making process. The main aspects of travel motivation that were discussed were: the importance of travel motives: travel motivation theories – Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Murray's classification of needs, Mill and Morrison's need and wants theory, Dann's push and pull theory and the sun lust and wanderlust theory. Previous research regarding travel motives to marine and nature destinations were also discussed.

*Objective 2: To do an analysis regarding marine tourism.*

Objective 2 was met in Chapter 3. The main aspects covered in this chapter were: an overview of marine tourism, the history of marine tourism, the components of marine tourism, marine tourism opportunities, the role players in marine tourism and a description of the Addo Elephant and the Tsitsikamma National Parks.

*Objective 3: To develop a visitors' profile of tourists and draw a combined factor analysis of tourists visiting the selected marine national parks.*

This objective was met in Chapter 4. This was done by determining the visitors' profile of tourists visiting marine national parks and by conducting a factor analysis of visitors to the Addo Elephant and the Tsitsikamma National Parks. A comparison was done in order to determine if there were any differences between the motives to the two selected parks.

*Objective 4: To draw conclusions and make recommendations.*

Objective 4 will be met in this chapter. The main conclusions regarding tourist behaviour, analysis of marine tourism and the empirical survey as well as recommendations for this study and further research are given in this chapter.

## **5.2 Conclusions regarding research**

- Firstly, a conclusion will be drawn regarding the literature analysis of tourist behaviour and motivation (Chapter 2).
- Secondly, a conclusion will be drawn regarding the literature analysis of marine tourism (Chapter 3).
- Thirdly, a conclusion will be drawn from the empirical research (Chapter 4).

### **5.2.1 Conclusion regarding tourist behaviour and travel motives (Chapter 2)**

The following conclusions can be drawn from tourist behaviour and travel motivation

- Tourist behaviour can be seen as the reason why tourists buy certain products, and how their decisions are made (c.f. 2.1).
- Tourist behaviour is all the actions that are involved in selecting, purchasing, using and disposing of tourism products (c.f. 2.2).
- Tourist behaviour can be analysed through the tourist behaviour model (c.f. 2.3.1)
- By knowing tourists by means of decision making models will help to understand why tourists make certain decisions and why the tourists buy certain products and services (c.f. 2.3.2).
- Motivation is something that drives tourists in making a decision (c.f. 2.4).
- Travel motivation theories are important in order to determine what drives (motivates) tourists to make decisions regarding buying a tourism product or service (c.f. 2.4.1).
- Motivation theories studied include Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Maslow believed that one has to satisfy ones basic needs first and once they are met, one will move on to actualising one's potential (c.f. 2.4.1).
- Murray's needs classification has varying independency; knowing the strength of one need will not necessarily have any impact on the strength of another. The strength of all the needs must be measured and not the hierarchical levels that they have reached (c.f. 2.4.1).
- Mill and Morrison's needs and wants theory refers to the set of needs that influence a person to travel and participate in travel activities. Motivation occurs when an individual wants or desires to satisfy a need (c.f.2.4.1).

- Push and Pull factors encourage or motivate people to travel. Certain factors were identified which encourage or motivate (push) people to leave their family home for another destinations and attributes which attract people to a certain destination (pull). The following push factors were identified: novelty, escape, kinship, relationships, prestige and relaxation. The following pull factors were identified: budget, ease of travel, culture, history, wilderness, cosmopolitan environment and facilities (c.f. 2.4.1).
- Gray identified two types of tourism, namely: 'sun lust' and 'wanderlust'. Sun lust is tourism motivated by the desire of rest, relaxation, sea, sun and sand. Wanderlust tourism is based on the desire to travel and experience different cultures and people (c.f. 2.4.1).
- Previous research conducted on travel motivations to marine and nature destinations (c.f. 2.4.2).
- Table 5.1 summarises research conducted previously on travel motives of tourists to nature based marine destinations and national parks (c.f Table 2.1).

