

**A concessionaire model for food and beverage operations in South  
African National Parks**

**T.F. Taylor**

**21393508**

**Thesis submitted for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism at the  
Potchefstroom Campus of North-West University**

**Promoter: Prof. E. Slabbert**

**Co-promoter: Prof. M. Saayman**

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## ABSTRACT

**Keywords:** *tourism, protected areas, concessionaires, SANParks, food consumer behaviour, public-private partnerships, national parks*

In recent years, protected areas have come under pressure due to the budget cuts of government. As a result, national parks have had to devise strategies by means of which they are able to generate additional revenue, in order to remain competitive. Such a strategy is the introduction of public-private partnerships, which allows the private sector to operate certain lodging facilities, restaurants and shops within parks. SANParks introduced their commercialization strategy in 2000 and overall it has been a success. However, despite earning much needed revenue; there are many complaints from tourists regarding the food and beverage concessions.

Research regarding travel food consumption is in its infancy and is lacking in social science research. The importance of travel dining cannot be understated as it constitutes approximately 25% of tourist expenditure and as such contributes to the economic receipts of a destination. The importance of understanding the wants and needs of tourists with reference to food and beverage will enable destinations to realise the full economic potential of the tourism experience. It has been postulated that food consumption no longer forms part of the 'supporting' experience but is in fact a 'peak' tourist experience and as such can impair the total tourist experience if tourists are not satisfied with food and beverage consumption at a destination. SANParks does not offer a wide variety of food and beverage facilities and it is of utmost importance that the facilities that are available, cater to the requirements of tourists.

The purpose of this study was to construct a model for concessionaire food and beverage operations at SANParks. This was done by targeting tourists who visit SANParks and inquiring as to their preferences with regard to restaurants and shop facilities. The questionnaire for the study was posted on SANParks' website for a

period of three weeks and consisted of four sections, namely a demographic section, a section related to food service brands, a section regarding restaurants and the last section regarding shop facilities. The data was analysed to provide information needed to construct a model for concessionaire food and beverage operations in SANParks. Data provided a demographic profile of tourists to SANParks, factors analysis provided restaurant and take-away factors, ANOVA and t-tests allowed comparisons of factors with demographics and lastly structural equation modelling which provided goodness of fit indices for the proposed model.

## OPSOMMING

**Trefwoorde:** *toerisme, bewaarde gebiede, konsessiehouers, SANParke, voedselverbruikersgedrag, openbare-private vennootskappe, nasionale parke*

In onlangse jare is beskermde gebiede onder druk geplaas weens die regering se begrotingsbesnoeiings. Gevolglik is die parke genoodsaak om strategieë te bedink waardeur hulle in staat gestel word om bykomende inkomste te genereer om sodoende mededingend te bly. Sodanige strategie is die inbring van openbare-private vennootskappe wat die privaatsektor in staat stel om sekere akkommodasie fasiliteite, restaurante en winkels binne die parke te bedryf. SANParke het hulle kommersialiseringstrategie in 2000 bekendgestel en in die geheel was dit tot dusver geslaagd. Ten spyte daarvan dat broodnodige inkomste verdien word, is daar egter talle klagtes komende van toeriste met betrekking tot die voedsel- en drankkonsessiehouer-bedrywe.

Navorsing oor voedsel-verbruik wanneer op reis is nog in sy kinderskoene en daar is 'n gebrek aan sosialewetenskap-navorsing daaroor. Die belangrikheid hiervan kan nie onderbeklemtoon word nie want dit maak 25% van toeriste-uitgawes uit en dra as sodanig by tot die ekonomiese inkomste van 'n bestemming. Die belangrikheid daarvan om die wense en behoeftes van toeriste met verwysing na voedsel en drank te verstaan sal bestemmings in staat stel om die volle ekonomiese potensiaal van die toerisme-ervaring te verwesenlik. Daar is al gepostuleer dat voedselverbruik nie meer deel uitmaak van die “ondersteunende” ervaring nie, maar dat dit in werklikheid 'n “piek”-toeriste-ervaring is en as sodanig die algehele toeriste-ervaring kan belemmer as toeriste ontevrede is met voedsel- en drankverbruik by 'n bestemming. SANParke bied nie 'n wye verskeidenheid voedsel- en drankfasiliteite nie, en dit is van die allergrootste belang dat die fasiliteite wat beskikbaar is, volgens die vereistes van toeriste moet spyseneer.

Die doel van hierdie studie was om 'n model vir konsessiehouer- voedsel-en-drink-bedrywe by SANParke op te stel. Dit is gedoen deur toeriste wat SANParke besoek, te teiken en navraag te doen na hul voorkeure met betrekking tot restaurante en koopfasiliteite. Die vraelys vir hierdie studie is drie weke lank op SANParke se webwerf geplaas en het bestaan uit vier afdelings, naamlik 'n demografiese afdeling, 'n afdeling rakende voedseldiens-handelsmerke, 'n afdeling met betrekking tot restaurante en die laaste afdeling rakende koopfasiliteite. Die data is geanaliseer om inligting wat benodig word om 'n model vir konsessiehouer- voedsel-en-drink-bedrywe in SANParke te voorsien. Data het 'n demografiese profiel van toeriste na SANParke bepaal, faktor-analises het restaurant- en wegneemete-faktore bepaal, ANOVA en *t*-toetse het vergelykings van faktore met demografie moontlik gemaak en laastens, strukturele vergelyking-modellering wat pasgehalte-indekse vir die voorgestelde model voorsien het.

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# Chapter 1

## ***INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT***

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

According to the Growth Competitiveness Programme for the Tourism Industry in South Africa (GCP), compiled by South Africa Tourism (SAT) (2005:10), tourism has earned the accolade of being one of the fastest-growing sectors in the world economy and is predicted to continue this growth volume. The overall performance of tourism in South Africa is relatively strong compared to sectors identified by government as key growth sectors. South Africa has the ambition of becoming a leading tourism destination in the global tourism market. The ability of tourism to contribute significantly to the national objective of increasing propensity (measured by an increase in levels of employment and increased earnings of the majority of the population) depends on the extent to which the tourism industry can continue to grow South Africa's share of the total volume, value, and employment in the global tourism market (SAT, 2005:7). Tourism was the only sector that grew both in GDP (gross domestic product) contribution and employment in 2004 (SAT, 2005:13). There is much to celebrate in travel and tourism, which already provide jobs for a tenth of the world's population (World Travel and Tourism Council – WTTC, 2007b:3). The WTTC (2007b:3) further states that tourism is able not only to generate economic growth, but also to promote social and environmental progress. With the public and private sector working together at all levels, growth can be strategically planned to be sustainable and sensitive, not only to develop the sector's potential, but also to defend it against severe disruption due to external events beyond its direct control (WTTC, 2007a:10).

There are various challenges that arise from such a growth in the tourism market in South Africa; the ability to sustain this growth and demand will determine the ultimate success of the tourism industry in South Africa. Nature-based tourism products within South Africa are increasing in popularity, and the sustainable management of these products is important for the future of tourism in South Africa. The link between tourism and national parks is

becoming increasingly important, as tourism activities rely more heavily on the natural heritage. National parks are becoming more interested in the role of tourism in supporting conservation initiatives; thus, tourism is an important and critical component to consider in the establishment and management of national parks (Foxlee, 2007:44). The diversity of protected area tourism activities requires the adoption of an adaptive resource management approach (Mabunda, 2004:38). Good policy, careful planning, strategic management, and cooperation are essential to achieve the balance between conservation and tourism in national parks.

One of the current problems being faced by many protected areas is the cut in government funding, which means that alternative sources of funding are required in order to remain sustainable (Child, 2009; Eagles, 2007; Emerton, Bishop & Thomas, 2006; Mabunda, 2004; Mabunda & Wilson, 2009; Saporiti, 2006; Varghese, 2008; Wyman, Barborak, Inamdar, & Stein, 2011). South African National Parks (SANParks) has, therefore, devised a commercialisation strategy (SANParks, 2011:85), the main purpose of which is to reduce the cost of delivery and improve service levels by focusing on core business and utilising private capital and skills in addition to the expansion of tourism products and the generation of additional revenue for the funding of conservation (Varghese, 2008:71). The primary mandate of SANParks, however, is conservation (SANParks, 2012b:10), but the ability to achieve this mandate depends on revenue received and generated. Concessions were introduced in national parks to operate certain lodging facilities, restaurants, and shops in order for SANParks to concentrate on conservation and biodiversity. This strategy has been a success, with the exception of shops and restaurants, which have yielded a high level of negative feedback (SANParks, 2012a:34).

Management of products and people is at the heart of a successful business. The constantly growing number of tourism destinations and organisations and the enhanced quality of existing ones put pressure on organisations to find better ways of competing in the marketplace, especially in a sustainable manner (Jonker, Heath, & Du Toit, 2004:1). Organisations can, therefore, no longer depend on their existing competitive advantage for sustainable performance, as the emergence of the networked economy is resulting in fundamental changes occurring in the business ecosystem (Fontannez & Oosthuizen,



2007:9). The implication is that traditional management approaches no longer suffice in addressing the challenge of complexity. The purpose of this chapter is to clarify the problem statement, method of research and define the main objectives of the study.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND AND PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Park management is under financial constraints. Tourism is increasingly seen as an alternative source of much-needed revenue, and managers are encountering increased difficulties in balancing the demands for conservation work with suitable levels of consumer service required by tourists. The growing demand for tourism in national parks is challenging the capacity of management to meet the demand without negatively affecting the conservation of the national parks. This deficiency in capacity must be addressed through increasing the skill level of managers and management of national parks (Bushell & McCool, 2007:17). In the age of postmodernity, the experiences of consumers play an important role in economic and social life (Quan & Wang, 2004:297). Improved responsiveness to market changes and consumer preferences is imperative (Chang, Kivela, & Mak, 2011:308) if national parks intend to continue utilising tourism as a source of revenue.

Tourists increasingly demand higher standards in quality services, particularly for food and hospitality, and “secondary”, “derisive”, and “supporting” experiences have attracted the full attention of the tourism industry (Quan & Wang, 2004:297). The role of food and eating in relation to the image of the tourist destination has not been the issue of any widespread research studies, and little has been done to understand the role of food in tourist consumption (Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000:281). All tourists have to eat when on holiday and, thus, engage in some form of travel dining (Chang *et al.*, 2011:307). The significance of travel dining in the travel experience is demonstrated not merely in its basic function as sustenance, but also in the benefits that supplement the overall travel experience (Chang *et al.*, 2011:307). Food has become an increasingly important element in the tourist industry, with approximately 25% of total tourist expenditure being spent on food; however, social science research regarding the tourist experience lacks sufficient consideration of the role of food consumption (Quan & Wang, 2004:299).

The restaurants and shop outlets of South African National Parks have a history of providing poor food and beverage services to tourists (Mabunda, 2004:86). Tourists are unsatisfied with the restaurant and shop outlets, and these aspects were the poorest performing tourism operations in parks for the period 2011/2012 (SANParks, 2012a:33). Mabunda (2004:86) states that since outsourcing restaurants and facilities as part of the commercialisation strategy, tourists have perceived levels of food quality and service to be poorer than before outsourcing, which requires immediate remedial action. According to the SANParks Annual Report 2011/2012 (2012a:31), restaurant operations have remained the poorest performing of all indicators measured and have, therefore, required contract variation management. A review of tourist requirements with regard to food and beverage operations is, therefore, critical at this stage in order to ensure that the correct concessionaire is considered for food and beverage operations in SANParks.

This study will explore SANParks concessionaires in terms of food and beverages and attempt to identify factors relating to the consumption of food and beverages by tourists. The reason for undertaking this study is the apparent dissatisfaction of tourists with restaurant and shop facilities run by concessionaires in parks. Table 1.1 indicates the previous studies conducted in the field of food consumption by tourists.

**Table 1.1: Previous studies on food consumption and tourism**

| Researcher(s) and year(s) of publication                   | Focus of study                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
|------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Correia, Metal, Ferreira Da Costa, and Peres (2008)</b> | Determinants of gastronomic tourists' satisfaction: a second-order factor analysis. The research focuses on producing evidence to support a factor structure of gastronomy satisfactions, since studies of this nature are virtually non-existent.                                          |
| <b>Divisekera (2010)</b>                                   | Economics of tourism consumption behaviour: some evidence from Australia. The research aims to identify factors affecting consumptive behaviour.                                                                                                                                            |
| <b>Cohen and Avieli (2004)</b>                             | Food in tourism: attraction and impediment. The research focuses on the perception of food as an attraction in tourism by emphasising complications and impediments experienced by tourists at tourist destinations while consuming local cuisine.                                          |
| <b>Ramkissoo and Nunkoo (2011)</b>                         | Predicting tourists' intention to consume genetically modified food. A model developed to predict tourists' intention to consume genetically modified food. Perceived behavioural control and subjective norms are proposed as determinants of behavioural intention to consume such foods. |
| <b>Cong, Olsen, and Huy Tuu (2012)</b>                     | The roles of ambivalence, preference conflict and family identity: a study of food choice among Vietnamese consumers. Research into relationships of ambivalence and family identity using a structural equation model.                                                                     |

|                                                  |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
|--------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Tse and Crotts (2005)</b>                     | Antecedents of novelty seeking: international visitors' propensity to experiment across Hong Kong's culinary traditions. Research focused on factors that influence the scope and range of visitors' culinary choices.                                      |
| <b>Kivela and Crotts (2006)</b>                  | Tourism and gastronomy: gastronomy's influence on how tourists experience a destination. Research aimed at providing evidence that motivation to travel for gastronomy reasons is valid.                                                                    |
| <b>Quan and Wang (2004)</b>                      | Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: an illustration from food experiences in tourism. Research conducted to build a conceptual model in which two dimensions of tourist experience are integrated as a structural and interrelated whole. |
| <b>Chang, Kivela, and Mak (2011)</b>             | Attributes that influence the evaluation of travel dining experience: when East meets West. Research into how Chinese tourists evaluate their travel dining experiences.                                                                                    |
| <b>Hjalager and Corigliano (2000)</b>            | Food for tourists – determinants of an image. A comparison between Denmark and Italy, illustrating core elements in food cultures.                                                                                                                          |
| <b>Chang, Kivela, and Mak (2010)</b>             | Food preferences of Chinese tourists. The research was a first attempt to generate an in-depth understanding of Chinese tourists' food preferences in a culturally different environment.                                                                   |
| <b>Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012)</b> | Gastronomy as a tourism resource: a profile of the culinary tourist. The study explores the characteristics and motivations of culinary tourists.                                                                                                           |
| <b>Mak, Lumbers, Eves, and Chang (2012)</b>      | Factors influencing tourist food consumption. The study attempts to identify the salient factors affecting tourist food consumption.                                                                                                                        |
| <b>Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2009)</b>             | Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays: a grounded theory approach. The study examines the factors influencing consumption of local food and beverages at destinations.                                                           |

The studies identified in Table 1.1 indicate the growing interest in food and beverage consumption by tourists at a destination. However, these studies focus on tourism gastronomy, local food consumption by tourists, food as a determinant of destination image, the economics of food consumption, food experience in tourism, and food as an attraction. There is no research available on concessionaire food and beverage operations and the aspects that influence tourists' satisfaction with food and beverage operations. There is also no available concessionaire framework addressing food and beverage operations at nature-based tourist destinations. Models currently available in the literature will be discussed in Chapter 3, as well as the inadequacies of these models. It is important to understand what aspects influence tourist satisfaction with concessionaire food and beverage operations.

Based on the literature analysed in Chapters 2 and 3, the hypotheses in Table 1.2 were identified and constructed for the purposes of this study and to build the framework.

**Table 1.2: Hypotheses for the integrated concessionaire food and beverage model**

|                 |                                                                                             |
|-----------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| H <sup>1</sup>  | There is a relationship between satisfaction and food and beverage operations.              |
| H <sup>2</sup>  | There is a relationship between variety and food and beverage operations.                   |
| H <sup>3</sup>  | There is a relationship between retail benefits and food and beverage operations.           |
| H <sup>4</sup>  | There is a relationship between retail experience and food and beverage operations.         |
| H <sup>5</sup>  | There is a relationship between shops being too expensive and food and beverage operations. |
| H <sup>6</sup>  | There is a relationship between satisfaction and variety.                                   |
| H <sup>7</sup>  | There is a relationship between satisfaction and retail benefits.                           |
| H <sup>8</sup>  | There is a relationship between satisfaction and retail experience.                         |
| H <sup>9</sup>  | There is a relationship between variety and retail benefits.                                |
| H <sup>10</sup> | There is a relationship between variety and retail experience.                              |
| H <sup>11</sup> | There is a relationship between retail benefits and retail experience.                      |

### **1.3 GOAL OF THE STUDY**

Throughout the study, the focus will be on achieving the following goal and objectives:

#### **1.3.1 Goal**

The goal of this study is to develop a concessionaire model for food and beverage operations in South African national parks.

#### **1.3.2 Objectives**

- To analyse good governance and public-private partnerships (PPPs) in protected areas by means of a literature review.
- To analyse the consumer behaviour of tourists with regard to food and beverage consumption by analysing the relevant literature.
- To determine the factors influencing dining at park restaurants and shop facilities by means of an empirical study.
- To determine the relationship between factors and selected variables pertaining to restaurant and shop facilities by means of an empirical study.

- To interpret results from empirical analysis and literature review in order to identify key components of a concessionaire model for nature-based products.
- To draw conclusions and make recommendations with regard to the implementation and application of a concessionaire model for food and beverage operations in South African national parks.

## **1.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY**

The study aims to make the following contributions:

- Propose a concessionaire model for food and beverage operations for nature-based products that can be used and adapted for future studies.
- Review the literature, which will contribute to the body of knowledge.

## **1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Various research methods were utilised in order to attain the goal of the study. The research methodology employed for this study was a literature survey and an empirical study.

### **1.5.1 Literature study**

A literature study was conducted to determine what research had been undertaken in the research area and to develop a thorough understanding of the PPPs and food and beverage consumer behaviour on the part of tourists. Some of the keywords used in the literature study are “nature-based products”, “tourism”, “good governance”, “food service models”, “public-private partnerships”, “concessionaires”, “consumer behaviour”, “food consumption behaviour”, and “hospitality consumption behaviour”. The literature survey includes material from books, journals, the Internet, newspapers, online newspapers, magazines, databases, and other sources of information.

### **1.5.2 Empirical survey**

The empirical survey consists of the following aspects: the research design and method of collecting data, the development of a random test plan, questionnaire development, and a discussion of the analysis of data.

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

A questionnaire was developed, consisting of a demographic section and sections relating to dining preferences of restaurants and shop facilities. The questionnaire content was developed after the initial consultation with SANParks, where important issues regarding food concessionaires were identified. Thereafter, literature studies that focused on some of the aspects which required attention were reviewed to form part of the questionnaire (Gäl, Akbay, Özcicek, Özel & Ozdes Akbay, 2008; Kim, Eves & Scarles, 2009; Mak, Lumbers, Eves & Chang, 2012; Quan & Wang, 2004). Upon completion the questionnaire was sent to SANParks for final approval and therefore a pilot study was not deemed necessary. The research method was qualitative but the statistical sampling was non-probability, namely convenience sampling, therefore any previous visitors to SANParks accessing the website regularly could participate in the survey.

#### **1.5.2.2 Development of the random test plan**

The population consisted of anyone accessing the SANParks website, as the questionnaire was posted on the website for a period of two months in 2011. Thus, any person with an interest in the parks could answer the questionnaire, and therefore the population size is unknown.

#### **1.5.2.3 Development of the questionnaire**

The questionnaire was developed after an informal meeting with SANParks, utilising available literature and taken from other relevant articles. The questionnaire consisted of five sections, namely:

##### *Section 1: Demographic information*

The demographic section included questions on gender, year of birth, home language, marital status, province of residence, highest level of education, and gross annual income.

### *Section 2: Consumer choices*

This section identified tourists' accommodation preferences when staying in a park, purchasing behaviour, use of park restaurants, and opinions regarding the use of bed and breakfast accommodation in parks.

### *Section 3: Food service branding*

This section focused on the acceptability of introducing branded restaurants and shop outlets in national parks. Respondents were asked to give reasons for total disagreement with introducing branded food service outlets and were asked which brands were not acceptable in national parks.

### *Section 4: Perspectives regarding dining preferences*

In this section, respondents were asked their perspectives regarding the importance of aspects related to dining at restaurant facilities in national parks. Perspectives such as value for money, variety of product options, quality of meals, and service standards were identified. A five-point Likert scale was used to determine the level of importance of factors related to dining, where 1 was not at all important and 5 was very important.

### *Section 5: Perspectives regarding shop facilities*

This section asked respondents to rate their level of agreement with regard to comments related to the offerings of shop facilities in national parks. A five-point Likert scale was used to rate the level of agreement for each statement related to the use of shop facilities in national parks, where 1 was totally disagree and 5 was totally agree.

Other questions consisted of closed questions. The questionnaire was constructed using SurveyMonkey and was posted on the SANParks website for a period of two months from 1 October 2011 to 30 November 2011. The questionnaire was open to all website visitors, and, once the questionnaire had been completed, was automatically referred to a database and converted to an Excel spreadsheet. Although the responses were anonymous, respondents provided an email address or telephone number for competition purposes, which guaranteed that each respondent could only answer the questionnaire once. There

were 5 464 useable responses for the study. The sampling method used was non-probability and convenience sampling.

### **1.5.3 Data analysis**

The descriptive statistics focused on the demographic profile of tourists to national parks, a factor analysis obtained restaurant and shop factors, ANOVAs and t-tests were applied to compare factors and demographics, and structural equation modelling was used to determine the relationships between factors and food and beverage operations in order to develop the model.

#### **1.5.3.1 Descriptive analysis**

An analysis of the demographics of respondents was constructed as well as a factor analysis of the variables obtained from Sections 4 and 5 of the questionnaire. A factor analysis is a collection of techniques used in multivariate analysis mainly to reduce the number of variables and to find structure in relationships between variables (Porkess, 2005:94). For the purpose of this study, a factor analysis was used to determine the variables related to dining preferences at restaurant and shop facilities. This information will assist in the construction of a concessionaire model for food and beverage operations in SANParks.

#### **1.5.3.2 ANOVA and t-test**

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a widely used technique for comparing the means of several populations, given samples of observations from these populations. It is based on an analysis of the total variation displayed by the data, splitting this into variation between the samples and variation within the samples and then comparing these components (Porkess, 2005:6). ANOVA was used to compare the food preference factors (dependent variables) identified in the factor analysis with the demographics of respondents, such as age, home language, province of residence, marital status, and restaurant use by respondents (independent variables). Similarly, t-tests were used to compare these factors with gender and respondents who held wild cards. A t-test is one of the most commonly used hypothesis tests and is frequently used in calculating confidence intervals (Keller, 2012:521).