### **5.2.2 Conclusions regarding the analysis of marine tourism (Chapter 3)**

The following are the main conclusions regarding literature studied on marine tourism:

- Coastal and marine tourism is growing at an even faster rate than tourism in general. The ocean offers many opportunities for recreation and tourism and it is a source of food and transport. In the past its access was limited for tourists, but coastal and marine tourism has become a big business that forms part of the growing global industry (c.f. 3.1).
- Travel for marine recreational purposes has been around for centuries. One of the first references of humans making use of a boat was Noah, where he and his family were saved by God. In South Africa marine tourism started with the Portuguese navigators; Bartholomew Diaz, Vasco da Gama, Perestrello and Sir Francis Drake. This opened the sea route that led to extensive trade with the east coast of Africa and the Far East (c.f. 3.2).
- Marine tourism does not only include those recreational activities away from one's place of residence and which have as their host of focus the marine environment but it also consists of the following aspects: ocean and coastal waters ports, hotels and restaurants, island and beach resorts, recreation activities, fishing boat operators, cruise ships and charter yacht companies. Marine tourism consists of the following components: cruise liners, the beach and the marine tourist (c.f. 3.3).
- South Africa has some of the finest beaches, surfing, diving and whale watching spots in the world. The Marine tourism environment consists of the following

components: Marine National Parks, Marine Protected areas, Blue Flag beaches, public sector and the private sector. South Africa has six Marine National Parks, 22 Marine Protected areas and 29 Blue Flag beaches. The Private sector in South Africa represents the tour operators, lodge operators, accommodation and hospitality organisations. Department of Tourism is the public sector body that aims to develop tourism in South Africa. Other governments' bodies that have become involved in tourism are: National Tourism Organisation and South African Tourism (c.f. 3.4).

- Marine environments can be viewed as four spectrums. The spectrum categorises marine recreation according to its distance from shore. The following categories were identified: Class I – Easy accessible, Class II – Accessible, Class III - Less accessible, Class IV – Semi-remote, Class V – Remote (c.f. 3.5).
- Marine tourism consists of the following activities:
- Activity based: Scuba diving has been the most popular activity and is also one of the most profitable forms of tourism (c.f. 3.5.1).
- The nature of the marine tourism activity depends on the two following factors: equipment and safety issues. Big Bay in Bloubergstrand, Jefferys Bay and Durban are the top surfing spots in South Africa and Sodwana is one of the popular diving spots in South Africa (c.f. 3.5.2).
- Opportunities to go on holiday and to have fun with friends remain one of the most important motivators for travel recreation. The following social marine base activities take place in South Africa: Cape to Rio Yacht race, Whale festival in Hermanus, Crayfish festival in Lamberts Bay, Knysna Oyster festival and the Sedgfield Lake festival (c.f. 3.5.3).
- There are different key role players in the marine tourism industry namely, the tourist, government, community and the tour operator. Male and younger groups participate in the higher risk activities like windsurfing, sailing, surfing and scuba diving. The wildlife based activities are dominated by the older age groups and in some cases females (c.f.3.6.1).
- Management of Marine National Parks in South Africa falls under the Department of Tourism, formally known as DEAT. Certain legislation and agencies have been put in place to make sure that conservation of marine areas take place, those are : The Marine Living Resources Act (1998) and SANParks (c.f. 3.6.2).
- Coastal communities of South Africa are dependent on marine resources. The fishing industry in South Africa employs nearly 28 000 people who live at or near the coast and some of the Marine National Parks and Marine Protected Areas were declared “no take” zones where no fishing is allowed (c.f. 3.6.3).

- The tour operators' involvement in the industry is most likely to be motivated by profit (c.f. 3.6.4).
- Impacts on the marine environment can be divided into economic, social and environmental (c.f.3.7).

### 5.2.3 Conclusions regarding the empirical survey (Chapter 4)

The following section will summarise the most important aspects of Chapter 4. First the profile of the visitors to the two selected parks was determined (Table 5.2) and secondly, a factor analysis was compiled to determine the travel motives of these tourists.

#### 5.2.3.1 Profile of the tourists

Table 5.1: Summary of tourist profile

Categories	Addo Elephant National Park	Tsitsikamma National Park
Language	English (43%) Afrikaans (31%)	Afrikaans (51%) English (34%)
Age	35 – 49 years (33%)	35 – 49 years (46%)
Province of residence	Western Cape (49%) Eastern Cape (28%)	Gauteng (44%) Western Cape (28%)
Marital status	Married (73%)	Married (79%)
Level of Education	Diploma/degree (40%)	Diploma/degree (39%)
Number of visitors	2 people (54%)	1 person (45%)
Number of nights	2 nights (40%)	2 nights (36%)

It is clear that the visitors' profile as shown in Table 5.2 of tourists to the two marine national parks were the same except for the following (c.f. 4.2):

- The largest percentage of the visitors to the Tsitsikamma National Park were Afrikaans speaking and in the case of the Addo Elephant National park most tourists were English speaking.
- The main tourism markets for the Addo Elephant National Park were from the Western Cape and Eastern Cape and not Gauteng and Western Cape like in the case of Tsitsikamma National Park. This information can assist SANParks in marketing strategy development for the two selected national parks.

A combined factor analysis was conducted for the two national parks and revealed the following four factors (c.f. 4.3.1):

- Educational/knowledge

This factor had a mean value of 2.99 which was the third highest of the four factors and had a Cronbach alpha of 0.883 which is very good. Factor one included the following constructs, learn about endangered animals, a specific animal, plant, nature, to explore, take photographs of animals and plants, educational reasons and to get appreciation for endangered species. According to Oh, Uysal and Weaver, (1995:123) and Swanson and Horridge (2006:677) this factor is confirmed as a travel motive of tourists to nature based areas.

- Relaxation and escape

This factor had a mean value of 3.61 which was the highest of the four factors, relaxation had a Cronbach alpha of 0.679 which is acceptable and constructs for the following aspects, to relax, get away, great accommodation facilities and for climate. Saayman *et al.* (2009) confirmed relaxation and escape as a motive to nature based destinations such as marine areas.

- Park attributes

This factor had a mean value of 1.97 which was the lowest of the four factors, and a Cronbach alpha of 0.737 which constructs of the following aspects: conferences and events, grew up with the park, well-known brand and hiking trails. Tourists found that these attributes were not important. Saayman and Van der Merwe (2007), Molera and Albaladejo (2007), Kim, Borges and Chon (2006) confirmed park attributes as an travel motive for tourists.

- Family togetherness

This factor had a Cronbach alpha 0.583) which included aspects such as benefits of children, family recreation and to spend time with friends. Kozak (2002), Yoon and Uysal (2005), Molera and Albaladejo (2007) and Saayman *et al.*(2009) confirmed family togetherness as a motive for marine destinations

Comparison of travel motives between the two parks

- Factor 1: Education and knowledge seeking

Factor one has an effect size of 0.35, and P-value of 0.0000 which indicate a small to medium effect, therefore indicating a small to medium statistically significant difference.

- Factor 2: Relaxation and escape

Factor two has an effect size of 0.44, and P-value of 0.00000 which indicate a small to medium effect size, therefore indicating small to medium statistically significant difference.

- Factor 3: Park Attributes

Factor three had an effect size of 0.28, and a P-value of 0.00009 which indicate a small effect size, therefore indicating small statistically significant difference.

- Factor 4: Family togetherness

Factor four had an effect size of 0.27, and a P-value of 0.000005 which indicate a, small effect size.

It is, therefore, clear that there is a difference in the travel motives of tourists to marine parks such as the Addo Elephant National (providing tourists with traditional wildlife such as elephants, lions, rhino's and other antelope species together with its marine life), versus the Tsitsikamma National Park, mainly a marine park with beautiful scenic areas as well birdlife and small antelope species.

Based on the findings of this research it is clear that marine nature-based products, in this case the Tsitsikamma and the Addo Elephant National Parks, which do have different marine and ecotourism product offerings, had different travel motives for the tourists.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

Recommendations are divided into recommendations regarding this study and recommendations regarding future research.

#### **5.3.1 Recommendations regarding this study**

- 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 the 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 accordingly. The marketing material that available must be more focused on the different motivations to the different parks for example the brochures for 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, therefore SANParks can market the Addo Elephant National Park in Gateway (English) and the Tsitsikamma can be marketed in Weg (Afrikaans).
- In order to remain competitive, marine destinations will have to add new products and experiences to their 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.

### **5.3.2 Recommendations for further research**

- Similar research can be conducted at other National Parks in South Africa to determine each national park's unique selling or marketing features, as this research proves that tourist travel motives differ for national parks with different products offerings and attributes.
- Similar research should be conducted between international and national tourists visiting the National Parks in South Africa.
- Similar research should be conducted on provincial game reserves and privately owned nature based products.