### **1.5.3.3 Structural equation model (SEM)**

Data was analysed by means of a structural equation model (SEM). This model was used to determine the correlation between the factors identified for food preferences as well as the correlation between factors and food and beverage operations (namely, restaurant and shop facilities). Structural equation modelling (SEM) combines basic regression techniques with factor analysis modelling of the measurement of variables. It is essentially regression analysis applied to a disattenuated covariance matrix. In the modelling tradition, it forces the researcher to specify a model and then provides statistical estimates of fit that can be compared to alternative models (Chamorro-Premuzic, Von Strumm & Furnham, 2011:62).

## **1.6 DEFINING THE CONCEPTS**

The following concepts will be used in the study, and therefore, clarification is needed.

### **1.6.1 Model**

Typically, a model refers to a perspicuous statement of the definitions, assumptions, and behavioural hypotheses being used (Mukherjee, 2009:59). Johnson and Henderson (2012:17) define a model as a high-level explanation of an application. A model details all concepts in the application, describes how these concepts relate to one another, and explains how these concepts can be used with the application. A model depicts the believed structure of interrelationships among separate constructs or factors, which help to explain a higher-order concept by means of a diagram, figure, flow chart, or other two-dimensional tool (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:60). A model will, in essence, include high-level functionality and purpose, the concepts identified, and the relationships among these concepts (Johnson & Henderson, 2012:19).

### **1.6.2 Ecotourism**

According to Medlik (2003:60), ecotourism commonly denotes ecologically sustainable trips and visits to enjoy and appreciate nature, which promote conservation, have low visitor impact, and include the involvement of local populations. According to Fennell (2008:22), ecotourism is nature-based tourism that involves education and interpretation of the natural

environment and is managed to be ecologically sustainable. In the 1980s, the world became aware of sustainability and global ecological practices (Coria & Calfucura, 2011:48), from which a definition of ecotourism emerged. Hill and Gale (2009:5) highlight three main criteria of ecotourism, namely, attractions are predominantly nature-based, attractions are focused on education and learning, and management of the attractions follows principles and practices associated with ecological, socio-cultural, and economic sustainability.

### **1.6.3 Tourism**

According to the World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 2004:1), tourism is defined as the activities of persons travelling to, and staying in, places outside their usual environment for no more than a consecutive year, for leisure, business, and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity that will be paid for from the place visited. Smith (2010:2) suggests that definitions of tourism are defined in terms of supply-side definitions that emphasise businesses providing tourism services, demand-side definitions that focus on tourism consumers, and, lastly, tourism as a system that combines the two aspects.

### **1.6.4 Concessionaire**

A concession is a contractual arrangement between two parties in which the owner grants the concessionaire the right to use land or premises to conduct a business (Medlik, 2003:40). A concessionaire, therefore, would be the private sector operator who utilises the assets of the public sector to conduct business. According to Ismail (2011:13), the concessionaire assumes risk and bears the costs of the project. Dewar (2011:350) states that the concessionaire is responsible for operating the service within the framework settled by the public authority granting the concession, and the service is typically paid for out of revenues received from the service users. The main characteristic of a concession is that the concessionaire bears the risk of operating the service and essentially recovers costs from the revenue generated by service users.

### **1.6.5 Food and beverages**

The simple definition of food and beverage operation is the provision of food and drinks, ready for consumption away from home (Beaver, 2005:162). This can be done through a

hotel, restaurant, or shop facility. Gastronomy is defined as the art or science of food (Gillespie & Cousins, 2012:2). Hall and Mitchell (2007:137) refer to gastronomy as the instinctive analysis of what we eat. In essence, gastronomy refers to the consumption of food, while food and beverage operations refer to the provision of food and drink.

#### **1.6.6 Protected area**

According to Amend, Ruth, and Amend (2008:14), the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) defines a protected area as an area of land and/or sea especially dedicated to the protection and maintenance of biological diversity and of natural and associated cultural resources, managed through legal or other effective means. Medlik (2003:134) defines protected areas as areas designated by national, regional, or international authorities because of their archaeological, cultural, or environmental significance. Emerton *et al.* (2006:5) state that protected areas form the core of conservation efforts around the world.

#### **1.6.7 South African National Parks (SANParks)**

SANParks was established as a parastatal through an Act of Parliament in 1926, now referred to as the National Parks Act (Act No. 57, 1976), mandating it to declare and maintain a system of national parks throughout South Africa (Fearnhead, 2007:301). The three pillars are conservation, responsible tourism, and constituency building towards a people-centred conservation and tourism mandate (SANParks, 2012b:10). Conservation is the management of resources: wildlife, livestock, vegetation, soil, and human beings (including culture). It is all-inclusive, and it is for the prosperity of current and future generations. Conservation supports the diversification of livelihoods through employment and income generation linked to tourism (Naibunga Conservancy Trust, 2011:2).

### **1.7 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION**

The study comprises five chapters, namely:

- Chapter 1 gives a detailed introduction to the problem statement, objectives, and methodology used. Restaurants in SANParks are underperforming, and as a result, tourists are unsatisfied. Due to funding cuts from government, SANParks has had to find alternative revenue streams in order to remain sustainable. As a result, SANParks

has introduced concessionaires to operate certain lodging facilities, restaurants, and shops. A possible franchised brand food and beverage concessionaire model is the solution. More emphasis is being placed on travel dining as part of the tourist experience at a destination, and as a result, better services are required by destinations in terms of food and beverage operations.

- Chapter 2 provides a literature review of protected areas, good governance, and PPPs in SANParks. A discussion of the different governance structures of protected areas is given as well as insight into the different PPP arrangements. A detailed discussion of the SANParks commercialisation strategy and problems arising from research is presented.
- Chapter 3 provides a literature review of the food consumer behaviour patterns of tourists. Variables related to tourist food consumption are discussed, and the importance of these variables is emphasised. Different food consumption models currently occurring in research are identified.
- Chapter 4 provides data presentation. Demographics are displayed, and a factor analysis is presented in terms of the descriptive statistics. ANOVA and t-test analyses compare means and total variation of data displayed. A structural equation model is presented and analysed.
- Chapter 5 presents the conclusions and recommendations. A detailed discussion indicates the outcomes of objectives, data analyses, and literature. Recommendations are made with reference to areas of improvement for further research. A framework is presented as a possible model for concessionaire food and beverage management for SANParks.

## Chapter

# 2

## ***PROTECTED AREA GOVERNANCE AND PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS***

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Protected areas (PAs) first came into existence in the 19<sup>th</sup> century and were funded by governments and maintained as assets for their nations and populations (Font *et al.*, 2004:6). Park management requires the distinction of relevant circumstances, goals, and long-term sustainability of each park within the system before deciding on the appropriate model of management (Inglis, Whitelaw, & Pearlman, 2005:12). However, over the past decade, many developing countries have cut their budgets to protected areas, and as a result, the need for alternative funding sources has become imperative. Global conventions and programmes are no longer enough to ensure the continued existence of, and sufficient funding for, protected areas (Vorheis, 1998:6). Vorheis (1998:6) further states that traditional funding for protected areas throughout the world has come under threat, particularly those in developing countries, which are home to much of the world's biodiversity. Alternative sources are, therefore, needed to sustain the long-term viability of protected areas (Child, 2009; Eagles, 2007; Emerton *et al.*, 2006; Mabunda, 2004; Mabunda & Wilson, 2009; Saporiti, 2006; Varghese, 2008; Wyman *et al.*, 2011).

In the 1980s, every state in Southern Africa cut conservation budgets, which meant that funding had to be taken into consideration when planning for the future of parks (Mabunda & Wilson, 2009:116). Global spending on protected areas amounts to around US\$6.5 billion a year, while required amounts to support conservation are estimated at between US\$12 billion and US\$45 billion (Saporiti, 2006:1). It is for this reason that discussions on protected area (PA) finance have formed the key agenda item during global deliberations on biodiversity conservation for the past few years. During both the 5<sup>th</sup> IUCN World Parks Congress (Durban: September, 2003) and the 7<sup>th</sup> Meeting of the Conference of the Parties (COP) to the Convention on Biological Diversity (Kuala Lumpur: February, 2004), it was observed that insufficient investment

was being made in conservation and that innovative approaches to generate additional funding were necessary (Emerton *et al.*, 2006:1).

Due to lack of funds, governance of protected areas is, thus, at threat of becoming ineffectual, as governance structures are essential for the effective management of protected areas. Protected area governance concerns the structures, processes, and traditions that determine how power and responsibilities are implemented, how decisions are made, and what say stakeholders have in management (Lockwood, 2010:754). Many national parks lack the funds for staff salaries, patrol vehicles, or wildlife conservation. Insufficiently protected, these parks are vulnerable to poaching, deforestation, and agricultural use by local communities (Saporiti, 2006:1). Responsible commercialisation through public-private partnerships (PPPs) can provide the solution (Eagles, 2009; Mabunda, 2004; Saporiti, 2006; Wilson, Nielsen, & Buultjens, 2008; Wyman *et al.*, 2011).

According to Eagles (2007:36), many parks are following the trend of gradually shifting from government structures with centralised financial control to parastatal forms with financially flexible management. This could mean contracting some park operations, such as lodging facilities, restaurants, and shops, to private corporations, which allows for financial and managerial effectiveness (Eagles, 2007; Font, Cochrane & Tapper, 2004). The purpose of this chapter is to examine the governance principles of protected areas, identify public-private partnership structures available to protected areas, and discuss the commercialisation strategy of SANParks.

## **2.2 CONTEXTUALISING PROTECTED AREAS**

It is important to understand the definition of protected areas in terms of this study. The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) is the world's oldest and largest global environmental organisation. The mission of IUCN is to conserve biodiversity and, in doing so, demonstrate how biodiversity is fundamental in addressing some of the world's greatest challenges such as climate change, sustainable development, and food security (IUCN, 2012). According to Graham, Amos & Plumptre (2003:28), IUCN proposes six management categories, defined by the primary management objective as follows:

- Protected area managed mainly for (1) science or (2) wilderness protection. Areas possessing some outstanding or representative ecosystem and geological or physiological features and/or species, available primarily for scientific research and/or environmental monitoring.
- Protected area managed mainly for ecosystem conservation and recreation. Natural areas designated to (1) protect the ecological integrity for future generations, (2) exclude exploitation or occupation unfavourable to the purposes of the area, and (3) provide a foundation for spiritual, scientific, educational, recreational, and visitor opportunities, all of which must be environmentally and culturally compatible (for example, a national park).
- Protected area managed mainly for conservation of specific features. Areas containing one or more natural or cultural features that is/are of outstanding or unique value due to its/their rarity (for example, a natural monument).
- Protected area managed mainly for conservation through management intervention. Areas subject to active intervention for management purposes so as to ensure the maintenance of habitats and/or to meet the requirements for specific species (for example, a habitat/species management area).
- Protected area managed mainly for landscape/seascape conservation and recreation. Areas with coastal land, where interactions of people and nature have, over time, produced an area of distinct character with specific aesthetic, cultural, and/or ecological value. Safeguarding the integrity of this traditional interaction is vital to protection, maintenance, and evolution of the area (for example, a protected landscape/seascape).
- Protected area managed mainly for sustainable use of natural ecosystems. Areas containing predominantly unmodified natural systems, managed to guarantee protection over the long-term and maintenance of biological diversity, while simultaneously providing sustainable flow of natural products and services to meet the needs of the community (for example, managed resource protected areas).

National parks are, therefore, a form of protected area and will be treated as interchangeable throughout the literature review.

## 2.3 GOVERNANCE PRINCIPLES OF PROTECTED AREAS

Over the last few decades, the previously dominant state-based “top-down” model has been supplemented or replaced by methods of collaborative management, partnership agreements, delegated authority, and community management (Lockwood, 2010:754). Governance is about how governments and other societal organisations interact, how they associate with citizens, and how decisions are taken (Graham *et al.*, 2003:2). According to Borrini-Feyerabend (2003:92), governance is about power, accountability, and relationships; it is about who has influence, who decides, and how decision-makers are held accountable. Governance over natural resources is important because it affects the achievement of management objectives and the sharing of costs and benefits and helps to support the management of natural resources (Oviedo, 2009:5). Good governance principles serve to normalise practice by specifying what is desirable and providing measures to identify and provide solutions to sub-standard practices (Lockwood, 2010:756). Throughout the literature, key principles of sound governance for protected areas are discussed (Borrini-Feyerabend, 2003; Eagles, 2009; Graham *et al.*, 2003; Lockwood, 2010; Oviedo, 2009). Table 2.1 indicates the key principles of sound governance for protected areas, based on the United Nations list of the characteristics of good governance and designating PA governance responsibilities and outcomes. Table 2.1 is adapted from Borrini-Feyerabend (2003:100), Lockwood (2010:763), and Oviedo (2009:8). Good governance is based on the following five principles: legitimacy and voice, direction, performance, accountability, and fairness.

**Table 2.1: Five principles of good governance for protected areas**

| The five principles  | United Nations principles on which they are based                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       | PA outcome                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                               |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Legitimacy and voice | <p><b>Participation:</b> everyone should have a say in decision-making, directly or through intermediary institutions. Participation is built on freedom of speech.</p> <p><b>Consensus orientation:</b> good governance facilitates differing interests to reach a broad consensus</p> | <p>Promoting free expression without discrimination based on gender, ethnicity, social class, etc.</p> <p>Promoting discussion and reaching common goals in terms of management objectives, strategy, activities, and the means with which to achieve them.</p> <p>Encouraging a beneficial, reliant</p> |



|                |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                    |
|----------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                | for the best interest of the group, which, if possible, includes policies and procedures.                                                                                                                                                                                                       | relationship among stakeholders.<br>Ensuring that regulations are adhered to for the sake of all involved.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                         |
| Direction      | <b>Strategic vision:</b> both leaders and the public have a long-term view of good governance and development.<br><b>Embracing complexities:</b> understanding the complexities related to history, culture, and social matters.                                                                | Listening and understanding people's fears and addressing them with appropriate strategies.<br>Ensuring that leadership is effective by promoting inventive ideas and processes.<br>Ensuring that a model exists for correct behaviour.<br>Following through with undertakings.                                                                                                    |
| Performance    | <b>Responsiveness:</b> delivering on mandates.<br><b>Cost-effectiveness:</b> achieving objectives is within financial capability.<br><b>Capacity:</b> ability of agency to undertake required functions.                                                                                        | Providing capable human capital who have adequate resources with which to deliver mandates.<br>Ensuring that the management structure is able to respond to challenges.                                                                                                                                                                                                            |
| Accountability | <b>Accountability:</b> decision-makers are liable to stakeholders and the public.<br><b>Clarity:</b> ensuring that all stakeholders are aware of their roles and responsibilities.<br><b>Transparency:</b> processes, information, and institutions are visible to stakeholders and the public. | Ensuring that stakeholders are fully aware of all aspects concerning decisions.<br>Providing avenues to request accountability that is linked to definitive outcomes.                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
| Fairness       | <b>Equity:</b> all people have access to necessary opportunities in order to improve their lives.                                                                                                                                                                                               | Conservation is conducted without harm to any person.<br>Allowing equal opportunity in terms of funding, laws, policies, etc. from the benefits of conservation.<br>Ensuring that public tenders are granted on the basis of capability.<br>Ensuring consistency in terms of rules and regulations and providing effective consultative processes in terms of conflict management. |

**Source:** Adapted from Borrini-Feyerabend (2003:100), Lockwood (2010:763), and Oviedo (2009:8).

Having protected areas means that it is necessary to ensure that there is good governance to manage them in an effective manner so as to produce the best possible outcomes. Only through good governance and good management can protected areas be conserved for future generations (Eagles, 2009:232).

### 2.3.1 Governance models for protected areas

Protected area management models range from the exercise of government authority through to a wide variety of partnership, co-management, and informal arrangements involving multiple agencies, interest groups, and individuals (Borrini-Feyerabend, Johnson & Pansky, 2006:117). In most models, some form of partnership is involved. Table 2.2 identifies three elements of conservation management in parks and protected areas (Eagles, 2009:234).

**Table 2.2: Elements of conservation management in parks and protected areas**

| Ownership              | Income            | Management body        |
|------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|
| Government agency      | Government grants | Government agency      |
| Non-profit corporation | Fees and charges  | Parastatal             |
| For-profit corporation | Donations         | Non-profit corporation |
| Community              |                   | For-profit             |
|                        |                   | Corporation            |
|                        |                   | Community              |

**Source: Adapted from Eagles (2009: 234)**

A review of the literature identified several commonly used management models for visitor and tourism management in parks and protected areas. The following models were identified in the literature:

- Governmental arrangements (Glover & Burton, 1998:143), where park management is considered to be a governmental function (Borrini-Feyerabend, 2003; Graham *et al.*, 2003; Inglis *et al.*, 2005; Lockwood, Worboys & Kothari, 2006; More, 2005; Saporiti, 2006). Government operates all services, and decision-making occurs with sustainable public involvement, subject to legislative oversight, and transparency is a legal requirement (More, 2005:15). Graham *et al.* (2003:26) and Borrini-Feyerabend (2003:94) suggest that government management can occur as either a national, provincial, state, or municipal government agency or as delegated management from government to some other body (such as a parastatal or NGO).

Criticisms of this model have been that it requires non-users of park services to pay through taxes and that bureaucrats lack incentives to control costs (More, 2005:15). Advantages include having the park available for use by all members of the public at little or no cost and the ability to undertake goals such as preservation of biodiversity or ecosystem integration (More, 2005:15).

- A public utility model (More, 2005:15), where the primary goal is to make the park self-sustaining while operating within government (Inglis *et al.*, 2005:15).
- Cross-sector alliances (Glover & Burton, 1998:143) through contractual arrangements between public and profit-making or not-for-profit organisations (Borrini-Feyerabend, 2003; Inglis *et al.*, 2005; More, 2005). This model includes one or more government agencies, local communities, private landowners, and other stakeholders. This model adds flexibility, as it reduces the need for public employees and reduces the budgetary requirements for salaries and wages (More, 2005:16). This model can occur as collaborative management (Lockwood *et al.*, 2006:118) or joint management or cooperation (Laing, Wegner, Moore, Weiler, Pfueller, Lee, Macbeth, Croy & Lockwood, 2008:7), which is a formal arrangement such as a lease agreement.
- Regulated monopolies, where a non-public organisation is granted a monopoly to directly provide public services (Glover & Burton, 1998:143). An example of this type of model is a franchise. Franchising, as an option for protected areas, will be discussed further later in the thesis. According to Saporiti (2006:1), this model falls into two broad categories, namely, traditional tourism partnerships and biodiversity management partnerships. Tourism partnerships occur when the private partner uses government's natural assets to provide services and generate income, such as operating shops or restaurants. Biodiversity partnerships involve the private partner performing a public function on behalf of government, such as conservation (Saporiti, 2006:2), similar to the ecological integrity model and ecosystem-based model proposed by Inglis *et al.* (2005:13).
- Divestiture (Glover & Burton, 1998:143), private, non-profit ownership, or private, for-profit ownership (More, 2005:16), and private management (Graham *et al.*, 2003:117), where public services are sold or leased to profit-making or non-profit making agencies. In the case of profit making, the ownership and operation are

carried out by a private organisation, whereas not-for-profit (non-profit) agencies are operated by a non-governmental organisation.

- Community conserved areas (Borrini-Feyerabend, 2003:95), traditional community management (Graham *et al.*, 2003:118), and the shared community or integrated model (Inglis *et al.*, 2005:14) involve all stakeholders in all aspects of planning, management, and funding. This can occur with indigenous people or traditional communities (Borrini-Feyerabend, 2003:95; Graham *et al.*, 2003:118).
- The national park model (Eagles, 2009:237), which is one of the most commonly used management models, with government ownership of resources and the majority of funding coming from societal taxes and a government agency as the manager. This model is often restrained by bureaucratic complexities, but is seen to provide conservation effectiveness (Eagles, 2009:237).

The appropriateness of the model depends on the technical and managerial capacity of the public park agency (Saporiti, 2006:2). Eagles (2009:242) conducted a comparison of management models to determine which models were used with regularity. The results indicated that public, non-profit combination models ranked the strongest, which suggests that the combination of government ownership and non-profit management comes close to the ideals of good governance. National park, parastatal, and public for-profit models were medium-ranked models, which were the most frequently used models, but might not show the strongest governance. The lowest-ranked model was the government model, indicating a tendency towards poor governance (Eagles, 2009:244). Good governance of a protected area is important for the conservation and biodiversity of that protected area, and the principles serve to normalise practice (Lockwood, 2010:756).

The problem with the public, non-profit combination model is that, as previously discussed, government funding for protected areas is diminishing, thereby creating the need for some form of commercial strategy. Unless the PA is privately owned or for-profit-making, many PAs lack the skills, incentives, and access to capital needed to make the most of tourism opportunities. South African National Parks (SANParks) is a successful autonomous parastatal entity and a leader in the development of ecotourism, with high research standards (Saporiti, 2006:2). SANParks has devised a

commercialisation strategy that enables it to focus on its core function of biodiversity, while the operation of tourism services is concessional. Concessionaires form part of public-private partnerships, which assist in the operation of certain lodging facilities, restaurants, and shops within SANParks.

## **2.4 PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS (PPPs)**

There is no one, widely accepted definition of PPPs. Broadly, the term “PPP” refers to all arrangements between the public and private sectors, where part of the services that fall under the responsibility of the public sector is provided by the private sector (Wilson *et al.*, 2008; World Bank PPPIRC, 2011; Yescombe, 2007; Yong, 2010). In such a situation, the degree of risk is shared between both the public and private sectors. PPPs continue to spread around the world and into new sectors, which suggests that they are viewed as a successful way in which to raise capital and provide better public services (Yong, 2010:3).

Much of the literature discussing PPPs in protected areas focuses on the development of new tourism infrastructure within parks or on tourism operators getting permits to access parks (Wilson *et al.*, 2008:2). Overall, the rationale for PPPs has evolved over the years. Initially, PPPs were viewed as a way to avoid government budget constraints, but they are increasingly being seen as a value-for-money option (Yong, 2010:21). For the purpose of this study, PPPs will be discussed with reference to PAs and national parks (NPs).