#### **5.4.1 Limitations**

This study had the following limitations:

This research was conducted during South Africa's holiday seasons, for example June/July and December/January, which are mainly occupied with domestic tourists and consist of a low number of international tourists as they prefer to visit South Africa National Parks in the off season. It is recommended that a study should be done only on international tourists' travel motives to South African National Parks.

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**AFDELING A: SOSIO-DEMOGRAFIESE DETAIL**  
**SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DETAIL**

1. Huistaal?/ <i>Home language?</i>	English	1
	Afrikaans	2
	Ander/ <i>Other</i> (Spesifiseer/ <i>Specify</i> )	3

2. In watter jaar is u gebore? / In which year were you born? \_\_\_\_\_ 19\_\_\_\_\_

3. Inligting i.v.m. kinders onder 21 jaar wat die Park saam met u besoek (indien enige)./  
*Information regarding children under 21 years who visit the Park with you (if any)*

		Ouderdom/ Age
4. Huwelikstatus?/ <i>Marital status?</i>	1ste kind/ <i>1st child</i>	
	2de kind/ <i>2nd child</i>	
	3de kind/ <i>3rd child</i>	
	4de kind/ <i>4th child</i>	
	Getroud/ <i>Married</i>	1
	Ongetroud/ <i>Not married</i>	2
	Geskei/ <i>Divorced</i>	3
	Wewenaar, Weduwee/ <i>Widow/er</i>	4
	Woon saam/ <i>Living together</i>	5

5. Land van herkoms (Indien buite RSA)?/  
*Country of residence (If outside RSA)?*

*Country of residence (If outside RSA)?*

6. In watter provinsie is u woonagtig?/  
*In which province do you live?*

*In which province do you live?*

Gauteng	1
KwaZulu-Natal	2
Oos-Kaap/ <i>Eastern Cape</i>	3
Wes-Kaap/ <i>Western Cape</i>	4
Noord-Kaap/ <i>Northern Cape</i>	5
Limpopo	6
Mpumalanga	7
Vrystaat/ <i>Free State</i>	8
Noordwes/ <i>North West</i>	9

7. Dui asseblief u hoogste kwalifikasie aan./  
*Please indicate your highest level of education.*

*Please indicate your highest level of education.*

Geen skool/ <i>No school</i>	1
Matriek/ <i>Matric</i>	2
Diploma, Graad/ <i>Diploma, Degree</i>	3
Nagraads/ <i>Post Graduate</i>	4
Professioneel/ <i>Professional</i>	5
Ander/ <i>Other</i> (Spesifiseer/ <i>Specify</i> )	6

**AFDELING B: EKONOMIESE IMPAK**  
**SECTION B: ECONOMIC IMPACT**

1. Vir hoeveel persone betaal u in u toergroep, insluitend u self?/

How many people are you **paying** for in your travelling group, including yourself?

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2. Met watter tipe vervoer reis u na die Park?/  
Which mode of transport do you use to travel to the Park?

4x4  
Kombi  
Rekreasie voertuig/Leisure vehicle  
Sedan  
2x4/Bakkie  
Ander/Other  
(Spesifiseer/Specify)

1
2
3
4
5
6

3. Hoeveel keer het u Nasionale Parke oor die afgelope 3 jaar besoek (insluitende hierdie keer)?/  
How many times have you visited National Park over the past 3 years (including this one)?

4. Hoeveel nagte bly u in dié Park?/How many nights are you staying at this Park?

5.1 Wat is die hoofrede waarom u hierdie Nasionale Park gekies het? / What is the main reason for choosing this National Park?

---

6.1 Meen u die huidige aktiwiteite, bv staproetes, is voldoende? /Do you feel the current activities for example hiking routes, are adequate?

Ja/Yes	Nee/No
1	2

6.2 Motiveer u antwoord op vraag 6.1. / Please justify your answer to question.

---

6.3 Watter ander aktiwiteite, bv sterrekyk, sou u graag in die nabye toekoms in die Park wou sien?  
Which other activities, for example stargazing, would you like to see in this Park in the near future?

6.4 Indien kinders onder 18 jaar oud saam met u die Park besoek, watter tipe rekreasie-aktiwiteite sou hulle verkies? / If children under the age of 18 years are included in your travel party, what type of recreation activities would they prefer?