### **2.4.1 Types of public-private partnerships**

PPPs are implemented using different models. There are varying degrees of private sector participation, composition, resource allocation, and risk-reward structure (Robinson, Carrillo, Anumba & Patel, 2010:6). It has been recognised that PPPs can assist in achieving public policy goals, all the while operating within a framework that delivers specific performance improvements and shares risks and costs with the public sector (Yong, 2010:3). There are a number of different terms used with reference to PPPs:

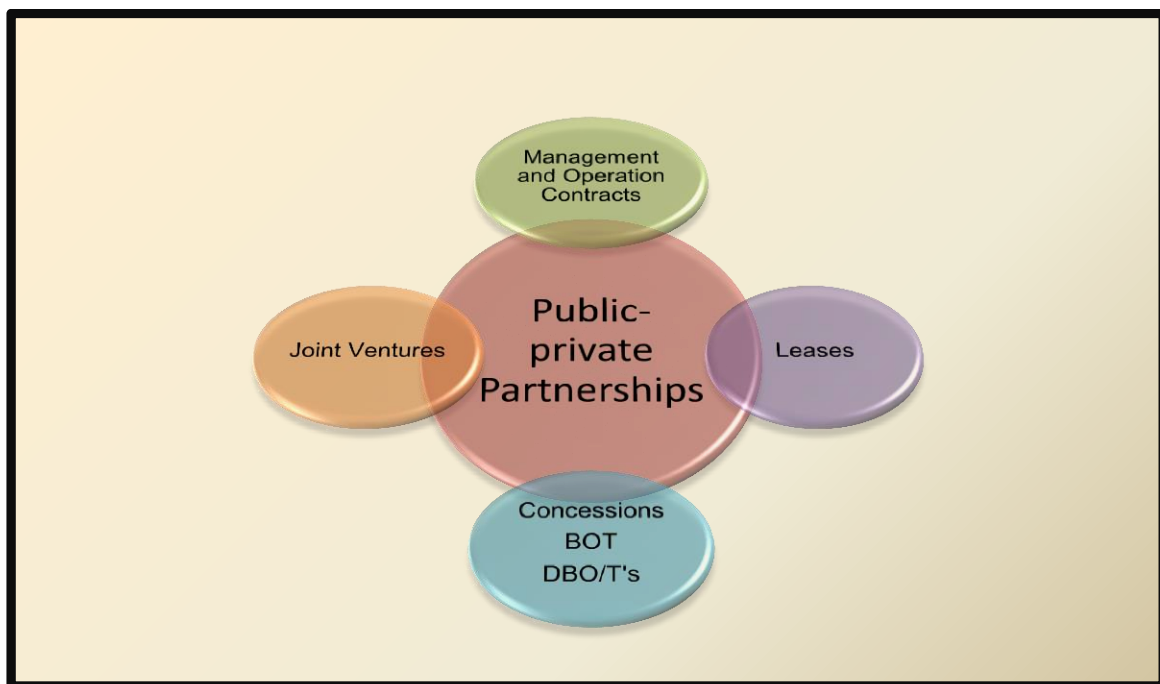
- Private participation in infrastructure (PPI)
- Private sector participation (PSP)

- P3, used in the United States of America
- Privately funded project (PFP), used in Australia
- Private finance initiative (PFI), used in Britain, Japan, and Malaysia

Despite the numerous names for different PPP structures, the common themes remain the same, namely, that:

- PPPs are long-term commercial partnerships between the public and private sectors;
- the benefits of PPPs are broader than accessing private capital; and
- PPPs can deliver significant benefits in terms of increased quality and quantity of infrastructure services.

Figure 2.1 represents the different forms of PPPs; each of these will be discussed below.



**Figure 2.1: Types of public-private partnerships**

**Source: Adapted from World Bank PPPIRC (2011)**

#### **2.4.1.1 Management and “operation and maintenance” contracts**

According to this type of PPP, the private sector is contracted to manage a range of activities for a short period of time (usually two to five years), and the level of risk for the private sector is low (Robinson *et al.*, 2010; World Bank, 2011; Yong, 2010). “Operate and maintain” (O&M) structures require the private sector to operate and maintain assets according to a specified condition, in return for a management or maintenance fee (Robinson *et al.*, 2010:8). The main features of this type of contract are:

- the contractor manages a range of activities;
- a short-term contract;
- it is favoured in terms of introducing the private sector into managing infrastructure;
- limited potential for improving efficiency and performance;
- the operator is paid a fixed fee for staff and expenses;
- it may include obligations from the private sector to maintain assets; and
- no transfer of employees to the contractor (World Bank, 2010).

#### **2.4.1.2 Leases**

The private sector tends to pay a fixed fee to the public sector, irrespective of the tariff collection, so the operator takes the risk of recovering operating costs. The public sector remains responsible for financing and managing assets (Geddes, 2010; World Bank, 2010; Yong, 2010). Geddes (2010:30) states that although the typical arrangement requires an upfront fee from the private sector, other approaches such as revenue sharing or annual lease fees can be used. Another term used for this type of contract is “rehabilitate, operate, and transfer” (ROT), in which the asset belongs to the public sector, but is rehabilitated (if necessary), maintained, and operated by the private sector (Robinson *et al.*, 2010:8). This is done on a lease basis, and the asset reverts to the public sector on termination of the lease. The main features of this type of contract are:

- medium length – between eight and 15 years;
- collection risk is passed to the operator;
- the cost of maintenance and some replacement is passed to the private sector; and
- the private sector is paid a fixed lease fee or receives receipts from customers.

#### **2.4.1.3 Joint ventures**

These can include the use of existing structures that are divested to the private sector or a new project that will be established with a joint share ownership structure (Robinson *et al.*, 2010; World Bank, 2010; Yescombe, 2007). The level of ownership will differ, depending on the requirements of the public sector. Contracts can be either partnership arrangements or a contractual consortium arrangement (World Bank, 2010).

#### **2.4.1.4 Concessions, BOTs, and DBOs/DBOTs**

A concession gives the private sector operator the right to use the assets of the public sector (Cessford & Thompson, 2002; Mabunda, 2004; World Bank, 2010; Yong, 2010). Concession contracts will require different degrees of involvement as required by the public sector. The common theme with all concessions is that the asset remains in the ownership of the public sector. Concessions, therefore, include the following types of contractual arrangements (Geddes, 2010; Robinson *et al.*, 2010; World Bank, 2010; Yong, 2010):

- BOT (build-operate-transfer), which requires the private sector to build and operate the asset, which is then transferred back to the public sector on dissolution of the contract.
- DBO (design-build-operate), which requires the private sector to design, build, and operate the asset until the contract expires. In some instances, the asset belongs to the private sector and will be purchased by the private sector at the end of the contract term. In the case of DBOT (design-build-operate-transfer), the asset is transferred back to the public sector at the end of the contract term.

Depending on the contract between the public and private sector, the building of the asset could be paid for by the public sector. In most instances, the asset reverts to the public sector at the end of the contract period. The role of the public sector is to construct a framework under which the concessionaire operates (Yescombe, 2007:5). A further development of the concession is the franchise, which is not considered a PPP as previously defined, as it does not involve the provision or upgrade of the infrastructure, but only its operation (Yescombe, 2007:5). A franchise is seen as a “service concession”, while a concession usually requires the development or



maintenance of infrastructure. However, the contractual and financing basis is similar and will be discussed at a later stage. The main features of this type of contract are:

- private sector responsibility for operation, maintenance, financing, and managing;
- the private sector takes the risk;
- the concession may be granted in relation to existing assets, rehabilitative assets, or for an entirely new asset;
- asset ownership reverts to the public sector;
- a contract type for 25 to 30 years;
- the general public is the source of revenue for the concession; and
- concessions are focused on outputs.

It is important to note that many protected areas make use of concessions, as opposed to other forms of PPPs, for their commercialisation strategies. Protected areas do not have the funding to create the necessary infrastructure for tourism use, and with this type of contract, the development can fall to the private sector. The concern raised by tourists within protected areas is the lack of service orientation of many park-run establishments, hence the need for private sector skills, and therefore concessions.

## **2.4.2 Benefits and potential risks of PPPs**

The financial crisis of 2008 brought renewed interest in PPPs in both developed and developing countries (World Bank, 2010), and governments are now turning to the private sector as an alternative additional source of funding to meet the funding gap (Thia & Ford, 2009; Yescombe, 2007). The principal reason for using PPPs is that, where suitable, they can deliver better value for money than the alternatives (PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC), 2005:3). The following discussion identifies both the benefits and potential risks associated with PPPs.

### **2.4.2.1 Benefits of PPPs**

The PPP approach is increasingly being adopted to deliver better infrastructure development. The following benefits were identified during a review of the literature (European PPP Expertise Centre, 2011; PwC, 2005; Thia & Ford, 2009; World Bank, 2010; Yescombe, 2007; Yong, 2010):

- PPPs make projects affordable (PwC, 2005:3), and PPPs allow the government to transfer certain types of costs and risks to the private sector (Yong, 2010:11). This can help achieve long-term value for money (World Bank, 2010; Yong, 2010).
- Accelerated infrastructure development, despite fiscal constraints (Yong, 2010:3), which creates diversification in the economy by making the country more competitive in terms of facilitating infrastructure (EPEC, 2011; World Bank, 2010). Many governments around the world are constrained in terms of how much they can borrow to invest in infrastructure projects, and PPPs offer a way of bringing forward a programme of infrastructure investments (Yong, 2010:3).
- PPPs deliver budget certainty (PwC, 2005:3) and can be incentivised to deliver projects on time and within budgets (EPEC, 2011; World Bank, 2010), imposing budgetary certainty by setting present and future costs of infrastructure projects over time (Yescombe, 2007:15).
- Improved service quality and innovation (Yong, 2010:3), as PPPs maximise the use of private sector skills (PWC, 2005:4). PPPs can be explored as a way of introducing private sector technology and innovation in providing better public services through improved operational efficiency (World Bank, 2010). With PPPs, quality of service has to be maintained throughout the life of the PPP (PWC, 2005; Yong, 2010), and the PPP can be structured in such a way as to ensure the transfer of skills (World Bank, 2010).
- PPPs allow the injection of private sector capital, and the public sector only pays when services are delivered (PWC, 2005:4).
- Wider social impacts in terms of public and macroeconomic benefits (EPEC, 2011:16). Employment of locals and the spillover effect of development taking place are a few of these impacts. The impact on employment is less certain when the PPP is based on existing infrastructure assets (Yong, 2010:15).

PPPs provide the solution to bridging the gap between the cost of infrastructure and service needed and the resources and staff available to ensure that both are delivered as efficiently and effectively as possible. There are, however, a number of potential risks associated with public-private partnerships that need to be considered.

#### **2.4.2.2 Potential risks of PPPs**

Listed below is a discussion of the potential risks involved with PPPs:

- PPP procurement can be lengthy and costly (PWC, 2005:4; Yong, 2010:16), and development, bidding, and ongoing costs are likely to be greater than for traditional government procurement processes (World Bank, 2010).
- There is a cost attached to debt, and while the private sector can more easily get finance, it will only be available where the operating cash flows of the private company are expected to provide a return on investment (Grimsey & Lewis, 2002; Thia & Ford, 2009; World Bank, 2010; Yescombe, 2007). The private sector has a higher cost of finance, and it is not always possible to transfer the life cycle cost risk (PWC, 2005:4).
- Market risks due to the uncertainty about market demand for the infrastructure service (Yong, 2010:16). Market risks are closely linked to the users' willingness and ability to pay.
- There is no unlimited risk bearing (PWC, 2005; World Bank, 2010). PPPs do not achieve absolute risk transfer, and private firms will be cautious about accepting major risks beyond their control.
- Some projects may be more politically or socially challenging to introduce and implement than others (Grimsey & Lewis, 2002; World Bank, 2010; Yong, 2010). Political risks can include risks that arise from wars and civil disturbances, as well as currency transfer restrictions, expropriation, and breach of contract, among others (Yong, 2010:16).
- Public sector responsibility continues (World Bank, 2010), although PPPs imply a loss of management by the public sector (PWC, 2005:4). The risk arises as a result of government still being held accountable for quality of services. Government will still need to retain sufficient expertise in order to understand the PPP arrangement and to carry out its own obligations in terms of the PPP contract.
- PPPs are long-term, relatively inflexible, and complex structures (Grimsey & Lewis, 2002; PWC, 2005; World Bank, 2010; Yong, 2010). It is, therefore, difficult to identify all possible contingencies during project development and all issues or events that may not have been anticipated.
- The expertise required by the private sector might not be sufficient to warrant a PPP approach (PWC, 2005:4); however, it will be more likely to gain expertise after a

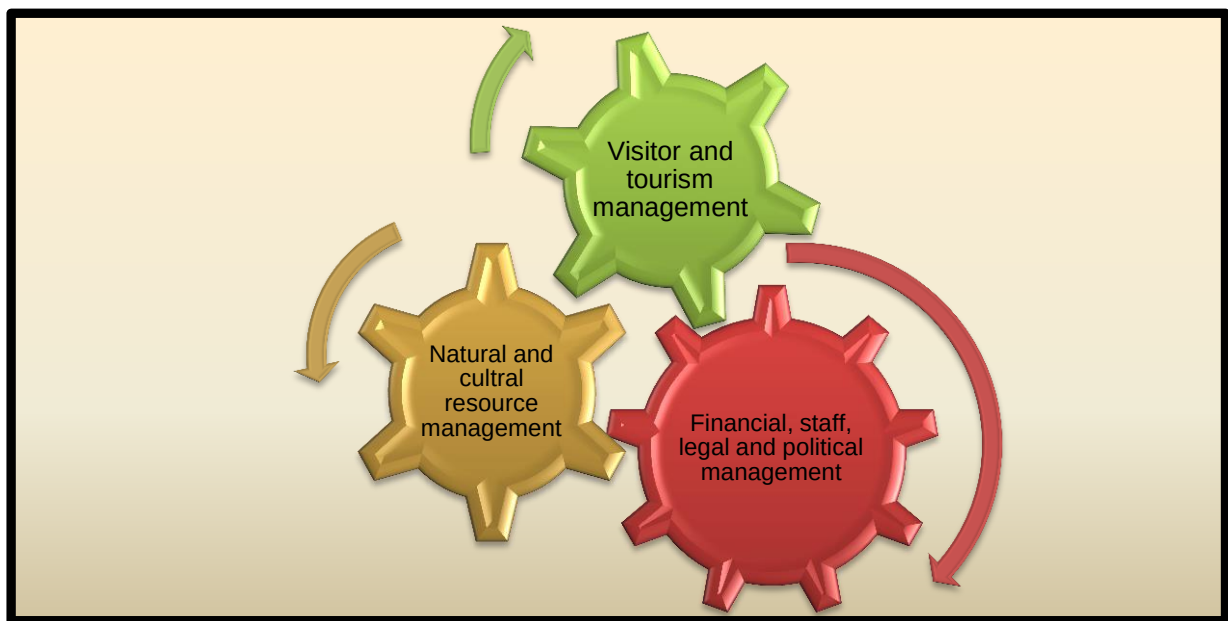
short time and have an advantage relating to the project (World Bank, 2010). Clear and detailed reporting is required in order to reduce the imbalance between the private and public sector.

- Project default (Grimsey & Lewis, 2002:111) or risks related to uncertainty of project construction, completion, and operation (Yong, 2010:16). The question arises whether the private sector has sufficient capabilities and skill required for the PPP approach (PWC, 2005:4).
- Development and planning risks, which require both the private and public sector to invest substantial amounts of money, but bear the risk of the project being infeasible (Yong, 2010:16). Given the long-term nature of the projects, it is difficult to identify all possible contingencies, and one may find some projects failing or being terminated (World Bank, 2010).
- The private sector will do what is required and no more (World Bank, 2010), which means that the public sector will have to provide incentives or performance requirements.
- Technical risks, construction risks, and environmental risks all pose a threat to the completion of the PPP (Grimsey & Lewis, 2002:111).

The use of PPPs raises a number of complex issues and choices, the solutions to which are often project- or country-specific (PWC, 2005:4). However, a clear and legal framework is crucial to achieving a sustainable solution (World Bank, 2010) that will ensure the delivery of better value for money and efficient service (Grimsey & Lewis, 2002:115).

### **2.4.3 Reasoning the need for PPPs in protected areas**

All protected areas should make provision for managing tourism activity. Their success relies on the integration of tourism with the environmental and cultural resources of the PA (Eagles, McCool & Haynes, 2002a:1). Efficacious PA management is contingent on effective financial, staff, legal, and political management (Eagles, 2002:1). Figure 2.2 represents the interaction of the three aspects of park management (adapted from Eagles, 2002:1).



**Figure 2.2: Interaction of three aspects of park management**

**Source: Adapted from Eagles (2002:1)**

Protected area tourism involves the provision of a wide variety of services to tourists, from food sales to overnight accommodation (Eagles, Baycetch, Chen, Dong, Halpenny, Kwan, Lenuzzi, Wang, Xiao & Zhang, 2009:7), which must all be carefully designed and operated (Eagles *et al.*, 2002a:61) within a conservation environment. The problem exists with the funding crisis that is being faced by most protected areas (Font *et al.*, 2004; Saporiti, 2006; Wyman *et al.*, 2011) and the fact that most PAs lack the skills and staff resources necessary to effectively manage tourism (Font *et al.*, 2004:5). It is for this reason that many PAs have elected to introduce some form of commercialisation in order to subsidise funding received from governments as well as acquiring the specialised skills necessary for tourism management. Such commercial arrangements could provide a means of funding outside the traditional government sources, at a time when PAs are being pushed to find self-sufficiency (Wilson *et al.*, 2008:3; Font *et al.*, 2004).

The term “commercialisation” evokes many emotions in different people due to the vast array of management options it can encompass (Mabunda & Wilson, 2009:116). It can mean development of a basic service ethic to complete privatisation in protected areas. According to Saporiti (2006:4), responsible commercialisation offers a way to seize the significant economic value of protected areas. PPPs can play an important part in this

process, but must exhibit the correct mix of financial strength, requisite business experience, and strong empowerment credentials (Mabunda & Wilson, 2009:119). Fortunately, the idea that wildlife could pay its way and create employment had been tested on private and communal land and had begun to spread to parks (Child, 2009:11). This meant that parks could fund themselves and become an engine of growth for the local economy, which would enhance rather than detract from biodiversity objectives (Child, 2009:11).

#### **2.4.3.1 Type of PPP for protected areas**

National governments are increasingly favouring private tourism concessions within PAs, so that the all-encompassing goal of preservation and conservation remains with the public sector (Wyman *et al.*, 2011:915). According to Cessford and Thompson (2002:33), a concession is a mechanism used for environmental protection and gives official permission to conduct private and commercial activity on conservation lands. Over the past decade, a number of government reports, academic papers, and consultancy projects have emphasised the potential benefits of PPPs between national parks and the private tourism sector (Wilson *et al.*, 2008:3). The push by governments for PPPs is justified, on the assumption that they are more cost-effective and staff-effective, provide better services, and spread the risk to the private sector (Edwards & Shaoul, 2002; Wilson *et al.*, 2008). Tourism managers value recreation concessions because:

- they provide a wider range of services and facilities than would be possible;
- impact assessment processes are built into the concession application processes;
- research and monitoring can be built into the concession conditions;
- operating conditions can be set so as to minimise environmental and social impacts; and
- revenues from concessions can supplement agency budgets for conservation (Cessford & Thompson, 2002:33).

As discussed in the previous section, PPPs offer both benefits and potential risks. Benefits of concessions for PAs include revenue, transfer of risk away from the PA managers, additional tourism services, and freeing up of time of park agencies to

manage conservation aspects (Wilson *et al.*, 2008:3). It is clear that tourism generates money, especially for parks.

SANParks finances up to 80% of its annual budget from tourism receipts alone (Saporiti, 2006:3; Wyman *et al.*, 2011:915). Approximately one out of every five protected areas uses some form of concession or licensing system, which results in an increase in popularity due to the privatisation of service delivery (Font *et al.*, 2004:26). According to Cessford and Thompson (2002:35), tourism concessions have increased by over 100% in the last decade and 40% over the last two years. They are expected to increase by more than 100% in the next decade. When well managed, concession operations can significantly complement and offer material assistance to the conservation and recreation objectives of the protected area. However, poorly implemented and managed concessions can lead to dissatisfaction with the protected area.

## **2.5 SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL PARKS (SANPARKS)**

SANParks was established as a parastatal through an Act of Parliament in 1926, now referred to as the National Parks Act (Act No. 57, 1976), mandating it to declare and maintain a system of national parks throughout South Africa. According to the SANParks website (A Brief History, 2012), the focus in the first decade of democracy was to make national parks more accessible to tourists in order to ensure that conservation remained a viable contributor to social and economic development in rural areas. SANParks receives an annual subsidy from government, and all revenues generated in national parks are retained and applied to the execution of its mandate (Fearnhead, 2007:301; Mabunda, 2004:75). SANParks has managed to transform itself, while maintaining its high research and management standards and expanding the land that it protects and has also begun to generate 75% of its operating revenue – a remarkable financial achievement compared to most conservation agencies in the world, including those in developed countries (SANParks Brief History, 2012). As a public entity, the organisation is committed to act in acquirement of transformation of South Africa's society in support of embedding South Africa's democracy. In this

regard, the organisation has adopted a transformation mission to guide its efforts accordingly (SANParks, 2012b:38).

**VISION** – SANParks connecting to society.

**MISSION** – to develop and manage and promote a system of national parks that represents the biodiversity and heritage assets by applying best practice, environmental justice, benefit sharing, and sustainable use.

**TRANSFORMATION MISSION** – to ensure effective transformation both within SANParks and the broader society and economy, through the implementation of broad-based black economic empowerment in support of the Constitution of South Africa.

### 2.5.1 SANParks organisational environment

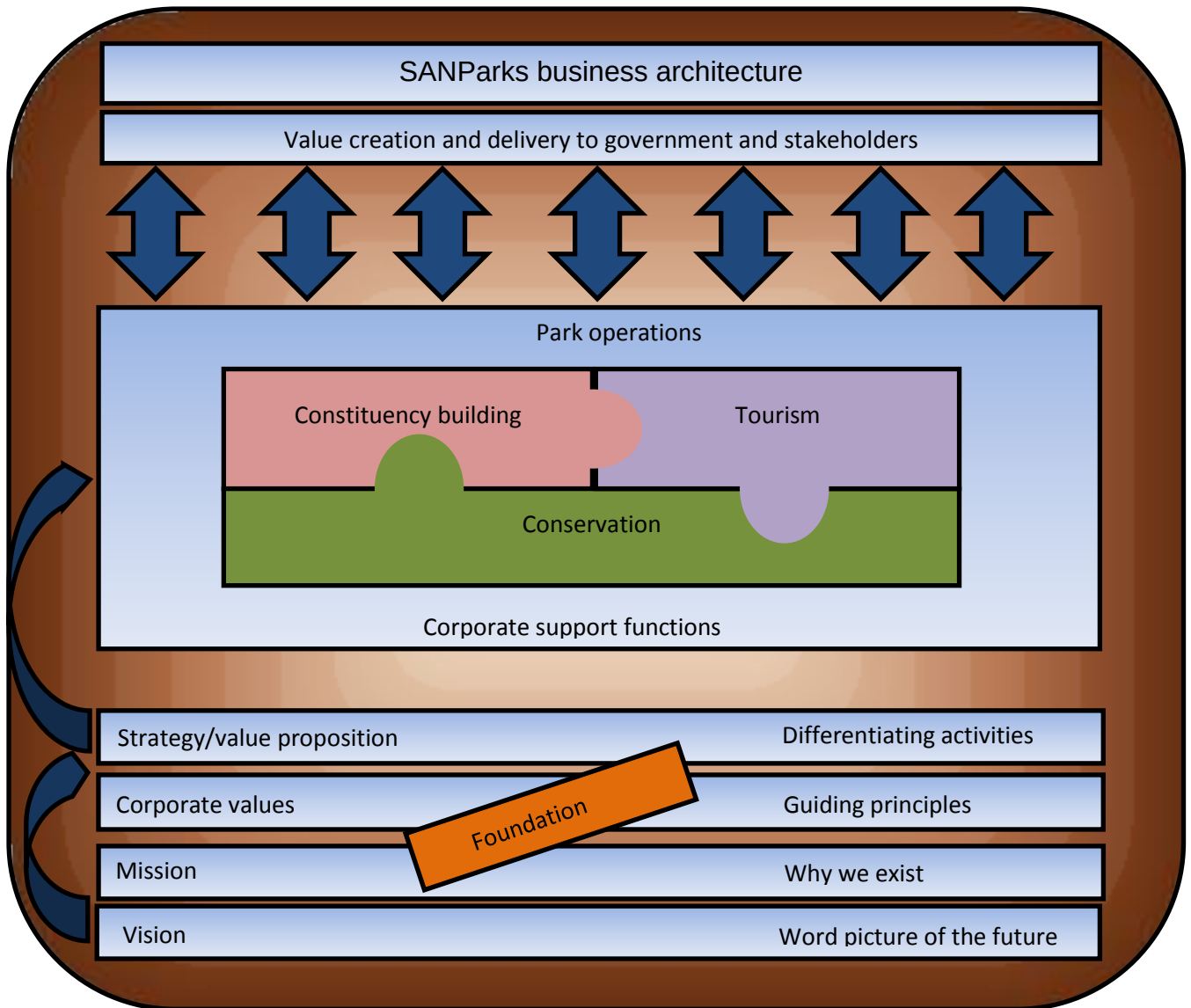
According to SANParks (2012b:10; Annual Report 2010/11, 2011; Annual Report 2011/2012, 2012a), business operations are founded on three important pillars:

- **Conservation** – this is the primary mandate of SANParks, which is achieved through a network of national parks (2012b:10).
- **Responsible tourism** – SANParks plays an important part in the promotion of nature-based tourism or ecotourism, for both international and domestic tourists. The ecotourism pillar provides SANParks with self-generated revenue from business operations. This pillar is vital in supplementing government funding of conservation management. A substantial component of this pillar is the commercialisation strategy that SANParks has adopted to expand tourism products and generate additional revenue that can be utilised for conservation and constituency building. This is achieved through the implementation of public-private partnerships (2012b:10).
- **Constituency building towards a people-centred conservation and tourism mandate** – it is mandatory for SANParks to build communities at international, national, and local levels, in support of conservation of the natural and cultural heritage of South Africa through its corporate social investment. SANParks must ensure that South Africans participate and become involved in biodiversity initiatives, as well as ensuring that its operations have a collaborative existence with



neighbouring and surrounding communities for their educational and socio-economic benefit (2012b:10).

The conservation pillar is the one on which the activities and programmes of the other two sub-core pillars are based (2012b:10). A significant element of the ecotourism pillar is the commercialisation strategy (SANParks, 2011a:85), the main purpose of which is to reduce the cost of delivery and improve service levels by focusing on core business and utilising private capital and skills in addition to the expansion of tourism products and the generation of additional revenue for the funding of conservation (Varghese, 2008:71). Figure 2.3 below illustrates the business architecture of SANParks. The business architecture illustrates the core (conservation) and sub-core (tourism and constituency building) business functions (SANParks, 2012b:11, 2012c:20; Varghese, 2008:72). The organisation has the general support functions of the Chief Financial Officer's office (which includes Finance, Supply Chain Management, Information Technology, Business Process Management, Strategy and Business Planning, and Legal Services), Human Resources, and Corporate Communications (SANParks, 2012b:11, 2012c:20).



**Figure 2.3: SANParks business architecture**

**Source:** SANParks (2012b:11); SANParks (2012c:20); Varghese (2008:72)

The operational component of SANParks is delivered through the current 22 national parks, which are organised under two divisions: the Kruger National Park and the Parks Division (the remaining 21 national parks) (SANParks, 2012b:12, 2012c:21).

### 2.5.2 SANParks commercialisation strategy

In the 1980s, almost all states within Southern Africa were slashing budgets (Mabunda & Wilson, 2009:116), thereby compromising the efficiency of conservation management within national parks. SANParks is also involved in the promotion and management of

nature-based tourism or ecotourism. When the Kruger National Park (KNP) opened for tourists in 1927, the function of tourism management was incorporated into the game ranger's responsibilities (Mabunda, 2004:75). Service standards were often mediocre, with a limited market segmentation and product offering, prices were not determined by the market (Fearnhead, 2007; Mabunda, 2004; Saporiti, 2006), and there was substantial underperformance with regard to what it offered tourists (Mulholland & Eagles, 2002:45). SANParks, therefore, decided not to run the commercial ventures for tourism, but to develop a commercialisation strategy (Saporiti, 2006:3), as they might not have sufficient human or financial resources required to run tourism activities (Font *et al.*, 2004:8). The Strategic Plan for Commercialisation (SPfC), adopted in 2000, was brought about when the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism declared that SANParks had to become less dependent on the state for funding (Varghese, 2008:73; SANParks Annual Report 2010/2011, 2011b:85).

The commercialisation strategy, attained through PPPs, allows staff to concentrate on the core business of conservation, while leveraging private capital and expertise to the expansion of tourism products and revenue generation (Fearnhead, 2007; Mabunda, 2004; Mabunda & Wilson, 2009; SANParks Strategic Plan, 2012; Varghese, 2008). The implementation of the SPfC resulted in 12 lodge concession sites granted to private operators, 21 shops, and 17 restaurants across all national parks (SANParks Annual Report 2010/11, 2011b:85). According to the SANParks Strategic Plan for 2012/2013 (2012a:14), the SPfC has generated more than 43 contractual agreements for 2010/11, is expected to generate just over R65.2 million in annual net income by the end of 2011/12 (approximately 8.6% of the total operating tourism revenue), and has provided over 2 000 sustainable jobs to local communities. Despite drops in tourism figures in South Africa, concession facilities have not declined (SANParks Annual Report 2010/2011, 2011b:8). Table 2.3 is an extract from the notes to the annual financial statements for the year ended 31 March 2011 and 31 March 2012 (SANParks Annual Report 2010/2011, 2011b:113; SANParks Annual Report 2011/2012, 2012a:108).

**Table 2.3: Notes to the annual financial statements for the year ended 31 March 2011 and 31 March 2012**

|                                                                                                                     | <b>31 March 2012<br/>R'000</b> | <b>31 March 2011<br/>R'000</b> | <b>31 March 2010<br/>R'000</b> |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <b>Revenue – tourism, retail, concession, and other retail activities conducted by South African National Parks</b> | <b>147 600</b>                 | <b>121 150</b>                 | <b>102 625</b>                 |
| Shops and restaurant sales                                                                                          | 27 190 (18%)                   | 17 004 (14%)                   | 9 444 (6%)                     |
| Filling station sales                                                                                               | 120 411                        | 104 146                        | 93 181                         |
|                                                                                                                     |                                |                                |                                |
| <b>Tourism</b>                                                                                                      | <b>452 930</b>                 | <b>614 891</b>                 | <b>553 843</b>                 |
| Accommodation                                                                                                       | 381 771                        | 351 836                        | 324 664                        |
| Conservation fees                                                                                                   | 184 696                        | 193 173                        | 168 293                        |
| Wild card income (2012 only)                                                                                        | 25 356                         |                                |                                |
| Entrance fees (2012 only)                                                                                           | 3 992                          |                                |                                |
| Drives                                                                                                              | 30 277                         | 29 207                         | 27 044                         |
| Trails                                                                                                              | 24 550                         | 25 322                         | 21 785                         |
| Other tourism-related activities                                                                                    | 16 332                         | 15 352                         | 12 057                         |
|                                                                                                                     |                                |                                |                                |
| <b>Concession</b>                                                                                                   | <b>66 636</b>                  | <b>67 330</b>                  | <b>61 342</b>                  |
| Facilities rental on retail and restaurant operations                                                               | 25 758                         | 25 294                         | 25 677                         |
| Lodge concession fees                                                                                               | 40 878                         | 42 037                         | 35 665                         |
|                                                                                                                     |                                |                                |                                |
| <b>Other</b>                                                                                                        | <b>16 198</b>                  | <b>11 887</b>                  | <b>9 704</b>                   |
| Rent received                                                                                                       | 10 915                         | 9 148                          | 8 932                          |
| Service rendered                                                                                                    | 5 283                          | 2 739                          | 772                            |
| <b>Total</b>                                                                                                        | <b>897 408</b>                 | <b>815 258</b>                 | <b>727 515</b>                 |

**Source:** Adapted from SANParks Annual Report 2010/2011 (2011b:113); SANParks Annual Report 2011/2012 (2012a:108)

It is important to note that shop and restaurant sales increased from 6% (R6 444) of the total revenue – tourism, retail, concession, and other retail activities – in 2010, to 14% (R17 400) of the total in 2011, to 18% (R27 190) of the total for 2012. Although tourism revenue dropped from R614 891 in 2011 to R452 930 in 2012, there was an increase in shop and restaurant sales, emphasising the importance of these concessions to SANParks. There was also a drop in the total concession fees received by SANParks

from R67 330 in 2011 to R66 636 in 2012. Interestingly, the facilities rental on retail and restaurant operations, which forms part of the total concession fees, increased from R25 294 in 2011 to R25 758 in 2012. Although it can be considered a small increase, it is by no means insignificant, once again illustrating the importance of shop and restaurant concessions to SANParks.

The importance of these concessions (fees received from concessions and sales from restaurants and shops) and PPPs is vital as a service delivery mechanism as well as an engine of growth for the black economic empowerment (BEE) policy objective (SANParks Annual Report 2010/2011, 2011b:20). According to the SANParks Annual Report 2010/2011 (2011b:25), park retail facilities outsourced to private operators continued to perform well and paid R18.9 million in rental for the reporting period. According to SANParks, the number of customer complaints continued to be insignificant (Annual Report 2010/2011, 2011b:25). Mabunda (2004:86), however, states that due to bad service rendered by the restaurant and shop outlets of the parks, budget traveller groups and luxury market groups prefer to stay outside the park for better food and comfort and only enter as day visitors.

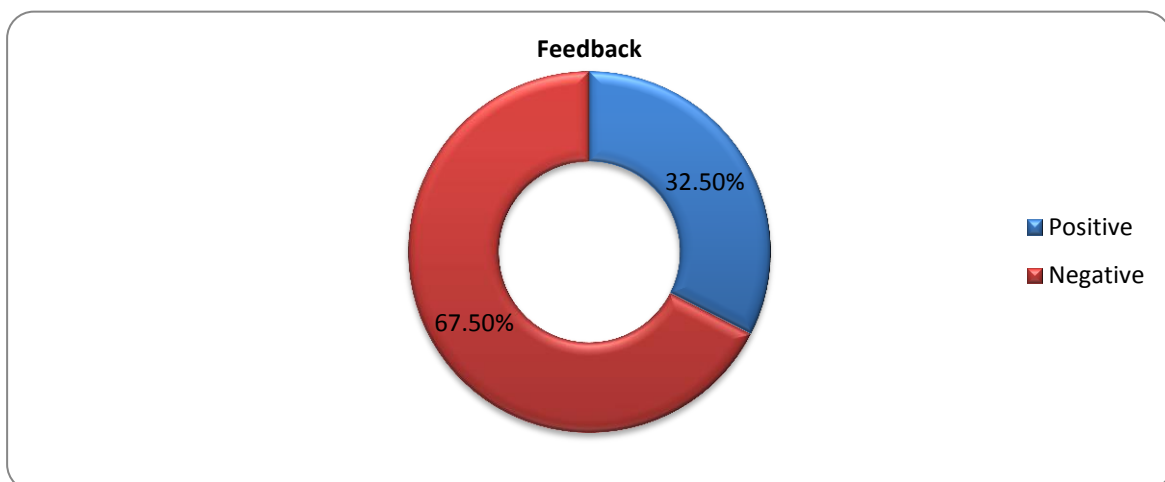
Tourists perceive service levels and food quality to be poorer than before outsourcing to private operators, which requires immediate corrective action (Mabunda, 2004:87; Varghese, 2008:78). It is, therefore, imperative for SANParks that the concessions relating to restaurant and shop facilities be revised and improved if it wishes to continue reaping the economic benefits of these. According to Fearnhead (2007:313), good-quality operators are essential for fast and responsible delivery in order to achieve the financial and empowerment objectives of SANParks. This is essential for the future earnings of SANParks, since the commercialisation strategy has been instrumental in the financial contribution to the cost of preserving SANParks without impinging on conservation and biodiversity (Fearnhead, 2007:313). According to the SANParks Strategic Plan (2012c:25), one of the strategic objectives is to create and maintain revenue streams that will enhance the organisation's financial sustainability. The financial target that SANParks aims to achieve is R200 million by 2016/2017 (2012c:25). Sophisticated, market-oriented product development and service provision are, therefore, necessary for national parks to be successful in attracting and retaining a

regular flow of tourists (Eagles, McCool & Haynes, 2002c:61; Font *et al.*, 2004:7). According to Mulholland and Eagles (2002:45), many parks substantially underperform with what they offer tourists.

### 2.5.3 Current satisfaction with SANParks restaurant and shop facilities

Most park visitors require food, either groceries or prepared food from restaurants or shop facilities. The purchase of food is a major expenditure, and parks have the potential to earn a substantial income from this source (Eagles *et al.*, 2002c:122). Food concession operators have the potential to greatly influence the quality of the experience of tourists visiting the parks (Eagles *et al.*, 2009:74). According to Chouinard (2005:1083), the national park service has struggled to improve the quality of service of concessions and, therefore, has changed the method of awarding revenue-generating concession contracts in the hopes of increasing service levels. An assessment of tourist perceptions, conducted by Mabunda (2004:88), indicated shortcomings in the product offerings to tourists, who preferred a good healthy diet and not greasy canteen food. It is necessary for SANParks to take the needs of tourists into consideration and alter its offerings accordingly.

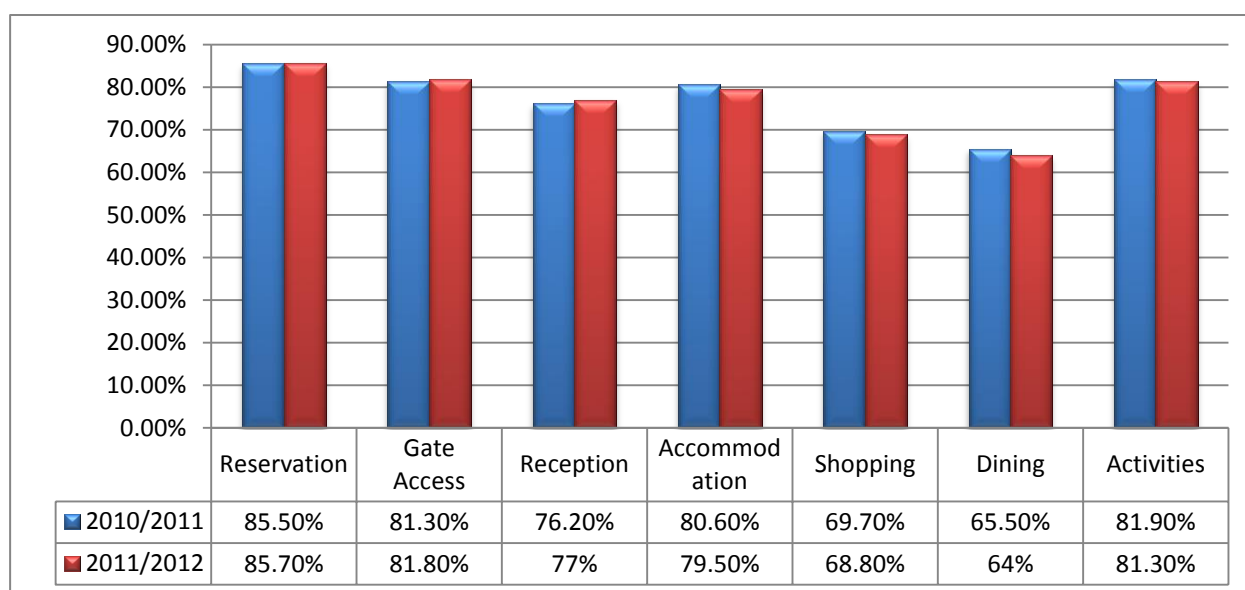
According to the Annual Report 2011/2012 (2012a:34), comments tagged by park visitors at the time of releasing the report yielded a result of 67.5% negative and 32.5% positive feedback. Figure 2.4 indicates the negative versus positive feedback received by SANParks as per the Annual Report 2011/2012 (2012a:34).



**Figure 2.4: Feedback received from the Guest Feedback System**

**Source: Annual Report 2011/2012 (2012a:34)**

During the review period, 43 110 guest feedback surveys were received by SANParks through the Guest Feedback System. Figure 2.4 is therefore an indication of the type of feedback received by guests and is not specific to any department within SANParks. There was a clear indication that guests were generally unsatisfied with offerings at SANParks and indicated as such in the negative feedback provided. In terms of the performance of operations at SANParks, Figure 2.5 indicates the areas of concern for SANParks.

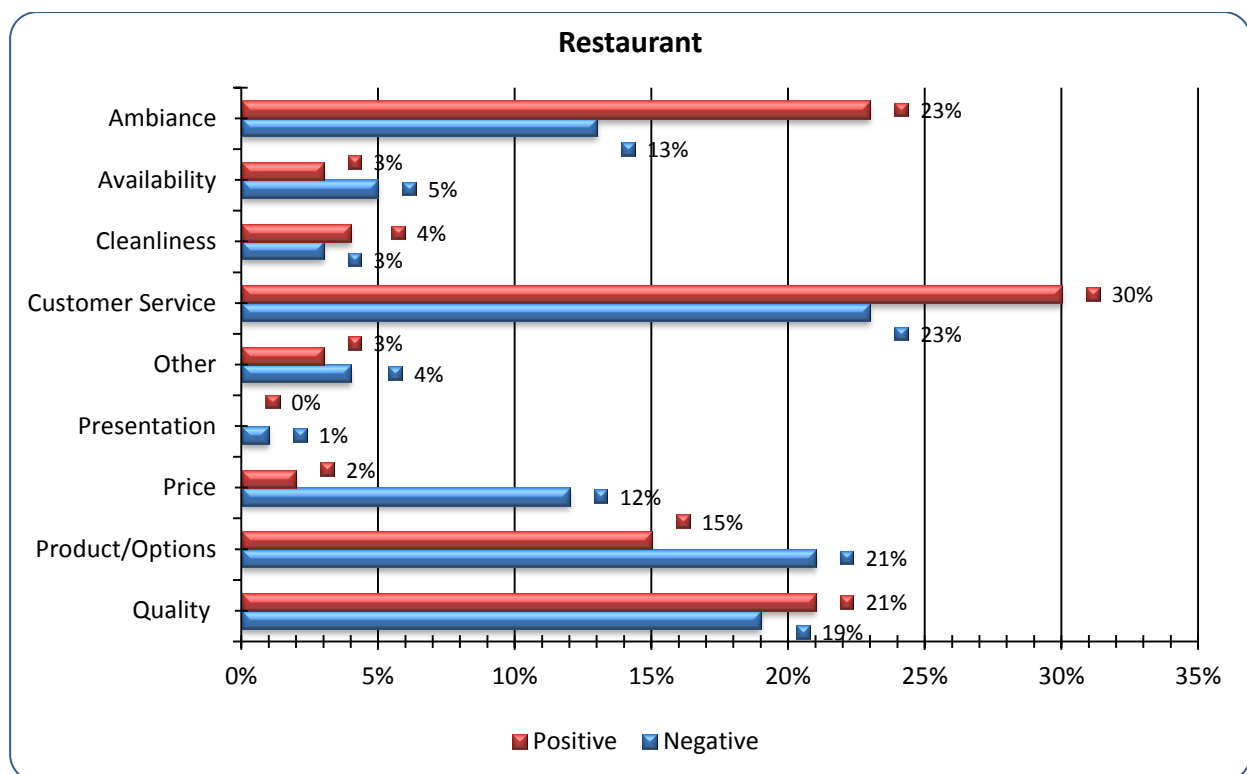


**Figure 2.5: Performance chart for 2010/2011 and 2011/2012**

**Source: Adapted from Annual Report 2011/2012 (2012a:33)**

Figure 2.5 shows the performance of all service areas in SANParks for 2010/2011 and 2011/2012. It is important to note that shopping at park shops and dining in park restaurants remained the poorest performing areas for both periods. For both shopping and dining, there was a decrease in performance from 2010/2011 to 2011/2012. Shopping went from 69.7% in 2010/2011 to 68.8% in 2011/2012 and dining from 65.5% in 2010/2011 to 64% in 2011/2012. The SANParks Annual Report 2011/2012 (2012a:31) further indicated that the performance of restaurant operations remained the weakest of all indicators measured and required contract variation management. A model that will focus on standardisation of both product and service through a franchised brand is being considered as an alternative to the current concession contract (2012a:31).

Figure 2.6 indicates the dining experience performance chart for restaurants. In terms of restaurants, the areas that yielded a higher negative experience were product/options (21%), price (12%), presentation (1%), and availability (5%). The results indicated that park visitors wanted more variety in terms of product/options, variable pricing, better presentation, and greater availability of restaurants. These negative experience factors can be minimised with the introduction of franchised restaurant or shop facilities. Price, as a factor, had the greatest difference between positive (2%) and negative (12%) experiences, which indicated that the majority of park visitors found restaurants expensive. The factors that generated a higher positive experience were quality (21%), customer service (30%), and ambiance (23%). Customer service experiences were generally positive, although the negative experiences (23%) were only 7% less than the positive experiences.