Geen kinders vergesel ons nie/ No accompanying children  
Speletjies (aktiwiteitsboek)/Games (activity book)  
Opvoedkundige praatjies/Educational talks  
Gidsuitstappies / Guided walks  
Ouer-en-kind aktiwiteite / Parent-and-child activities  
Natuurvideo's/ Nature video's  
Rekreasieprogramme/ Recreational programmes  
Kleutersorg/ Daycare  
Ander/Other

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9

(Spesifiseer/Specify)

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7. Beoordeel volgens die skaal waarom u die Park besoek het (beantwoord asseblief al die moontlikhede)?/Rate on a scale of importance why you visited the Park? (please answer all possibilities)

Uiters belangrik/ <i>Extremely important</i>	5				
Baie belangrik/ <i>Very important</i>	4				
Belangrik/ <i>Important</i>	3				
Minder belangrik/ <i>Less important</i>	2				
Glad nie belangrik/ <i>Not at all important</i>	1				
	1	2	3	4	
a. Om weg te breek uit my roetine/ <i>To get away from my routine</i>	1	2	3	4	
b. Om te ontspan/ <i>To relax</i>	1	2	3	4	
c. Om 'n nuwe bestemming te verken/ <i>To explore a new destination</i>	1	2	3	4	
d. Om tyd saam met my vriende te spandeer/ <i>To spend time with my friends</i>	1	2	3	4	
e. Tot voordeel van my kinders/ <i>For the benefit of my children</i>	1	2	3	4	
f. Vir gesinsrekreasie of om tyd saam met iemand spesiaal deur te bring / <i>For family recreation (to be with family) or to spend time with someone special.</i>	1	2	3	4	
g. Sodat ander lede van my geselskap kan leer van die natuur/ <i>So that other members in my party could learn about nature</i>	1	2	3	4	
h. Sodat ander lede van my geselskap waardering vir bedreigde spesies en wildlewe kan ontwikkel/ <i>So that other members in my party could develop an appreciation for endangered species and wildlife</i>	1	2	3	4	
i. Hoofsaaklik om opvoedkundige redes (om dinge te leer, my kennis te verbreed)/ <i>Primarily for education reasons (to learn things, increase my knowledge)</i>	1	2	3	4	
j. Om van diere in die algemeen te leer/ <i>To learn about animals in general</i>	1	2	3	4	
k. Om van bedreigde spesies te leer/ <i>To learn about endangered species</i>	1	2	3	4	
l. Om van plante te leer/ <i>To learn about plants</i>	1	2	3	4	
m. Om van spesifieke diere te leer/ <i>To learn about specific animals</i>	1	2	3	4	
n. Om diere te fotografeer/ <i>To photograph animals</i>	1	2	3	4	
o. Om plante te fotografeer/ <i>To photograph plants</i>	1	2	3	4	
p. Omdat ek met die Park grootgeword het/ <i>Because I grew up with the Park</i>	1	2	3	4	
q. Dit is 'n bekende handelsmerk, daarom ken almal dit/ <i>It is a well-known brand; therefore everybody knows it</i>	1	2	3	4	
r. Die Park het goeie akkommodasie en fasiliteite/ <i>The Park has great accommodation and facilities</i>	1	2	3	4	
s. Ek verkies die gebied weens die klimaat/ <i>I prefer this area, because of its</i>	1	2	3	4	

<i>climate</i>				
t. Vir die staproetes/ <i>To do hiking trails</i>	1	2	3	4
u. Vir konferensies/ <i>For conferences</i>	1	2	3	4
v. Vir gebeurtenisse in die omgewing / <i>For events in the area</i>	1	2	3	4

8.1 Besoek u enige winkels insluitend vulstasies in die onmiddellike

omgewing van die Park?/*Do you visit any shops including*

*petrol stations in the immediate vicinity of the Park?*

Ja/ Yes	Nee/ No
------------	------------

8.2 Indien Ja, noem die tipes besighede / *If Yes, list the types of businesses*

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

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9. Hoeveel het u tydens u besoek aan die volgende bestee?/*How much did you spend during*

*your visit at the Park on the following?*

1. Ingangs- en bewaringsfooi/*Entrance and conservation fee*

R \_\_\_\_\_

2.