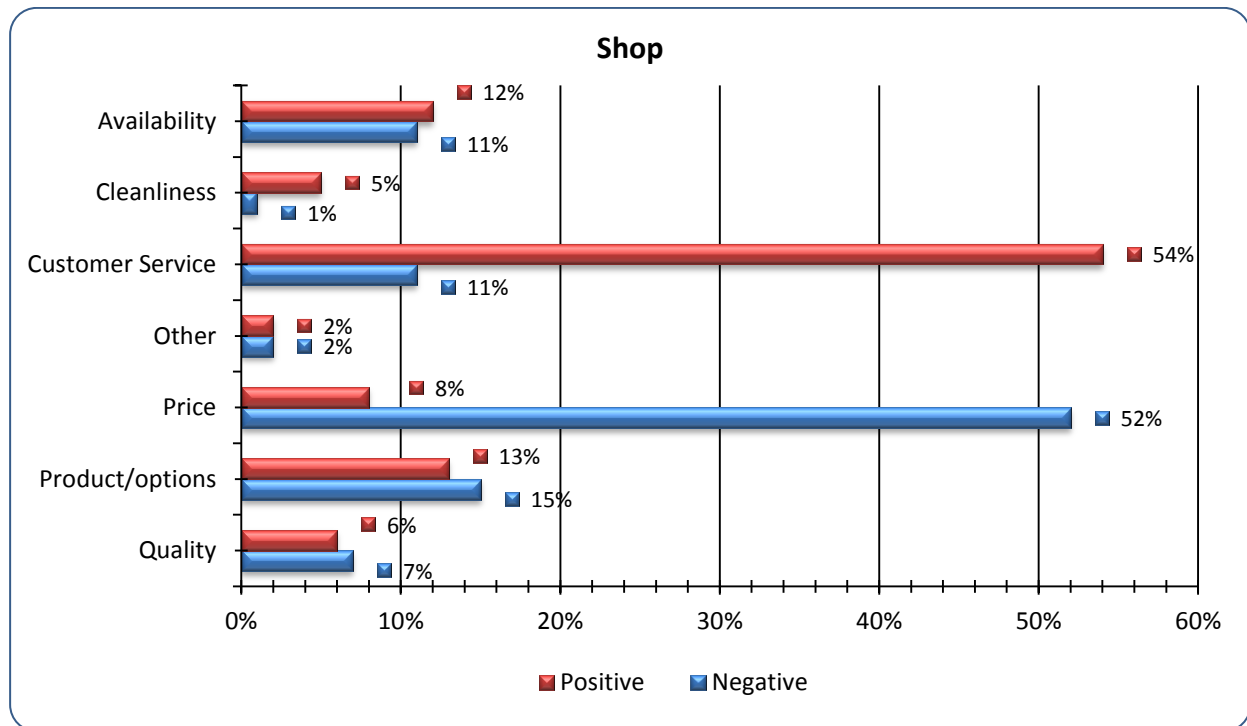
**Figure 2.6: Dining experience performance chart**

**Source: Adapted from SANParks Annual Report 2011/2012 (2012a:26)**

Figure 2.7 indicates the shopping experience performance chart, taken from the SANParks Annual Report 2011/2012 (2012a:36). SANParks indicated that retail concessions continued to do well, and the rental received by SANParks was



approximately R19 million for the reporting period (2012a:31); however, SANParks felt that the complaints about these operations were negligible.



**Figure 2.7: Shopping experience performance chart**

**Source: Adapted from SANParks Annual Report 2011/2012 (2012a:36)**

With regard to shops, factors that yielded higher negative values were price (52%), product options (15%), and quality (7%). Once again, the greatest difference between positive experiences (8%) and negative experiences (52%) was regarding the price factor. Offering a franchised brand or retail would, once again, limit the negative experiences, as pricing is standardised for franchises. Customer service was, again, perceived positively (54%) and indicated that most park visitors were satisfied with the service received from park shop staff. From this, it can be assumed that although factors such as cleanliness, customer service, and availability were satisfactory to park visitors, aspects such as price, product/options, and quality of products need to be reviewed.

Travel dining is, in itself, a pleasurable sensory experience that fulfils an experiential part of the holiday experience (Chang *et al.*, 2011:307). It offers a pleasure factor that pulls tourists to a destination and, as such, should be seen as a crucial part of the

tourist holiday experience. The changing economic climate brings more scrutiny to productivity indicators (Rodgers, 2011:478), and food service requires improved responsiveness to market changes and consumer preferences (Chang *et al.*, 2011:308).

## **2.6 CONCLUSION**

National parks are a form of protected area, and the national park model is one of the most commonly used management models, where the majority of funding comes from societal taxes. However, protected areas have become subject to financial constraints due to government budget cuts. As a result of these financial constraints, governance of protected areas is under threat of becoming ineffectual. It is imperative that protected areas adhere to the five principles of good governance, namely, legitimacy and voice, direction, performance, accountability, and fairness. In order for SANParks to make the most of tourism revenue-earning opportunities, it implemented its commercialisation strategy, which allows private sector organisations to operate certain lodging facilities, restaurants, and shops within the parks. However, tourist satisfaction with these concessionaires running restaurant and shop facilities is low, and aspects such as price, product/options, and quality are unsatisfactory.

## Chapter

# 3

## ***AN ANALYSIS OF TOURIST FOOD CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR***

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Tourist food consumption is a crucial form of tourist consumption (Mak *et al.*, 2012:928), but has largely been neglected in the hospitality and tourism literature (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:756). The importance of the role food plays in tourism cannot be ignored (Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2011:60), as it accounts for a major share of consumer expenditure (Gäl *et al.*, 2008:32; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2011:63) and approximately one-third of all tourist expenditure (Kim *et al.*, 2009:423; Mak *et al.*, 2012:928). Kim *et al.* (2009:423) further state that, between 1987 and 2003, tourist spending on food and dining out in Canada by domestic and international tourists averaged 16.2% of the total expenditure, which is ranked second following tourist expenditure on transport. As a result, the economic benefits brought by tourist food consumption can substantially affect the economic feasibility and sustainable competitiveness of a tourist destination (Kim *et al.*, 2009:423; Mak *et al.*, 2012:928).

According to Divisekera (2010:629), an understanding of tourist consumption behaviour is of paramount importance for the host destination, as the economic benefits of tourism flow from tourists' spending. Similarly, the attractiveness of the destination is associated with its ability to satisfy tourist needs and motivations (Correia, Metal, Ferreira Da Costa & Peres, 2008:165). Links between restaurants and destinations have featured in the overall success of tourism, and both the tourism and restaurant industries have become more aware of the need to market, develop, and promote restaurants as part of the tourism product (Ryu & Han, 2010:491). Yet food and beverages has its own characteristics and consumer behaviour factors. Restaurants (franchised and hotel restaurants), takeaways, and even caterers are more volatile, changeable, and fashion-prone than hotels or tourist attractions (Johns & Pine, 2002:120).

According to Fox (cited by Ryu & Han, 2010:492), tourists' increased expectations of top service and food quality have created a strong demand for a wide variety of dining menus and menu options, with a growing emphasis on regional specialities and fresh ingredients. It is for these reasons that tourists visiting developing countries prefer fast-food (franchised) restaurants to traditional restaurants (Gäl *et al.*, 2008:32), as franchised establishments provide consistency in their offerings. Meal-eating patterns are changing (O'Mahony & Hall, 2007:52), and the prevalence of overweight people has risen so rapidly that it has been called an epidemic (Maubach, Hoek & McCreanor, 2009:297). Obesity has resulted in the need for new dietary guidelines and nutrition and health policies to focus on guidance for the consumption of fresh fruit and vegetables and to limit fats and the amount and type of animal products consumed (Jensen, 2006:166). This has impacted the factors that affect consumer behaviour in terms of food consumption and has affected the offerings of restaurants and shops. The purpose of this chapter is to identify factors that affect the choice and consumption of food by tourists.

### **3.2 UNDERSTANDING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR**

The fundamental basis for marketing thinking is that the consumer should be at the centre of everything that the organisation does (Blythe, 2008:9). Understanding how and why consumers make their choices and who the consumers are is vital to the formulation of the marketing plan (Blythe, 2008:9; George, 2008:168). More recently, marketers have begun to understand the subject of consumer behaviour as it relates to the consumption of services (Reid & Bojanic, 2010:89). While the needs, demands, and preferences of each individual consumer are unique, there are also many comparable behavioural patterns among consumers that imply that many consumers follow relatively the same process when buying decisions are made (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:60). Consumer behaviour can be defined as the activities a person undertakes when obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services (Blythe, 2008:5; George, 2008:169; Reid & Bojanic, 2010:89). Understanding the behaviour of hospitality and tourism consumers is among the most important challenges facing management, and it is critical for management to remain in constant communication with those who consume their products and services (Reid & Bojanic, 2010:89). It is

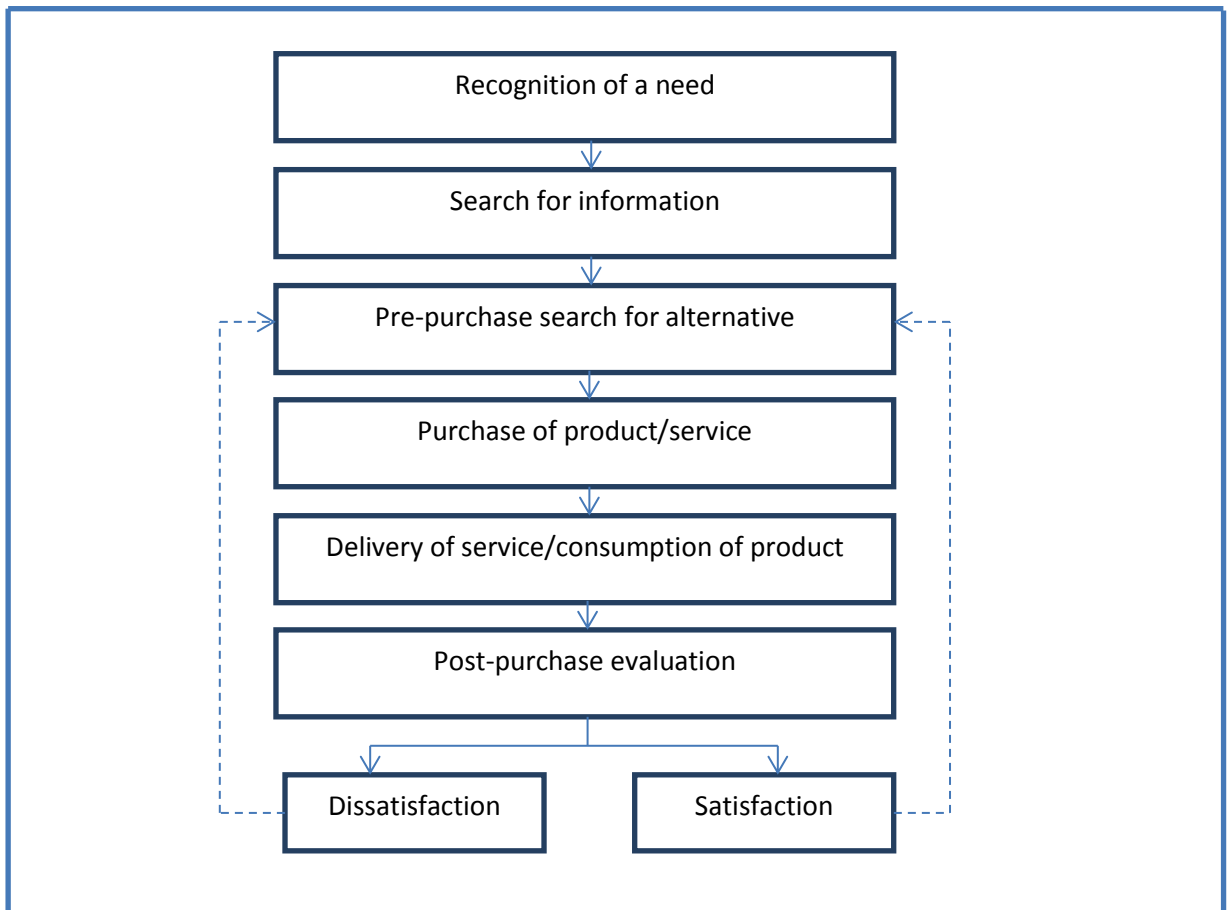
important to understand the decision-making process of consumers as well as the factors affecting consumer behaviour. These issues will be discussed in further detail.

### **3.2.1 Decision-making process for food consumption**

There are various stages that a consumer goes through before purchasing a product or service, which are depicted in Figure 3.1. Numerous variables influence the decision-making process (Reid & Bojanic, 2010:102), and it is important to understand the process as well as the variables affecting the process in order to adapt. Figure 3.1 indicates the consumer decision-making process and identifies the various stages of the buying decision process as well as the variables that influence these stages.

- The first stage is the recognition of a need. It is in this stage that the consumer recognises the need for a service or product, which is taken from the desired state (what the consumer would like) to the actual state (what the consumer actually needs).
- Once at a conscious level, the second stage involves the search for information. It is during this stage that the consumer defines the need, explores possible solutions, and identifies alternative providers (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:63). Since the desire for food is a basic need, coupled with the fact that SANParks offers no alternatives with respect to restaurants and shop facilities, the information retrieval stage is likely to be brief. Consumers tend to be more involved when there is a greater perceived risk of making the wrong choice (Reid & Bojanic, 2010:103).
- The third stage is the pre-purchase alternative evaluation stage where the consumer evaluates collected information against alternatives. Consumers go through a cognitive process where they weigh the positive and negative attributes of alternatives (Reid & Bojanic, 2010:103).
- Stage 4 is the purchase stage where the consumer makes the decision to purchase the product or service. Decision-making will be of the limited problem-solving type, which is an immediate form of decision-making (Bowie & Buttle, 2011:60). For limited problem solving, a buyer makes a decision without consciously thinking about it (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:61). This is especially true of food consumption in the parks due to the lack of alternatives.
- Consumption of the product or delivery of the service occurs during Stage 5. During this stage, the consumer begins to evaluate the experience/product.

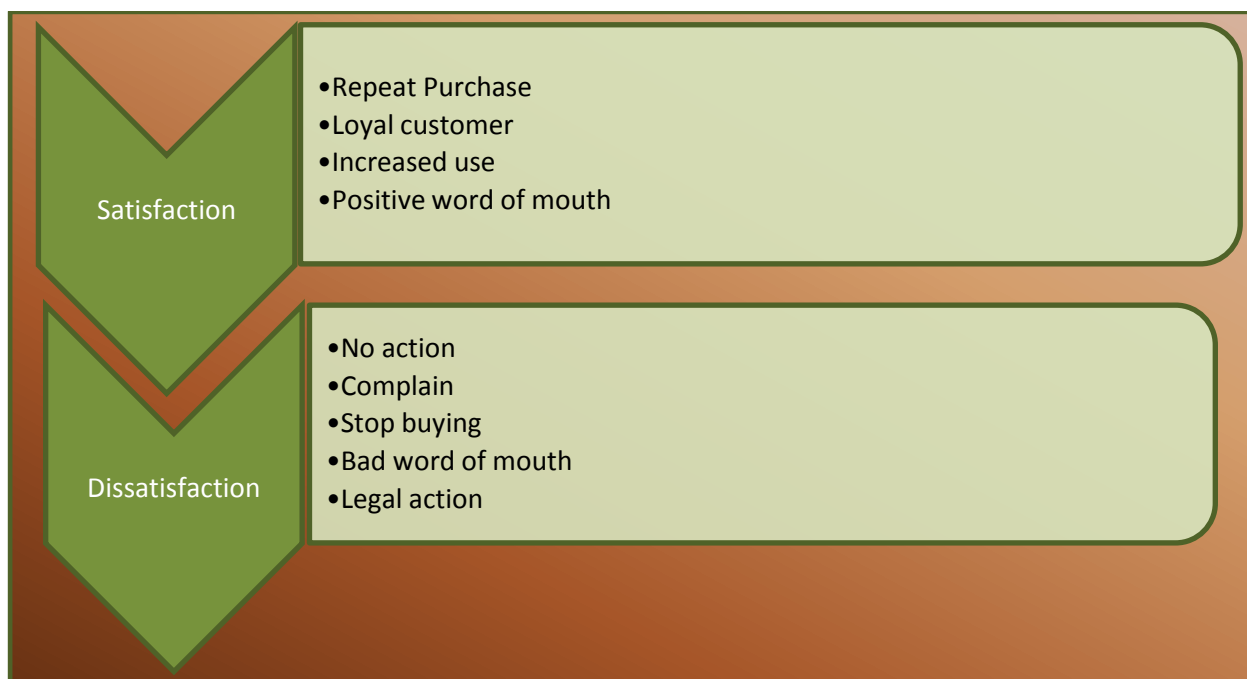
- Stage 6 involves the post-purchase evaluation. It is during this stage that the consumer determines whether the service/product was satisfactory or not. In the case of satisfaction, the customer may decide to increase the use of the service/product. In the case of dissatisfaction, the customer may discontinue using the service/product, complain, or perhaps decide to use the service/product again, as it is the only supplier (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:42; Bowie & Buttle, 2011:61). Consumers use the information for all future purchases.



**Figure 3.1: The buying decision process**

**Source: Adapted from Boshoff and Du Plessis (2009:63) and George (2008:176)**

It is important to note that, in Figure 3.1, satisfaction and dissatisfaction both result in future pre-purchase alternatives. Dissatisfaction with a service/product will lead to a negative attitude towards the service/product and provider (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:73). Both satisfaction and dissatisfaction can result in diverse post-purchase behaviour, as indicated in Figure 3.2.



**Figure 3.2: Post-purchase behaviour**

**Source: Adapted from Boshoff and Du Plessis (2009:71)**

According to Blythe (2008:29), dissatisfaction is the beginning of behavioural change. If consumers are satisfied, they will repeat purchasing behaviour, increase use, market the service/product through positive word of mouth, and remain loyal customers. There will be no need to change behaviour. However, dissatisfaction can result in loss of future revenue for an organisation from both the dissatisfied consumer and future potential consumers. Dissatisfied consumers may take no action. This means that they do not complain or stop using the service/product.

Consumers are more likely to complain when they are removed from the situation (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:287) and have the time and formal channels of communication to do so and when they wish to reverse an undesirable state (Reid & Bojanic, 2010:66). Research suggests there are different types of consumers who complain (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010: 287). Passive consumers are the least likely to complain. Consumers who voice their concerns usually do so directly to the service/product provider.irate consumers usually stop using the service/product and engage in bad word of mouth. Lastly, activists intensely engage in all types of complaining and can reach vast numbers of people by posting negative comments on the Internet (Bowie & Buttle,

2011:255; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:288). It is important to remember that complaints give a provider the opportunity to recover from a service/product failure. Ignoring complaints can be considered short-sighted on the part of the provider, no matter how negligible these complaints appear to be.

### **3.2.2 Factors influencing the buying decision process**

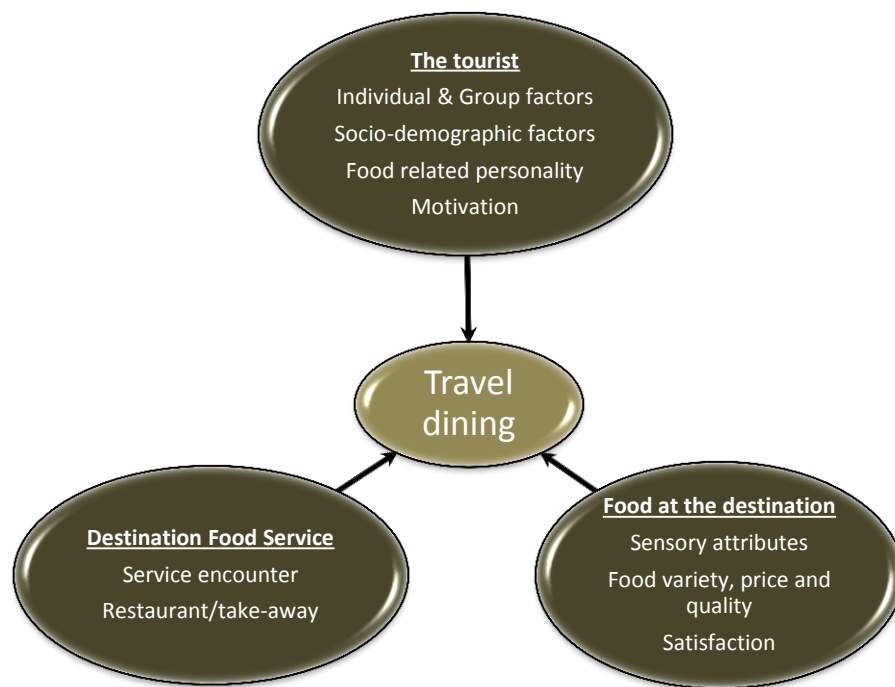
The buying decision process does not occur in a vacuum (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:75); there are various factors that affect consumers' pre-purchase and post-purchase decisions. Food choice is a seemingly simple, but actually very complicated, behaviour that is influenced by numerous interrelated factors (George, 2008:169; Köster, 2007:70). While the economic significance of tourist food consumption is recognised, little research exists into the factors affecting tourist food consumption (Kim *et al.*, 2009:423; Mak *et al.*, 2011:928). The study of food in tourism is disregarded or taken for granted and is considered to still be in its infancy (Mak *et al.*, 2012:928; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2011:62). However, food is an important part of tourism and can influence the image of the destination (Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2011:63).

### **3.2.3 Tourist food consumption**

Tourist food demand is inelastic (Mak *et al.*, 2011:928), which means that the demand for food by the tourist is not significantly affected by an increase or decrease in price. Demand that is significantly affected by the price usually occurs when there is a substitute available (Blythe, 2008:18). Since SANParks does not offer a variety of restaurant or shop options, demand for food will be inelastic. Many studies related to food consumption are based on the understanding of food-associated behaviours, which include liking, preference, choice, and intake (Mak *et al.*, 2011:928). Food liking refers to the satisfaction obtained from tasting a given food, which provides a description of the sensory product properties (Köster, 2009:71). Preference refers to the selection of one food item over another, which is affected by liking, availability, health value, convenience, and economic influences (Arora, 2007:222). Food choice refers to the decisions made by the consumer at the point of purchasing and consuming the food product (Mak *et al.*, 2011:929). Lastly, food intake refers to the amount of food ingested. Rozin (2006:24) states that food preference is determined by food liking and that food intake is determined by food preference, but many other variables intervene.



These variables can be grouped into the individual/tourist, the food, and the environment and are illustrated in Figure 3.3.



**Figure 3.3: Factors affecting tourist food consumption**

**Source: Adapted from Mak et al. (2012:930)**

### 3.2.3.1 The tourist

Consumer behaviour in tourism is a fascinating subject (George, 2008:169), and much research into tourism consumer behaviour is still needed (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:3). The main difference with tourism consumer behaviour for food consumption is that the consumer is on holiday; away from his/her home environment and everyday life, motivations or expectations will be different. The factors affecting tourist consumer behaviour are discussed below.

#### **Individual factors**

No two people are alike, even if they share the same background or are the same gender or age. People may share similarities, but have different opinions and perceptions. Individual factors will, thus, be different for every person. These factors include perception, attitude, personality, and lifestyle.

- Perception

The process used to receive, organise, and assign meaning to information detected by the five senses is known as perception (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:75; Kumar, 2010:224). According to George (2008:172), perception is a function of motivations, learning, and attitudes and is strongly related to previous experience. Therefore, no two perceptions can be the same, and understanding the perception of tourists is of utmost importance. Since perception is related to the senses, food consumption decisions can be based on sensory attributes such as food aroma. Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:47) state that perception forms part of the first-level influences, close to a person, which are psychological by nature. This means that perception is one of the first factors affecting the decision process. This statement is confirmed by Kumar (2010:224), who explains that, through perception, consumers choose what information to pay attention to. Hoyer and MacInnis (2010:70) explain that in order for consumers to register any message after being exposed to an advertisement, they must perceive and pay attention. Before a consumer can act on a message, he/she must be exposed to the message. Exposure is critical in influencing consumers' thoughts and feelings.

- Attitude

Attitude is a predisposition towards a product/service (Ramkissoo & Nunkoo, 2012:63) and can be positive or negative (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:76; George, 2008:172; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:122; Kumar, 2010:225; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:42). Attitudes are learned and usually remain over time; they reflect the overall reaction to a product/service (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:122). Perception and attitude are closely linked, in that perception determines attitude. If a person perceives a service/product as favourable, the person will have a positive attitude towards that service/product. Cong, Olsen and Huy Tuu, (2012:97) found that attitude was a significant predictor of food choice. Hoyer and MacInnis (2010:122) describe attitudes as being important, as they guide thoughts (cognitive function), influence consumers' feelings (affective function), and affect behaviour (conative function).

Attitude has five characteristics: favourability, attitude accessibility, attitude confidence, persistence, and resistance (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:122). Favourability refers to the degree to which consumers like or dislike a product/service. Attitude accessibility refers

to the ease with which attitude can be remembered (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:76). Attitude confidence is the strength with which a consumer holds an attitude. Persistence refers to the length that attitude lasts, while resistance refer to how difficult it is to change an attitude (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:76; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:122). Finally, attitudes may be described in terms of ambivalence, when feelings towards a product/service are mixed (Cong *et al.*, 2012:97; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:123). Cong *et al.* (2012:98) found that ambivalence had a strong negative effect on both attitude and food choice frequency. The reason for this is that ambivalent consumers have less positive attitudes, which lead to lower choice frequency of food (Cong *et al.*, 2012:98).

- Personality

Personality can be defined as the inner psychological characteristics of an individual that distinguish one individual from another (Blythe, 2008:73; Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:77; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:371; Kumar, 2010:223). A consumer's personality largely determines the person's lifestyle, which is an expression of personality. There is a weak association between personalities and buying behaviour (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:374; Kumar, 2010:223), as it is the total personality that affects buying behaviour and not the individual traits (Blythe, 2008:73). According to Hoyer and MacInnis (2010:373), behaviour can be characterised by three orientations, namely, compliant consumers who are dependent on others, aggressive consumers who are self-confident and tough-minded and need power, and, lastly, detached consumers who are independent and self-sufficient, but suspicious and introverted. In terms of food consumption at parks, aggressive consumers are those who are more likely to complain when unhappy, but are also the consumers who will most likely make use of park products. Compliant consumers will not complain, but are less likely to make use of products, unless influenced by the social group. Detached consumers are also less likely to make use of park products due to their self-sufficiency. Food-related personality traits will be discussed in a later section.

- Lifestyle

Personality determines lifestyle (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:77). The lifestyle of a consumer is formed by his/her social activities, interests, and opinions (AIOs) (Bowie &

Buttle, 2011:75; George, 2008:174; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:378) and is known as psychographics (Blythe, 2008:79; Reid & Bojanic, 2010:97). This is especially important when dealing with tourists, as their buying behaviour while on holiday will be highly affected by their type of lifestyle. It is also important to remember that most tourists visiting parks will have comparable lifestyle factors due to similar interests and social activities. Rising consumer income, changing demographics and lifestyles, and shifting preferences due to new information about the links between diet and health contribute to new demands for foods (Jensen, 2006:165; Kumar, 2010:223). Lifestyle and income are closely linked, and in general, higher-income consumers have diets that are more varied (Jensen, 2006:165). Higher income has led to demand for other food attributes, such as variety, convenience, and intrinsic attributes such as taste and how the food was produced and processed (Jensen, 2006:165). Gäl *et al.* (2008:40) found that increases in income were associated with increased food expenditures, but at a decreasing rate. This means that when consumers are not price-conscious, they expect quality, product options and variety, and convenience in food consumption (Gäl *et al.*, 2008:40).

### **Group factors**

All consumers belong to different groups of society, whether it is in terms of social groups, interest groups, or family groups. As part of these different groups, consumers are influenced by different norms, values, habits, rules, and regulations (Blythe, 2008:190; Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:78; Kumar, 2010:222). There is a strong link between individual and group factors. Group factors consist of culture, religion, reference groups, social class/status, and family group and family life cycle.

- **Culture**

Culture is a factor that influences any behaviour and is the most basic cause of a person's wants and behaviour (Kumar, 2010:219). Culture consists of a shared set of characteristics, attitudes, behaviours, and values (Blythe, 2008:191; Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:78; George, 2008:173; Mak *et al.*, 2012:929). Culture is also a major determinant in affecting the types of substances that consumers consider appropriate to eat (Cong *et al.*, 2012:92; Mak *et al.*, 2012:929; O'Mahony & Hall, 2007:52). Culture dictates much of the food consumption process, including hunger signals that remind

one to eat (O'Mahony & Hall, 2007:53). It is important to note that culture changes over time and does not remain static (George, 2008:173). Each cultural group consists of various subcultures, each with its own norms, values, and symbols (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:78).

Tse and Crotts (2005:967) found that national culture affected tourist culinary choice. According to Tse and Crotts (2005:966), tourists were assigned a national culture score based on Hofstede's 2001 national cultural rankings along the uncertainty avoidance index. It was found that tourists from low uncertainty avoidance index (UAI) cultures (such as Great Britain and the United States) were less risk-averse and, therefore, sampled a greater number of diverse culinary dishes (Tse & Crotts, 2005:966). Tourists from high uncertainty avoidance index cultures (such as Germany and France) avoided uncertainty and preferred dishes that they knew. It is important to understand that tourists from low UAI cultures would be more willing to eat from park restaurants, whereas tourists from high UAI cultures would either cater for themselves (as they can control how the food is made) or prefer franchised brands.

- Religion

According to O'Mahony and Hall (2007:57), religions establish a framework within which food is experienced. Religion prescribes which foods are permissible and which are not (Blythe, 2008:191), which preparation methods are mandated, and which fasting or feasting practices are observed (Mak *et al.*, 2012:930). This should also be taken into consideration at parks.

- Reference groups

A reference group is a group of people who influence an individual's buying behaviour (George, 2008:173; Kumar, 2010:222; Reid & Bojanic, 2010:642; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:47). According to Boshoff and Du Plessis (2009:79), reference groups can affect buying behaviour in three ways, namely:

- normative influence, which refers to norms of behaviour prescribed by the reference group;

- value-expressive influence, which refers to behaviour that portrays certain values. This can be health-conscious, environmentally aware, or correct ethical behaviour; and
- informational influence, which occurs when buyers accept opinions of group members.

The opinion leader has an important function, as his/her views and judgements may influence consumer decisions (Kumar, 2010:222). Research shows that information does not always flow directly from mass media to individual consumers, but is often channelled through an opinion leader who interprets and evaluates the information (Boshoff & Du Plessis, 2009:80). Since tourists who visit parks belong to a reference group that is environmentally aware, it is important that this function be portrayed through food service. Restaurant and shop facilities should identify with the values of these groups and package food products to cater to these values.

- Social class/status

Social class systems exist for every society, although they are more evident in some countries than in others (Bowie & Buttle, 2011:57; George, 2008:174; Hoyer & Bojanic, 2010:326; Reid & Bojanic, 2010:97). Social class is usually determined by occupation, income, and education and is powerful in shaping demand (Blythe, 2008:204; George, 2008:174). A link between social status and food choice categorises consumers on the basis of economic or cultural capital (O'Mahony & Hall, 2007:53). Economic capital refers to the main disposable income, while cultural capital refers to education and appreciation of culture (O'Mahony & Hall, 2007:54). Kim *et al.* (2009:424) state that status and prestige motivators are associated with self-esteem, recognition, and the desire to attract attention, which can be achieved from eating nice food in a nice place and which distinguish a consumer in terms of social status. Mak *et al.* (2012:932) found that social status was one of the prevalent factors affecting the types and quantity of foods eaten.

- Family group and family life cycle

Food consumption is not always an individual phenomenon, but includes social interactions due to the fact that, in many cases, consumers have to reconcile different preferences, share social cognition and feelings, and comply with expectations of others, such as family members (Cong *et al.*, 2012:92). According to Bowie and Buttle (2011:56), families have a huge influence on consumer behaviour. Adult preferences in food consumption are largely products of the influences of childhood (Bowie & Buttle, 2011:56). Research on family decision-making has shown that the family is the most important social group to influence the decision-making process of individual members in terms of food choice and consumption (Cong *et al.*, 2012:92).

According to Kumar (2010:223), marketers should understand that many family decisions are made as a family unit, consumer behaviour starts in the family unit, the family acts as an interpreter of social and cultural values for individuals, and family roles and preferences are the model for children's future family. This is particularly important in terms of food consumption, as it is usually the mother who does the food shopping and cooking for the family. This will differ slightly while on holiday, but the importance of the mother/wife who compares food price and food quality cannot be overstated (Gäl *et al.*, 2008:40). Maubach *et al.* (2009:297) found that, while grocery shopping, parents would accommodate taste preferences of children in order to avoid conflict, frequently sought out fresh food items, as they were healthy, and focused on nutrition, which was a frequently occurring theme. As previously discussed, obesity has reached epidemic proportions, and parents are becoming more health-conscious in terms of food purchases for their children. Parks should focus on a variety of items such as fresh foods as well as healthy meals. Gäl *et al.* (2008:40) found that, in family groups where the wife/mother was working full time, income was increased, but food consumption focused more on time-saving goods and services than in families with full-time homemakers. Especially on holiday, wives/mothers were more likely to seek time-saving food goods and services.

The family life cycle is another powerful social influence on consumer behaviour. The characteristics of restaurant target markets are defined using gender, income, and family life cycle (Bowie & Buttle, 2011:79). Research demonstrates that diners look for

quality of food and service, value for money, and cleanliness, all of which will be rated more highly by the family eating out segment due to the costs of taking a family out (Bowie & Buttle, 2011:79). Johns and Pine (2002:121) found that dining preferences of older consumers did not include full-service restaurants, but that they were, in fact, more likely to frequent fast-food restaurants. Adults eating out without children can take time and spend more money on a more sophisticated dining experience (Bowie & Buttle, 2011:79). Parks should identify the family life cycle of their visitors and cater to their preferences. Table 3.1 indicates the family life cycle model adapted from George (2008:175) and Corey (2009:424).

**Table 3.1: Family life cycle model for food consumption**

| <b>Stage</b>                             | <b>Characteristics</b>                                             | <b>Food consumer behaviour</b>                                                                    |
|------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Between families</b>                  | Young, unattached, single people                                   | Fast-food, franchised takeaway                                                                    |
| <b>Newly married</b>                     | Young, no children                                                 | Frequent restaurants, romantic                                                                    |
| <b>Families with young children</b>      | Young married couple with young children                           | Family restaurant or franchised fast-food restaurant or takeaway, focus on healthier food options |
| <b>Families with adolescent children</b> | Older married couple with independent children                     | Upmarket restaurants, time to dine out                                                            |
| <b>Launching young adult children</b>    | Older married couple where children have moved out                 | Upmarket restaurants, time and money to dine out                                                  |
| <b>Aging as a later-life family</b>      | One or both person(s) retired, fixed income, and more leisure time | Quality in terms of dining, all-inclusive                                                         |

**Source: Adapted from George (2008:175) and Corey (2009:424)**

It is important to understand that, in terms of family life cycle, the food consumption choice is predominantly made in line with whether there are children involved or not. Important demographics such as age and gender will be discussed in the next section.

### ***Socio-demographic factors***

Socio-demographic factors commonly include variables such as age, gender, marital status, education level, occupation, and household income to reflect the social, economic, and demographic status of an individual (Mak *et al.*, 2012:931). These socio-demographics affecting a consumer's behaviour are unique to each consumer (Kumar, 2010:223).



- Age and gender

Consumers of the same age are going through similar experiences and, therefore, share common needs, experiences, symbols, and memories, which lead to similar consumption patterns (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:301). A person's age clearly influences wants and needs and, as such, is an important indicator of food consumption requirements. Owing to diminished taste and olfactory senses, older people will exhibit different food preferences to younger persons (Mak *et al.*, 2012:931). Young consumers are more likely to be experimental in their eating and prefer informal dining such as franchised fast-food brands (Bowie & Buttle, 2011:59). Older consumers are more health-conscious (Kim *et al.*, 2009:429) and will consume a narrower range of foods available (Mak *et al.*, 2012:931).

Increased age also implies greater access to income. As stated, older consumers are more concerned with health and nutrition and would welcome nutritional information in takeaway outlets and restaurants (Maubach *et al.*, 2009:300). It is important for parks to remember that although many marketers have made a distinction between chronological age and cognitive age, in terms of food consumption, age has a definite effect on what consumers eat.

In terms of gender, it is clear that males and females differ in traits, attitudes, and activities, which can affect consumer behaviour (Bowie & Buttle, 2011:58; Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:308). Gender is demonstrated as a crucial impacting element on food choice and eating behaviour (Kim *et al.*, 2009:429). Men have a different approach to food consumption in terms of taste and portion size (Bowie & Buttle, 2011:58; O'Mahony & Hall, 2007:58). Men tend to be competitive, independent, externally motivated, and willing to take risks; they are also selective information processors (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:309). Nutritional information, therefore, is not as important for males as it is for females. Men are, however, more likely to try new food types or restaurants and shop facilities. Men appear to be more sensitive to trends in positive emotions experienced during consumption, whereas women display a tendency towards

negative emotions (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010:309). This is important for parks, as women are more likely to have negative emotions with food purchases and consumption and dissatisfaction with these purchases will be common. The role of wife/mother in terms of food purchases and preparation has been discussed and is important to consider when evaluating opinions of price, variety, and menu options. Women are influenced more by health and nutrition (Kim *et al.*, 2009:429; O'Mahony & Hall, 2007:58) and are more likely to avoid meat, have weight concerns, and prefer low-calorie foods (Mak *et al.*, 2012:931). Kim *et al.* (2009:429) found that women chose "safety of food" and "price of food alternatives" as the primary preference in food purchases.

- Income and education

Income has been discussed in terms of social status and age. The higher a consumer's income, the higher the social class and lifestyle and the higher the effect of such on food consumption. In terms of age, it is assumed that older consumers have more disposable income and, as such, prefer better restaurants and finer foods. It is also assumed that consumers with a higher education level have a higher income level. Previous research conducted by Slabbert and Van Loggerenberg (2012) and Du Plessis, Saayman and Engelbrecht (2011) on visitor profiles to SANParks indicates that level of education of visitors is high with over 70% of visitors having tertiary educations. Johns and Pine (2002:121) found that income differences had less effect on demand for fast food, and Gäl *et al.* (2008:40) found that higher income was associated with a positive relationship between food away from home (FAFH) consumption and the share of food expenditure. As previously stated, Gäl *et al.* (2008:40) indicate that increases in income are associated with quality expectation, diversity in terms of product offerings, and convenience in food consumption. Education and employment of women also play an important role in affecting income, as working women increase the family income and, according to Gäl *et al.* (2008:40), might consume more time-saving goods and services. Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:59) state that women travel for physical and emotional relaxation, which confirms the finding that time-saving and convenient food consumption is required. It is important to remember that, in terms of this study, consumers are tourists visiting parks, which means that more disposable income is available. Kim *et al.* (2009:429) found that tourists with a higher educational level

expressed cultural interest and were more concerned with health. Tourists visiting heritage sites and environmentally friendly holidays were generally well educated (Kim *et al.*, 2009:429).

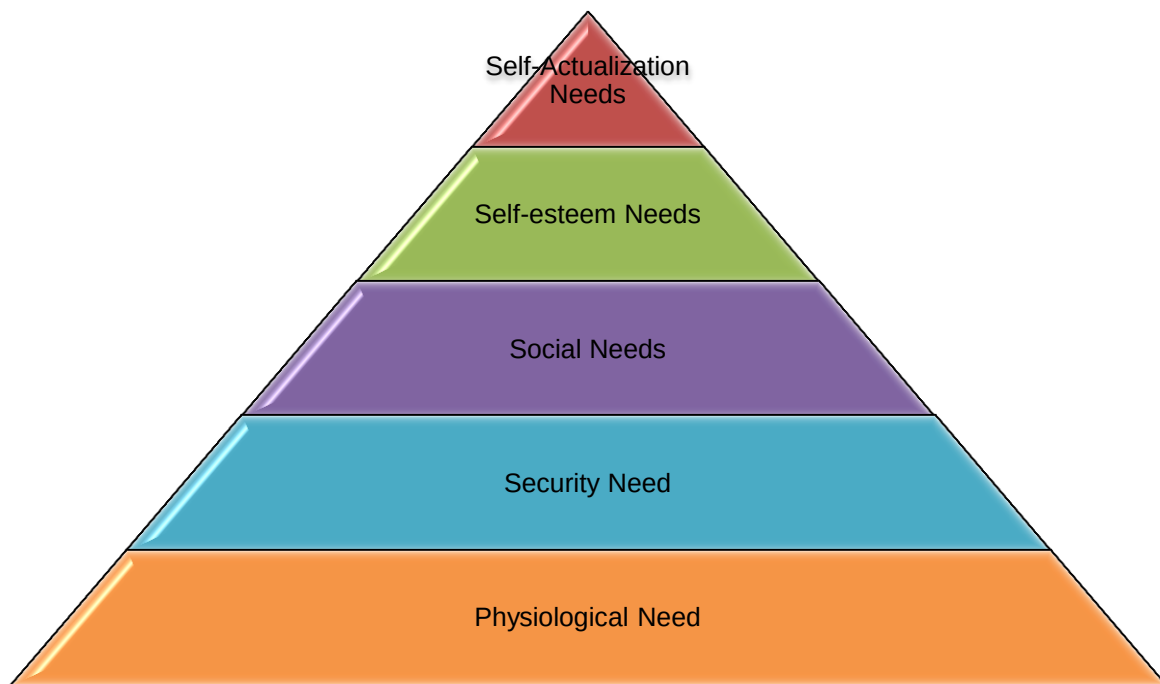
### ***Food-related personality types***

Food-related personality traits have begun to be recognised as important psychological variables affecting tourist food consumption (Chang *et al.*, 2010:993; Mak *et al.*, 2012:932). These traits exert a pervasive influence on a broad range of food-related behaviour (Kim *et al.*, 2009:430). The distinction between “neophobic” and “neophilic” tendencies in taste suggests that consumers have a natural tendency to dislike or suspect new and unfamiliar foods (neophobic) and, yet, also a tendency to search for novel foods (neophilic) (Chang, Kivela & Mak, 2010:993; Kim *et al.*, 2009:430; Mak *et al.*, 2012:932). People generally prefer to eat that with which they are familiar. Tse and Crotts (2005:968) state that tourists from high UAI countries (such as Germany and France) who are on short visits or those visiting for the first time prefer familiar foods and a limited range of culinary offerings. Chang *et al.* (2010:993) indicate that food habits are recognised as learned behaviour and, as such, are ongoing and resistant to change. It is important, therefore, that parks recognise the fact that most consumers prefer food with which they are familiar, which could extend to food restaurant and shop brands.

### **Motivational factors**

In terms of food consumption, Kim *et al.* (2009:425) found that motivational factors included exciting experience, escape from routine, health concern, knowledge, authentic experience, togetherness, prestige, sensory appeal, and the physical environment. Mak *et al.* (2012:933) found food motivators to be physical, cultural, interpersonal, and status and prestige. The physical aspect refers to the act of eating to sustain the body, taking into account the taste and sensory appeal. Culture involves the experience of new cultures through food. The interpersonal aspect is the social aspect of food consumption, and lastly, status and prestige are affected in terms of building knowledge of new food types (Mak *et al.*, 2012:933).

Consumer behaviour is based on the needs of individuals, groups, and organisations, regardless of what the consumer is purchasing. Identifying the human motivations, as introduced by Abraham Maslow in his hierarchy of needs theory, will assist in understanding the core of consumer behaviour. The theory is that once a person's goals have been achieved, the needs subside, and until they arise again, the person is in a state of normality (George, 2008:170). Figure 3.4 depicts Maslow's hierarchy of needs.



**Figure 3.4: Maslow's hierarchy of needs model**

**Source: Maslow (1970:74)**

- Physiological needs are those such as food, air, water, heat, and the basic necessities of survival that need to be satisfied first. These needs, along with security, must be satisfied on a regular basis before people will focus on social needs or the need for self-esteem and status. Food consumption falls into this basic requirement and can be fulfilled when a person feels hungry. However, other aspects related to food, such as the need for variety, cultural motivators, and interpersonal motivators, can only be fulfilled once the physiological need has been fulfilled.
- Security needs are where the priority lies with job security and knowing that an income will be available regularly.

- Social needs are the needs of belonging, a natural human desire for which people strive. In terms of food consumers, this need is fulfilled with interpersonal motivators, eating as part of a group, or a social setting. Restaurants aim to fulfil this need, as well as the physiological and security needs.
- Self-esteem needs are for status and recognition within society. Once again, in terms of the food consumer, these involve the need to taste the food of different cultures and learn about different cultures.
- Self-actualisation needs are valued as the level to which a person should aspire.

The model supposes that people at lower levels (physiological and security) are controlled by their basic needs. Once these needs have been met, there is a divergence, as some people become inner-directed, while others become outer-directed (Blythe, 2008:38). In terms of food consumption, physiological needs fulfil the basic hunger and thirst needs. Other motivational needs are then fulfilled at higher levels.

### **3.2.3.2 Food at the destination**

Unlike other travel activities and attractions, tourism dining is an art form that gratifies all five human senses – visual, tactile, auditory, taste, and olfactory (Kivela & Crotts, 2006:356). All tourists have to eat when they travel and, thus, engage in some form of travel dining. The significance of travel dining in the travel experience is demonstrated not only in its basic function as nourishment, but also in its various forms of benefits that enhance the overall travel experience (Chang *et al.*, 2011:307). Regardless of whether or not gastronomy is the tourist's main attraction, it is evident that it provides a source of enjoyment and opportunities that will have pleasant memories for the tourist (Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:230). Overall, food at a destination can, therefore, be interpreted as a “peak touristic” experience, instead of merely being a “supporting” experience (Chang *et al.*, 2011:307). Food and beverage consumption has become important as part of the tourist experience, and the importance of food and beverages at the destination as part of the “peak experience” is vital.