Akkommodasie/*Accommodation*

R \_\_\_\_\_

3. Restaurante/*Restaurants*

R \_\_\_\_\_

4. Kos/*Food*

R \_\_\_\_\_

5. Drinkgoed/*Beverages*

R \_\_\_\_\_

6. Tabakprodukte/*Tabacco products*

R \_\_\_\_\_

7. Klere en skoene/*Clothes and footwear*

R \_\_\_\_\_

**8. Vervoer/*Transport:***

8.1. Na die Park/*To the Park*

R \_\_\_\_\_

8.2. By die Park/*At the Park*

R \_\_\_\_\_

9. Rekreasie (Wildritte)/*Activities (Game drives)*

R \_\_\_\_\_

10. Medisyne/*Medicine*

R \_\_\_\_\_

11. Toiletware/*Toiletries*

R \_\_\_\_\_

12. Aandenkings en juwele/*Souvenirs and jewelry*

R \_\_\_\_\_

13. Telefoon, faks, internet/*Telephone, fax, internet*

R \_\_\_\_\_

14. Ander uitgawes nie hierbo vervat nie (Spesifiseer) /*Other expenses not listed above (Specify)*

14.1

R \_\_\_\_\_

14.2

R \_\_\_\_\_

14.3

R \_\_\_\_\_

14.3

R \_\_\_\_\_

**AFDELING C:  
VERBRUIKERSPROFIEL  
SECTION C:  
CONSUMER  
PROFILE**

1.a) Watter dienste behoort die besoekersentrum te lewer?/*Which services should the visitor centre offer?*

*Which services should the visitor centre offer?*

- a) Ouditorium met natuurvideo's/  
*Auditorium with nature video's*
- b) Skyfievertonings/  
*Slide shows*
- c) Spesialispraatjies/  
*Specialist talks*

J/Y	N
1	2
1	2
1	2

- d) Vermaak vir kinders/  
Entertainment for kids  
e) Ander (spesifiseer)/ Other  
(specify)

1	2
1	2

2. Watter van die volgende verkies u wanneer u die Park besoek?/

Which of the following do you prefer when you visit the Park?

	J/Y	N
a) Selfbediening / Self-catering	1	2
b) Uiteet & selfbediening/ / Dine out & self-catering	1	2
c) Bed & ontbyt/ Bed & breakfast	1	2
d) Aandete, bed & ontbyt/ Dinner, bed & breakfast	1	2

3.1 Watter tydskrifte koop u gereeld? / Which magazines do you buy regularly?

- a \_\_\_\_\_  
b \_\_\_\_\_  
c \_\_\_\_\_

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3.2. Watter koerante koop u gereeld?/ Which newspapers do you buy regularly?

- a \_\_\_\_\_  
b \_\_\_\_\_  
c \_\_\_\_\_

3.3 Na watter TV-programme kyk u gereeld? / Which TV programmes do you watch regularly?

- a \_\_\_\_\_  
b \_\_\_\_\_  
c \_\_\_\_\_

3.4 Na watter radiostasies luister u gereeld? / Which radio stations do you listen to regularly?

- a \_\_\_\_\_  
b \_\_\_\_\_  
c \_\_\_\_\_

3.5. Waar het u van die Park te hore gekom (Toon slegs die belangrikste een)?/ Where did you hear about the Park (Indicate only the most important one)?

	Ja/Yes	Nee/No
a. Webwerf/Website	1	2
b. Skoue/ Shows (Getaway)	1	2
c. Vriende & familie/ Friends & family	1	2
d. Radio	1	2
e. TV	1	2
f. Tydskrifte/ Magazines	1	2
g. SANParke/ SANParks	1	2
h. Vorige besoeke/ Previous visits	1	2

i. Ander/ Other (Spesifiseer/ Specify)