Sensory perceptions play a major psychological and physiological role in appraisal and appreciation of food, as with other experiences at a destination (Kivela & Crotts, 2006:355). Sensory factors lead to food choice (Kim *et al.*, 2009:427), and experience

of local food and beverages is satisfied through smell, taste, and visual image (Mak *et al.*, 2012:929). Although sensory attributes are important, initial research into food choice did not take into consideration the psychological concepts of food choice. Initially, the “sterile taste booth” method was applied to develop a description of sensory product properties (Köster, 2009:71). In the past two decades of research into food, choice has been extended from sensory to the direction of consumers’ insight and to identifying the influences of physical and social factors, expectation, and meal composition (Köster, 2009:71). It is very important for any destination offering food to realise that although consumers eat the food available to satisfy their physiological need, many other factors are important in determining whether this food has sated their needs. Köster (2009:73) proposes a number of fallacies regarding research into sensory food attributes:

- The fallacy of uniformity, believing that consumers’ behaviour differs in degrees, but not in essence
- The fallacy of consistency, which implies that people do not change
- The fallacy of conscious choice and that consumers are rational and guided by conscious motives
- The perceptual fallacy, where what is perceived will be remembered and that which is not perceived will not be remembered
- The situational fallacy, where the eating and drinking situation can be defined and characterised by objective criteria

Believing that all tourists at parks have the same needs and wants with regard to food or that food preference and choice do not change is a fallacy and results in tourists being dissatisfied with food and beverage operations. Consumers have become more health-conscious, and as such, food choice and preferences have changed. Since South African National Parks does not offer a variety of restaurants and shops, it is important to offer a variety of food products in order to cater to tourists’ needs in terms of meal options. Chang *et al.* (2011:312) suggest that variety and diversity of food would add great value to the travel dining experience. Variety in terms of meal choices, as well as diversity of meals within a trip, is regarded as a necessary component of the dining experience (Chang *et al.*, 2011:312; Quan & Wang, 2004:301). Price also plays an important role in determining the satisfaction of consumers with reference to the food

and beverage operations of a destination. It is important that tourists do not feel as if they are being charged too much for food and beverage products, since they have no other options but to buy from park shops. Satisfaction arises from the perceived attributes of the destination matching expectation, which means that each component of the tourist experience contributes to tourist satisfaction (Quan & Wang, 2004:300). Quan and Wang (2004:300) further state that the degree to which each component contributes is dependent on the types of expectations and tourists' own adaptability to disappointment. Johns and Pine (2002:125) propose that customers assess their satisfaction through sets of attributes and that the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm (EDP) is the principal theory linking customers' attitudes to attributes. Aspects such as service quality, value for money, and quality of products will determine whether tourists are satisfied with the food and beverage operations or not. EDP represents satisfaction as a process of evaluation and suggests that satisfaction is the result of discrepancy between expectations and perceived performance (Chang *et al.*, 2011:309). Satisfaction with the travel dining experience is closely linked to the establishment at which dining takes place. This physical environment forms part of the third factor in food consumption in tourism, which is the destination food service.

### **3.2.3.3 Destination food service**

Expectations of food consumers are formed by consumers' general knowledge and their past experience; perceived performance of the travel dining experience may include the food itself, the ambience of the restaurant, and the encounter with service staff (Chang *et al.*, 2011:309; Kivela & Crofts, 2006:356). Tourists often place considerable emphasis on how they feel at a destination and how they experience what the destination offers. Carefully selecting a special restaurant and food might fulfil a personal desire (Kivela & Crofts, 2006:355). The service level expected is associated with the consumer's perceptions of how developed the destination is (Chang *et al.*, 2011:313). Chang *et al.* (2011:313) suggest that service level can be classified into three separate parts:

- The service encounter, which is a dyadic interaction between the consumer and service provider and is recognised as a critical determinant of consumer satisfaction. For parks, it is important to realise that staff must be skilled and able to provide satisfactory service.

- The pleasure of being served is a theme that occurs throughout the research, regardless of how consumers feel about food preference. For consumers, a good service attitude appears to outweigh food quality in the travel dining experience. Food quality is considered peripheral compared to the service aspect of the dining experience. The SANParks Annual Report 2011/2012 (2012a:26) reported high positive feedback for customer service with regard to restaurants, which implies that consumers find the service acceptable for the perceived development of the destination. It is also the reason that consumers are probably still purchasing from park restaurants, as food choice, quality, and preference become secondary to good service.
- Service speed is another critical criterion for consumers. Consumers become impatient when it takes too long to serve food (Chang *et al.*, 2011:314).

Operating a franchised restaurant would mean that staff currently working in parks could be trained according to the standards of the franchised brand. Franchising has become increasingly important in the restaurant industry, as the brand name conveys information about consistent quality, which is too costly to otherwise obtain (Roh, 2002:44). According to research conducted by Madanoglu, Lee and Castrogiovanni, (2011:414), it was concluded that publicly held restaurant firms performed better if they franchised than if they did not. Given the success and popularity of franchising, it may seem obvious that franchising can help parks achieve more profitability and higher intangible value (Hsu & Jang, 2009:204).

Before discussing franchising, it is important to identify the factors, documented in the literature, that consumers found vital in the travel dining experience. According to Johns and Pine (2002:122), quality, cleanliness, and value are the three most important attributes in fast-food restaurants, while ambience and menu variety are relatively unimportant. It is important to make the distinction between what is essential in a traditional restaurant and what is essential in a franchised restaurant, as they will be different. Similarly, one consumer segment might be attracted by a restaurant's low price, another by food quality, another by service level, and so on. Since it is impossible to please all consumers when there is only one restaurant, it is important to provide variety. According to Gäl *et al.* (2008:38), factors such as restaurant type, food type,



atmosphere, and other restaurant facilities are significant. According to Kim *et al.* (2009:428), key elements with regard to physical environment include cleanliness of local restaurants or restaurants with a traditional appearance. A comfortable atmosphere and the service environment hold a central role in shaping the nature of consumers' behaviour, their reactions to places, and their social interactions (Kim *et al.*, 2009:428). Many of these factors depend on the tourism resources at the destination, which, in the case of SANParks, limit the provider in terms of what can be offered. The question, therefore, would be whether to concession restaurants to franchised outlets or to remain with traditional restaurants. SANParks has concessioned out traditional restaurants since the inception of the commercialisation strategy, and the feedback to date has been unsatisfactory (SANParks, 2012a:34); it is perhaps time to introduce a franchised restaurant brand.

Franchising can be described as a pooling of capabilities and resources (Swart, 2007:51). Companies usually consider franchising when they are not capable of expanding as they wish or when they want to add value to the organisation. In terms of standardisation, it does not necessarily mean that the consumer will acquire outstanding quality products, but rather that the variability of the expected quality of the product and service is reduced (Roh, 2002:48). This is particularly true for SANParks, as staff would remain the same whether or not a restaurant was franchised; the difference would be that staff would be properly trained, and physical products, which include the food, would be standardised to franchise-level expectations. Most restaurants become franchised when they are unable to effectively monitor managers (Hsu & Jang, 2009:205). There are various options in terms of the types of franchise agreements entered into, which include the following:

- Product and trade name franchising occurs when the franchisee receives the benefit of using the brand name of the franchisor (Longenecker, Moore, Palich & Petty, 2006:78; Swart, 2007:52).
- Business format franchising, which occurs most frequently in fast-food restaurants, where the franchisee receives the marketing and management system (Longenecker *et al.*, 2006:79; Swart, 2007:52).
- A master licence, which involves the sale of an intangible asset (for example, a trademark, design, or formula) from one firm to another. The licensee buys the right

to use an asset for a specific period, usually in a specific market (Longenecker *et al.*, 2006:78; Preble, Reichel & Hoffman, 2000:329; Swart, 2007:52).

- Multiple-unit ownership occurs when a franchisee owns more than one franchise from the same company (Longenecker *et al.*, 2006:78; Swart, 2007:52).
- Area developers, where individuals or firms obtain the legal right to open several outlets in a given area (Longenecker *et al.*, 2006:78; Swart, 2007:52).
- Piggyback franchising is the operation of a franchise within the physical facilities of a host store (Longenecker *et al.*, 2006:78; Swart, 2007:52).

Other options for SANParks could include cooperative business arrangements, which consist of licensing, research and development partnerships, technology transfers, franchising, joint ventures, and other strategic business transactions (Preble *et al.*, 2000:328). Alliances offer a number of direct benefits, which include gaining quick access to new markets, technology knowledge, and customers, circumventing regulatory barriers, absorbing a key local competitor, and lowering risk by sharing costs and benefits (Preble *et al.*, 2000:329). SANParks needs to decide which business arrangement best suits its environment for the improvement of food and beverage operations. There are, however, a number of benefits to franchising that should be taken into account when making a decision. These benefits include the following (Hsu & Jang, 2009:205; Longenecker *et al.*, 2006:73; Murphy, 2006:187; Swart, 2007:53):

- The overall advantage is the probability of success; the franchisor's successful and existing business is utilised. For SANParks, this would mean that the chances of success are guaranteed. There is a captive tourist market within the parks, and the franchise is already established and in existence.
- There is less risk than with starting a new business. Since SANParks already has restaurant concessionaires, the risk of failure is lessened compared to a new business. Once again, there is a captive tourist market to guarantee success, so the risk is, again, minimised.
- The franchisee receives training and support from the franchisor. This is vital for SANParks, as staff training will be conducted by food and beverage franchised trainers.
- The potential franchisee can choose from any number of franchises, depending on the need. This is very important, and SANParks will need to conduct thorough

research into the best fit franchise for its tourist market. As previously stated, health and nutrition are becoming necessary requirements for most consumers in terms of food and beverages. This must be taken into account when selecting a franchise, although it has become a requirement for all franchises to disclose the nutritional value of all food and beverage products by means of food labelling (Rodgers, 2011:478).

- Clients are familiar with the products. There are no surprises when it comes to the products on offer through a franchise. Most consumers are aware of what franchises offer in terms of quality, variety, service, freshness of products, and so on.
- Managerial advice is available from the franchisor. SANParks would benefit from the advice and expertise offered by a franchisor and, as a result, manager monitoring costs.
- The franchisor has a permanent and direct interest in the success of the business. Managers who are owner-managers are less likely to shirk responsibility (Hsu & Jang, 2009:205).
- Day-to-day management activities are taken care of, which would allow SANParks to concentrate on the primary pillar of conservation.
- Franchises can enjoy the benefit of bulk buying, which would decrease the price of offerings and allow tourists to benefit.

These are a few of the advantages from which SANParks could benefit should it decide to concession or operate a franchise. There are, however, a few disadvantages that would apply to SANParks (Hsu & Jang, 2009:205; Longenecker *et al.*, 2006:73; Murphy, 2006:187; Swart, 2007:53):

- Restrictions on business operations. There are two aspects, namely, restricting the types of products and services on sale and the operating hours of the franchise. SANParks must decide on the appropriate type of franchise that will offer the variety of meals required by tourist food consumers.
- Loss of independence. This will not affect SANParks, as most restaurants are operated by concessionaires.
- Returns as a franchisee are lower than if one had to operate the business alone. This does not affect SANParks, as it receives a concessionaire fee. SANParks

might not have the expertise or capability to operate the food and beverage operations, hence the need for concessionaires.

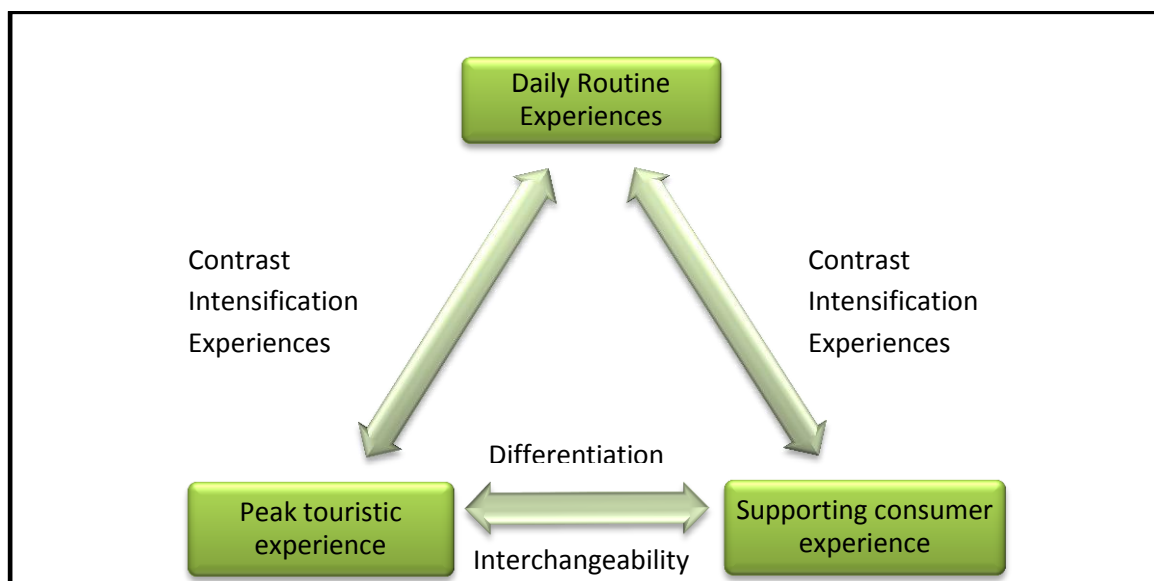
Since SANParks already concessions out some of its restaurants, entering into a franchise agreement would pose fewer disadvantages. Reviewing the current restaurant and shop facilities within SANParks, it is evident that tourists are unhappy with various aspects of the operations, which need to be remedied (SANParks, 2012a:34). Food and beverages at a destination have been shown to have a considerable influence on how tourists experience a destination and, as such, can become a force for revival of tourism at destinations (Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:242). Feelings and memories made when wining and dining on holiday are very special and attractive because these become transposed into experiences that are often very personal (Kivela & Crotts, 2006:356). It is important to note that these experiences have the power to change the eating and drinking preferences and tastes of consumers. Food is a basic and crucial element of the tourist product, and tourist choices are not only determined by a trivial need to feed oneself, but also by the desire to eat interesting products in suitable environments (Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000:281). The importance of food has been discussed; the contribution of food to a destination is evident. Tourists are unhappy with the food and beverage operations within SANParks; it is, therefore, imperative for SANParks to change and/or adapt the food service operations within parks.

### **3.3 FOOD SERVICE MODELS**

A review of the current literature indicated models related to tourist food service at a destination; however, no concessionaire food and beverage models could be found. Food is regarded as a basic necessity for tourist consumption; moreover, it is important to recognise that food consumption is not only a means of generating much-needed revenue for a destination, but is also an important part of the tourist experience (Quan & Wang, 2004:299). Three models related to tourist food consumption will be examined and discussed.

### 3.3.1 Conceptual model of the tourist experience according to Quan and Wang (2004)

In terms of a destination or tourism industry perspective, tourists are consumers, and the marketing and economic implications lie in tourist consumption and spending (Quan & Wang, 2004:297). As such, most of the marketing/management literature examines the tourist experience in terms of consumer experiences. Components that constitute the tourist experience remain unclear (Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:229). According to Quan and Wang (2004:298), there are inconsistencies between social science and marketing management approaches to tourist experiences. Marketing and management treat the tourist experience as a consumption one, whereas social science regards the tourist experience as a peak experience. Food study in the social sciences has been neglected, and studies related to tourist experience lack sufficient consideration of the consumption of food. Quan and Wang (2004:300) developed their model based on the supporting consumer experience and peak tourist experience. Overall, travel dining can be interpreted as a “peak experience”, instead of just a “supporting experience” (Chang *et al.*, 2011:308; Quan & Wang, 2004:300). The total tourist experience might be ruined if the supporting experience is dissatisfactory; therefore, the total quality of the tourist experience relies on shared support and corroboration of these dimensions. Figure 3.5 depicts the model proposed by Quan and Wang (2004:300).



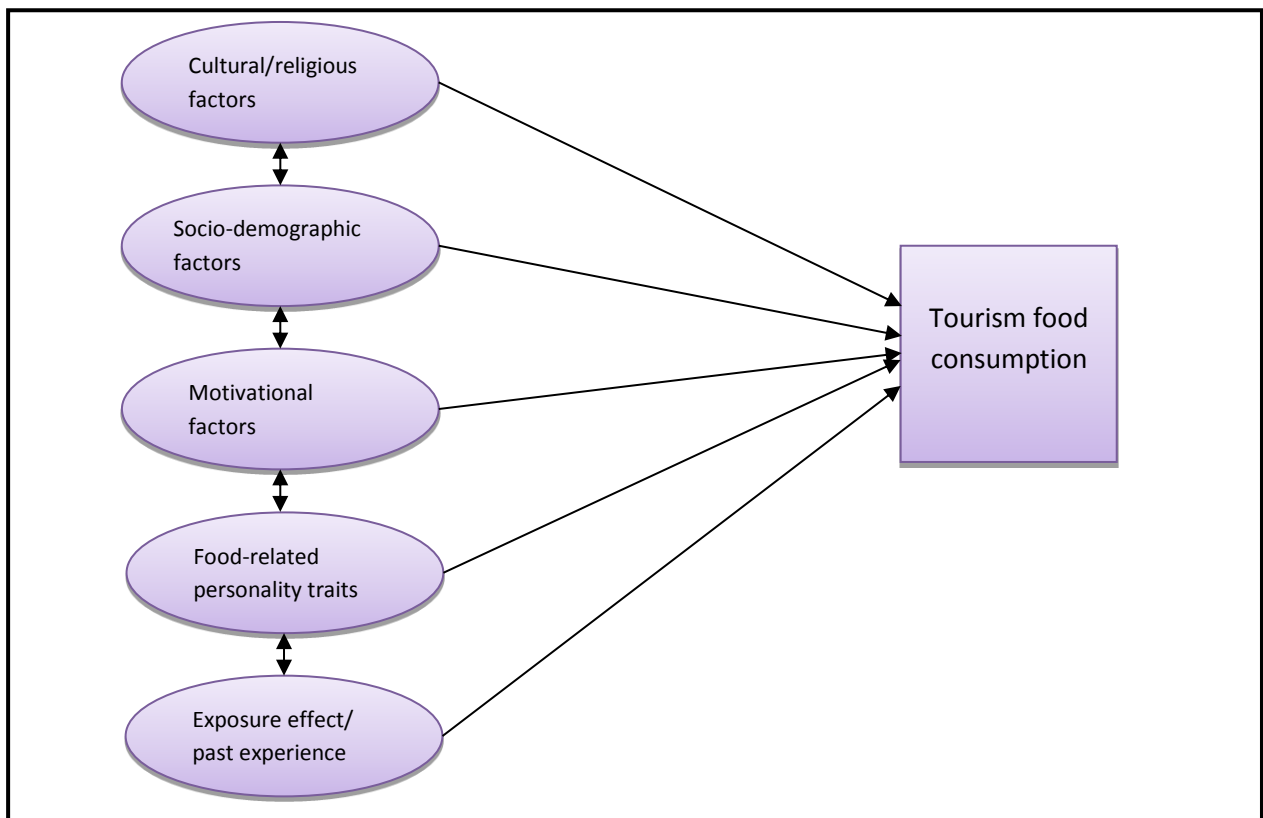
**Figure 3.5: The conceptual model of the tourist experience**

**Source: Adapted from Quan and Wang (2004:300)**

This model serves to confirm that peak and supporting experiences have an effect on the total tourist experience. It is important to note that peak and supporting consumer experiences are interchangeable, and the importance of food consumption for one tourist might not be the same for another tourist. Regardless of whether food consumption is classified as a peak or supporting experience, dissatisfaction with food service will affect the entire tourist experience and, as such, must be considered an important aspect of tourist consumption. According to Quan and Wang (2004:302), it is vital that tourism destinations, such as SANParks, understand that food consumption plays a role in shaping the total tourist experience. This model does not however take factors affecting food consumption into account.

### **3.3.2 Food consumption model according to Mak *et al.* (2012)**

According to research conducted by Mak *et al.* (2012), there are five factors influencing tourist food consumption. These five factors are cultural and religious factors, socio-demographic factors, motivational factors, food-related personality types, and exposure or past experience. Mak *et al.* (2012:934) postulate that these factors may be interrelated and, as such, have an effect on one another. Figure 3.6 illustrates the food consumption model by Mak *et al.* (2012:934).



**Figure 3.6: Factors influencing tourist food consumption**

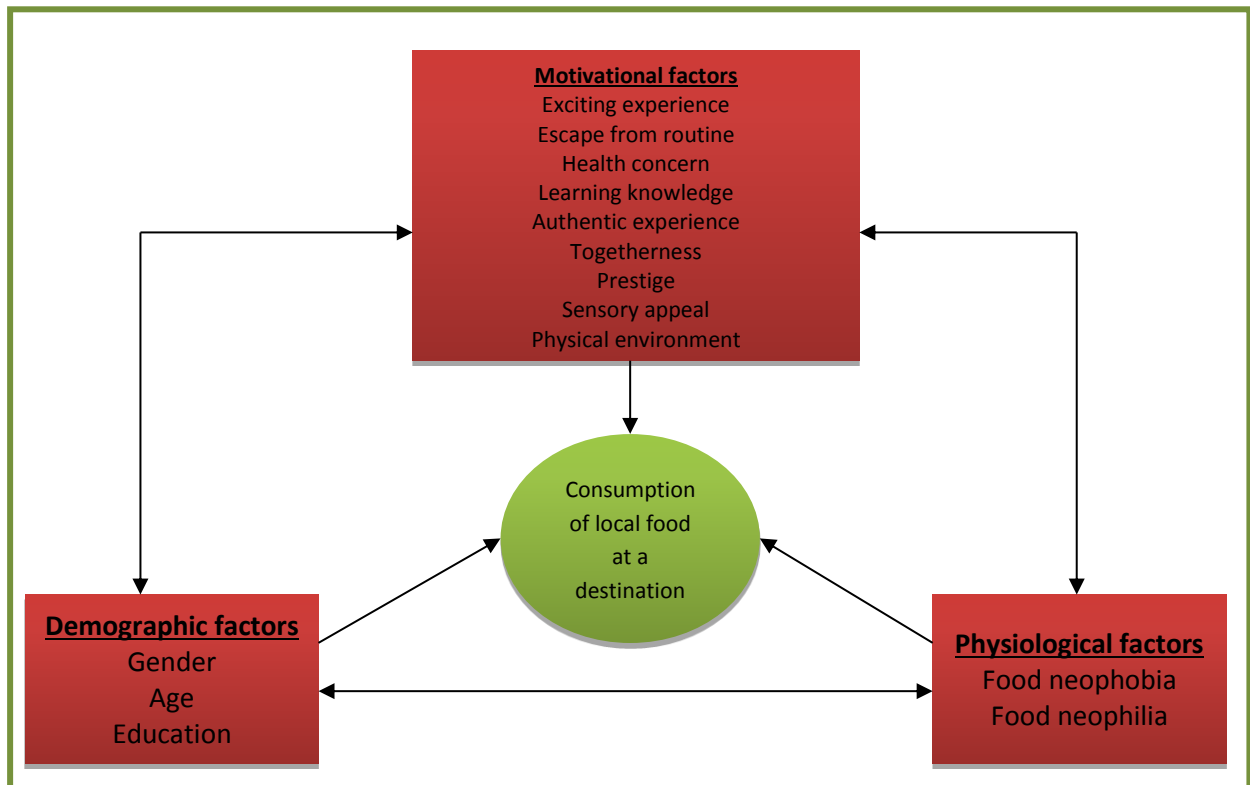
**Source: Mak et al. (2012:934)**

According to Mak *et al.* (2012:934), the model provides a framework for further investigation into factors related to tourist food consumption. Aspects that have not been taken into account are variety, price, and quality of food at the destination, type of dining facility, and group and individual factors. The model for this study aims to identify the effect of factors on food and beverage operations, taking into account factors identified by Mak *et al.*

### **3.3.3 Model of local food consumption at a destination proposed by Kim *et al.* (2009)**

According to Kim *et al.* (2009:429), the proposed model of food consumption at a holiday destination identifies three major categories, namely, motivational factors, demographic factors, and physiological factors. Motivational factors include nine motivations found in the qualitative study, while demographics affecting food choice are gender, age, and education, and physiological factors are related to food personality

traits. Figure 3.7 demonstrates the proposed model of local food consumption at a holiday destination (Kim *et al.*, 2009:429).