1	2
---	---

4. Besit u 'n "Wild Card"?/Are you a Wild Card holder?

Ja/ Yes	Nee/No
1	2

5. Hoe het u die volgende in die Park ervaar?/How did you experience the following in the Park?

Nie van toepassing/ Not applicable	6					
Uitstekend/ Excellent	5					
Goed/ Good	4					
Redelik/ Fair	3					
Swak/ Poor	2					
Baie swak/ Very poor	1					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
a. Restaurante/Restaurants	1	2	3	4	5	6
b. Winkels/Shops	1	2	3	4	5	6
c. Aanwysings/Directions	1	2	3	4	5	6
d. Pamflette/brosjures (aangekoop)/Pamphlets/brochures (purchased)	1	2	3	4	5	6
e. Gratis pamflette/brosjures/Free pamphlets/brochures	1	2	3	4	5	6
f. Uitleg van die Park in die algemeen/Layout of the Park in general	1	2	3	4	5	6
g. Wildritte (waar van toepassing)/Game drives (where applicable)	1	2	3	4	5	6
h. Wilduitstappies (waar van toepassing)/Game walks (where applicable)	1	2	3	4	5	6
i. Bosbraaie (gereël deur SANParke)/Bush Braais (arranged by SANParks)	1	2	3	4	5	6
j. Staproete/Hiking trail	1	2	3	4	5	6
k. Wassery/Laundry service	1	2	3	4	5	6
l. Piekniekplek/ Picnic sites	1	2	3	4	5	6
m. Braaifasiliteite by Chalet/Tent/ Braai facilities at Chalet/Tent	1	2	3	4	5	6
n. Vriendelikheid en diens van Park personeel/Friendliness and service of Park personnel	1	2	3	4	5	6
ONTVANGS/RECEPTION						
o. In boek/Registrasie-proses /Check- in process	1	2	3	4	5	6
p. Genoegsame inligting rakende kontakpersone ingeval van nood/ Sufficient information regarding contact persons in case of emergency	1	2	3	4	5	6
q. Inligting rakende attraksies en aktiwiteite in die Park/ Information regarding	1	2	3	4	5	6

<i>attractions and activities in the Park</i>						
r. Vriendelikheid en diens van ontvangs / <i>Friendliness and service of reception</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
s. Ontvangs in die algemeen / <i>Reception in general</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6

6. Akkommodasie/ *Accommodation*

6.1 Watter tipe akkommodasie verkies u (kan meer as een selekteer)? / *Which kind of accommodation do you prefer (more than one can be selected)?*

	Ja/Yes	Nee/No
Kampeer/ <i>Camping</i>	1	2
Chalets	1	2
Houthut/ <i>Wooden hut</i>	1	2
Tentkamp/ <i>Tented camp</i>	1	2
Gastehuis/ <i>Guesthouse</i>	1	2
Wilderniskamp (sonder heining)/ <i>Wilderness camp (without fence)</i>	1	2
Ander (Spesifiseer)/ <i>Other (Specify)</i>	1	2

6.2 Watter nuwe tipe akkommodasie, indien enige, sal u graag in die Park in die nabye toekoms wil sien? / *What new type of accommodation, if any, would you like to see in this Park in the future?*

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6.3 Word die akkommodasie-eenhede na u mening goed in stand gehou? (Motiveer asb.) / *According to you, are the accommodation units well maintained? (Please justify)*

Ja/Yes	Nee/No
1	2

6.4 Hoe kan die Park se "ambience" (milieu/omgewing) na u mening verbeter word? / *What do you think should be done to enhance the ambience of this Park?*

7.1 Is daar aan u verwagtinge voldoen t.o.v. die volgende? / *Were your expectations met regarding the following?*

Ja/ Nee

	Yes	/No
a. Akkommodasie/ <i>Accommodation</i>	1	2
b. Natuur- en wildlewe/ <i>Nature and wildlife</i>	1	2
c. Fasiliteite/ <i>Facilities</i>	1	2
d. Aktiwiteite/ <i>Activities</i>	1	2

7.2 Indien u NEE geantwoord het in enige kategorie, motiveer asb./ *If the answer was NO in any category please justify.*

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8. Sou u hierdie spesifieke Park vir u familie en vriende aanbeveel?/ *Would you recommend this specific Park to your friends and relatives?*

Ja/ Yes	1
Nee/ No	2

8.1 Motiveer asseblief u antwoord op vraag 8./ *Please justify your answer to question 8.*

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9. Enige aanbevelings of voorstelle?/ *Any recommendations or suggestions?*

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**DANKIE VIR U ONDERSTEUNING / THANK YOU  
FOR YOUR SUPPORT**

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