**Figure 3.7: The proposed model of local food consumption at a holiday destination**

**Source: Kim *et al.* (2009:429)**

The proposed model accounts for various motivational factors in terms of consumption, including escape from routine, which indicates variety, as well as the physical environment, which addresses the cleanliness of restaurants or appearance of restaurants. This model does not consider the type of dining facility, satisfaction of food consumption, service encounter, income of tourists, age of tourists, marital status of tourists, or life stage of tourists.

### 3.4 CONCLUSION

Tourist food consumption is a crucial form of tourist consumption, and as such, the importance of food and beverage operations cannot be ignored. Understanding tourists' consumptive behaviour with regard to food and beverages can significantly influence the revenue earned at a destination. SANParks does not offer a variety of food and beverage operations, and it is, therefore, essential that the offerings available cater to



tourists' requirements. Various factors affecting tourists' food and beverage consumption at a destination have been identified. These factors have been discussed, and other factors have been identified for the purpose of this study. It is evident from this chapter that aspects such as price, quality of food, and product and service quality play an important role in food choices that tourists make. These aspects will be tested in the empirical review. The options for SANParks in terms of franchised operations have been highlighted and explained. The different food consumption models, identified in the literature, have been illustrated and the various aspects of each model discussed. Shortcomings of these models, in terms of aspects not considered for food and beverage operations, have been acknowledged and will be tested in the empirical study.

# Chapter 4

## ***PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS***

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the preceding chapter, the literature with regard to governance of protected areas and public-private partnerships was discussed. The term “concessionaires”, as a form of PPP, was defined and reviewed. Chapter 2 identified the different aspects related to tourist food choice as well as the models of tourist food consumption currently appearing in the literature. Various factors that are important to this study, but that have not appeared in previous models, were identified for testing as part of the empirical study. The questionnaire for this survey was developed after an informal meeting with SANParks and utilising available literature based on concepts such as satisfaction, variety of food products and menu variety, pricing, value for money and quality of food and restaurants. The questionnaire was posted on the SANParks website and was available to all users from 1 October 2011 until 30 November 2011. The purpose of the questionnaire was to determine the factors that influenced tourist food consumption as well as preference regarding restaurant and shop retail brands. There were 5 464 useable responses for this study.

The purpose of this chapter is, therefore, to describe the research methodology used in the study in order to address the qualitative and quantitative research measurements used, followed by a description of the research design, data collection method, and data analysis process. Statistical analyses include graphs, tables, factor analyses, Spearman correlation, ANOVA and t-tests, and, finally, structural equation modelling.

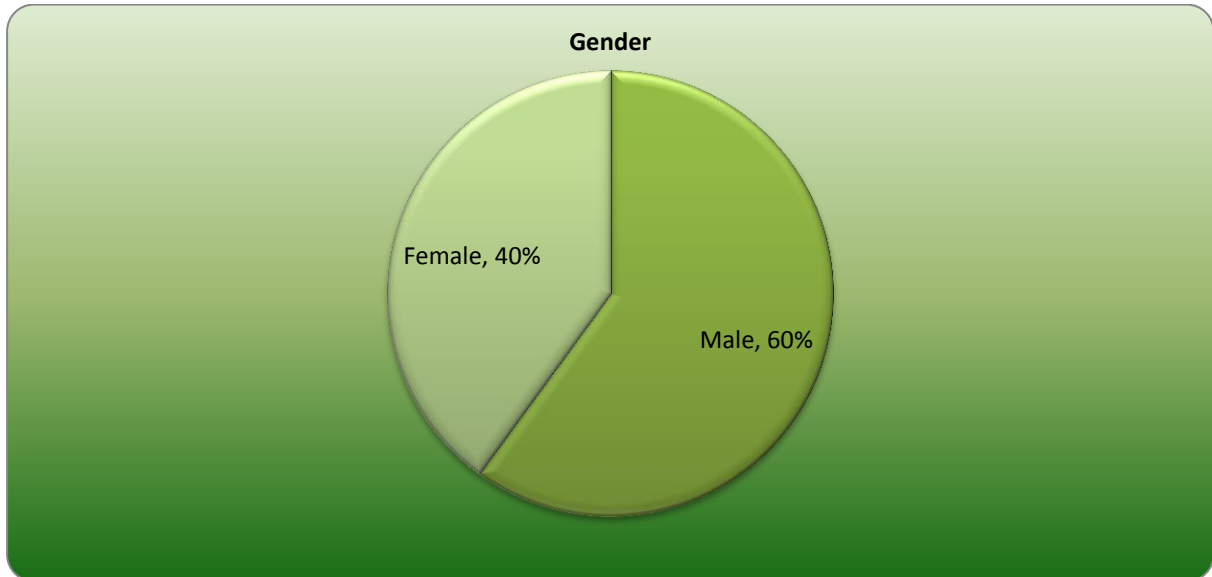
### **4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS**

This section presents the demographic profile of tourists visiting SANParks as well as consumer choices and factor analyses for both restaurant and shop operations.

#### 4.2.1 Demographic profile

In presenting the demographic profile of respondents, all percentages have been rounded to the nearest 1%.

##### 4.2.1.1 Gender



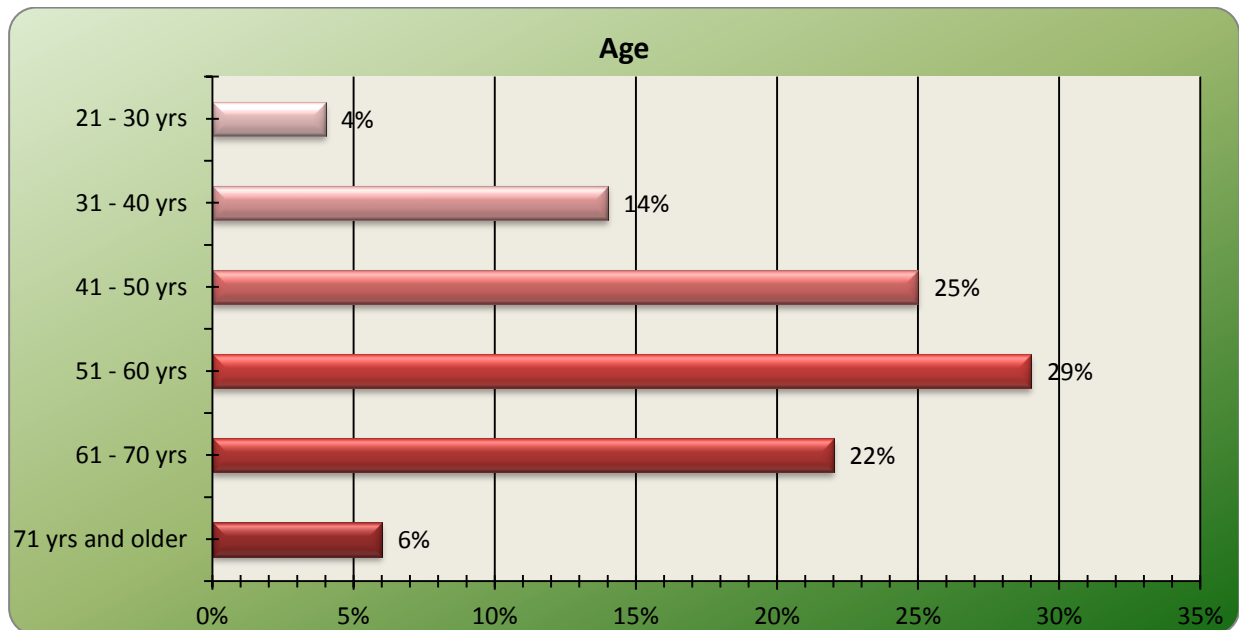
**Figure 4.1: Gender**

From Figure 4.1, it can be seen that there were more male (60%) respondents than female respondents (40%). This indicates that male respondents appear to be more concerned with the food and beverage operations of nature-based products, and as such, results are focused more on what males find important.

##### 4.2.1.2 Age

Figure 4.2 shows that the majority of respondents were between 51 and 60 years old (29%). This age group represents either the “launching young adult children” life-cycle stage or the “aging as a later-life family” life-cycle stage. These respondents have the time to dine out in upmarket restaurants (George, 2008:175; Corey, 2009:424) and require quality food and products and, as such, can evaluate food and beverage operations more critically. Respondents aged 41 to 50 years (25%) and 61 to 70 years (22%) were the second and third largest age groups, respectively. It is important to note that approximately 76% of respondents were between the ages of 41 and 70; this is reflective of previous studies conducted on tourist profiles of visitors to

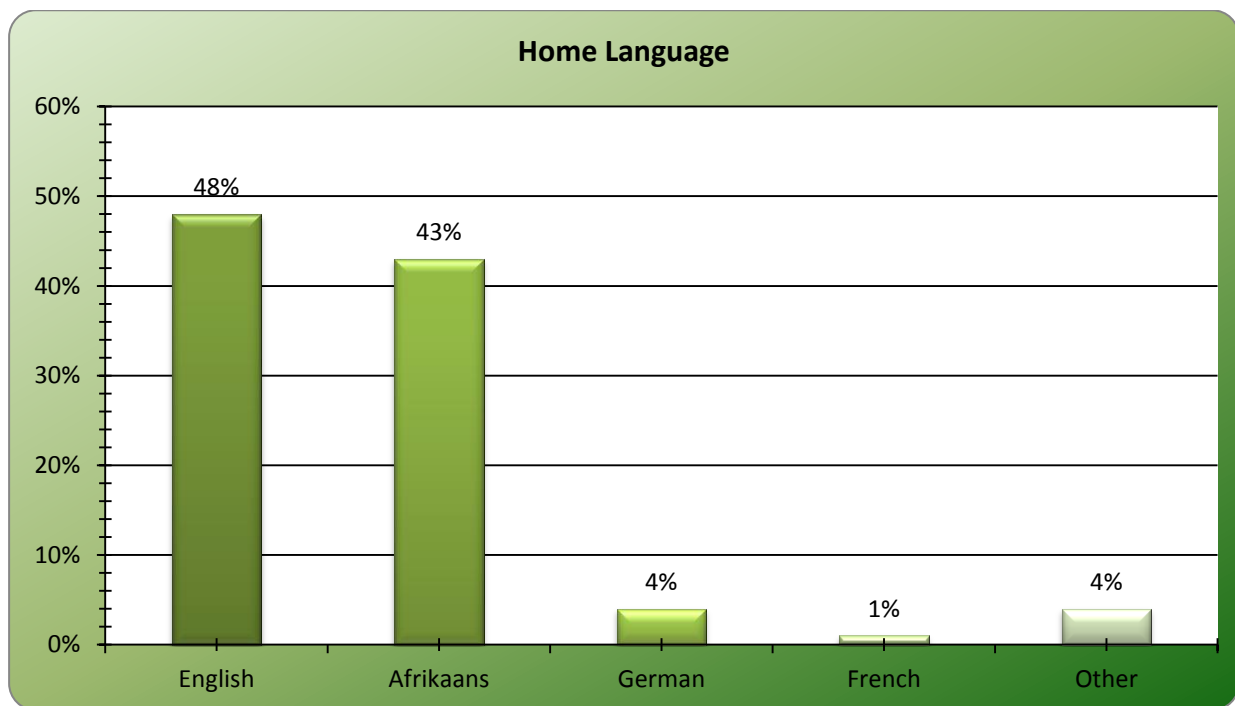
SANParks (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2011:9; Slabbert & Van Loggerenberg, 2012:8). Younger respondents aged between 31 and 40 years accounted for 14% of the sample, and 6% of respondents were 71 years or older. Only 4% of respondents were between the ages of 21 and 30 years. There was, thus, a good spread in the age of respondents.



**Figure 4.2: Age of respondents**

#### **4.2.1.3 Home language**

Figure 4.3 illustrates the home language of respondents. The majority of respondents who took part in the survey were either English speaking (48%) or Afrikaans speaking (43%). It is important to note that foreign tourists from the United Kingdom (UK), the United States of America (USA), Australia, and Canada spoke English as a home language and, as such, formed part of the English respondents. Previous studies conducted by Slabbert and Van Loggerenberg (2012:7) and Du Plessis *et al.* (2011:6) indicated similar results, with English and Afrikaans respondents as the majority for nature-based product studies in South Africa.

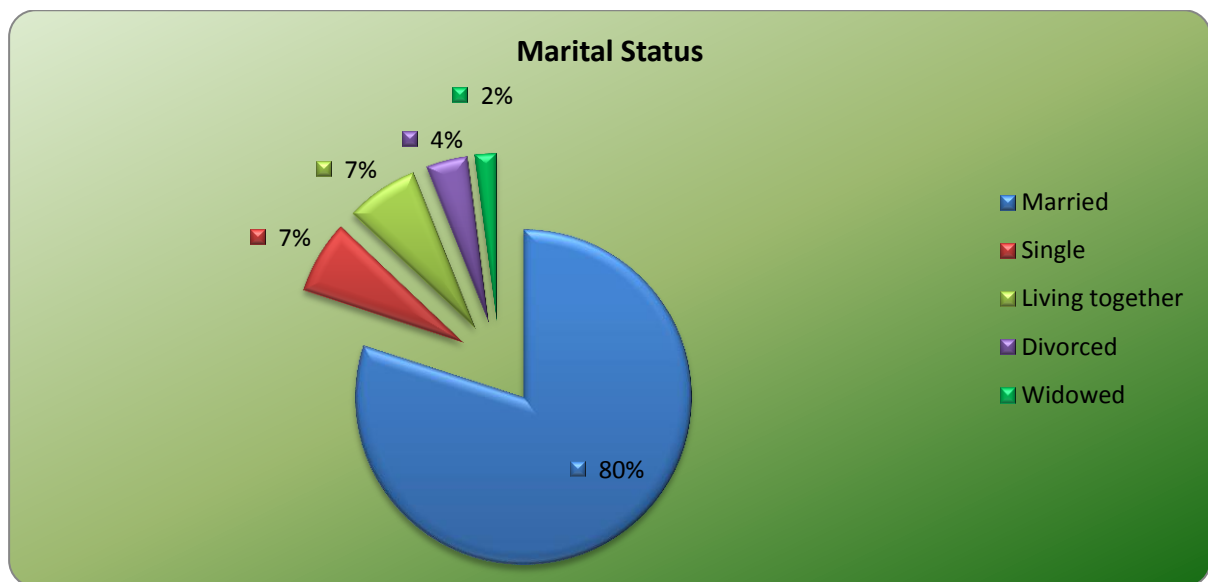


**Figure 4.3: Home language**

This result suggests that the majority of respondents were South African citizens, many of whom preferred to purchase provisions from outside the park. Only 4% of respondents spoke German or other languages, and only 1% of respondents spoke French. Foreign respondents were the tourists who used the current food and beverage operations most frequently and made use of the catering and accommodation options at parks. The results will show a marked difference between the responses of local residents and foreign tourists.

#### **4.2.1.4 Marital status**

Figure 4.4 indicates that the majority of respondents were married (80%), while 7% were single or living together, respectively. This indicates that parks are attractive to families and that responses would be based on what was required for the family unit. Only 4% of respondents were divorced, while 2% of respondents were widowed.



**Figure 4.4: Marital status**

#### **4.2.1.5 Province of residence**

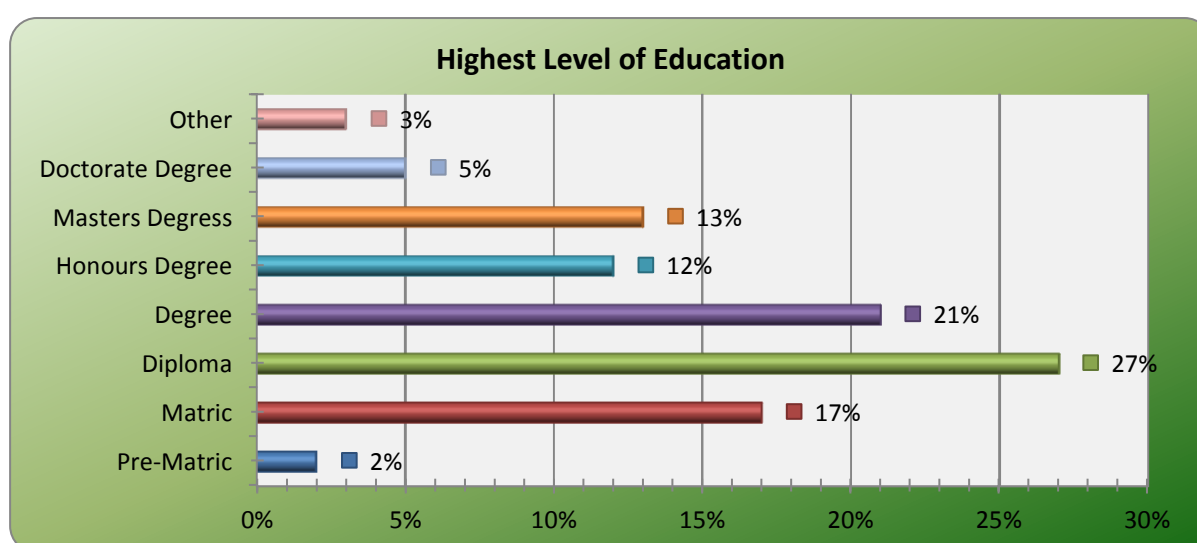
From Table 4.1 below, it can be seen that the majority of respondents lived in Gauteng (42%), with the second highest number of respondents (18%) coming from the Western Cape. This corresponds to previous research conducted at the national parks (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2011:11; Slabbert & Van Loggerenberg, 2012:10). Respondents originating from Gauteng were exposed to a wide variety of restaurant and shop operations and, as such, expected variety and quality. Foreign nationals made up 12% of the respondents and came from Australia, the Netherlands, Germany, the UK, the USA, Canada, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, France, Belgium, Mexico, Israel, and Brazil. The difference between the 12% foreign nationals in this section and the approximation of 9% foreign nationals in the home language section is as a result of Australian, US, Canadian, and UK tourists all speaking English as a home language. The other seven provinces in South Africa were represented by 5% from the Eastern Cape, 2% from the North West, 7% from Mpumalanga, 1% from the Northern Cape, 5% from KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo, respectively, and 3% from the Free State.

**Table 4.1: Province of residence**

| PROVINCE                       | PERCENTAGE |
|--------------------------------|------------|
| Gauteng                        | 42%        |
| Western Cape                   | 18%        |
| Eastern Cape                   | 5%         |
| North West                     | 2%         |
| Mpumalanga                     | 7%         |
| Northern Cape                  | 1%         |
| KwaZulu-Natal                  | 5%         |
| Limpopo                        | 5%         |
| Free State                     | 3%         |
| Outside South Africa's borders | 12%        |

#### 4.2.1.6 Highest level of education

From Figure 4.5, it can be seen that the majority of respondents (78%) were well educated, with tertiary qualifications, namely, 5% with doctorates, 13% with master's degrees, 12% with honours degrees, 21% with degrees, and 27% with diplomas. Seventeen per cent (17%) of respondents had qualified with a matric, while 2% had pre-matric qualifications and 3% had other forms of qualifications. It is important to note that Mak *et al.* (2012) and Kim *et al.* (2009) found education to be a key factor in influencing food consumption. Mak *et al.* (2012:932) indicate that a higher education level might indicate a high social-status occupation and, as a result, have an influence on the types and quantity of foods eaten.



**Figure 4.5: Highest level of education**

#### 4.2.1.7 Gross annual income

Table 4.2 indicates that the majority of respondents (22%) did not want to disclose their annual income; this was followed by 21% of respondents who earned more than R552 001 per annum. This result directly relates to the high level of education of respondents. A high income is, once again, indicative of the type of food choices made by tourists and their satisfaction with quality of food and service and will, therefore, affect satisfaction levels with current food and beverage operations. Twelve per cent (12%) of respondents earned between R140 001 and R221 000, R221 001 and R305 000, and R305 001 and R431 000 per annum. Eleven per cent (11%) of respondents earned between R20 001 and R140 000, while 7% earned between R431 001 and R552 000, and 3% of respondents earned less than R20 000.

**Table 4.2: Gross annual income**

| GROSS ANNUAL INCOME                           | PERCENTAGE |
|-----------------------------------------------|------------|
| Less than R20 000                             | 3%         |
| R20 001-R140 000                              | 11%        |
| R140 001-R221 000                             | 12%        |
| R221 001-R305 000                             | 12%        |
| R305 001-R431 000                             | 12%        |
| R431 001-R552 000                             | 7%         |
| <b>More than R552 001</b>                     | <b>21%</b> |
| <b>I would not like to disclose my income</b> | <b>22%</b> |

#### 4.2.2 Consumer choices

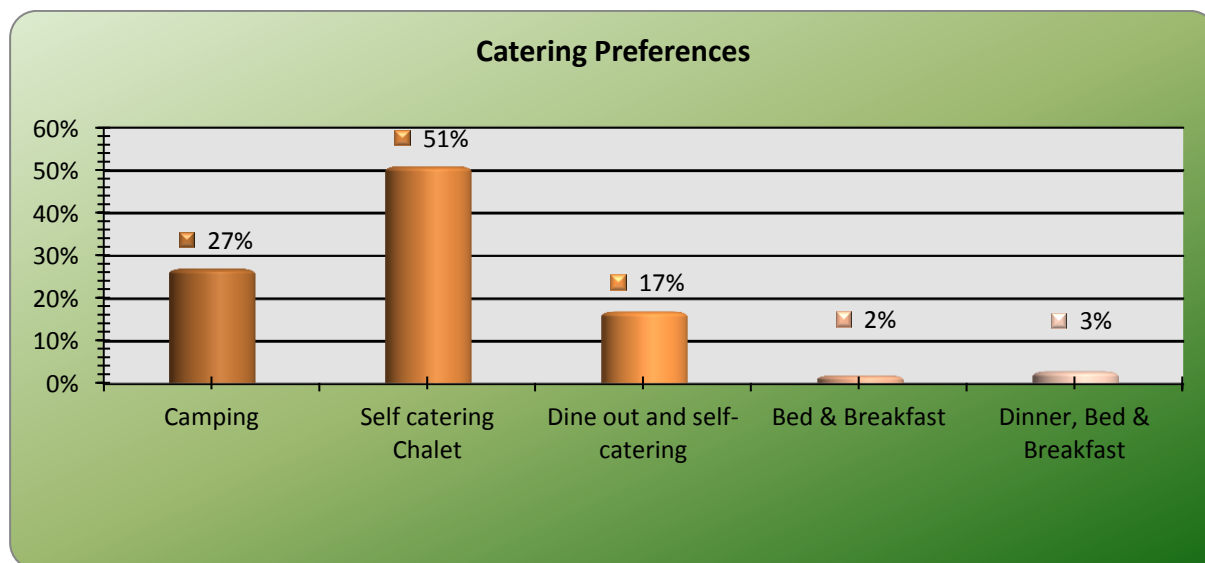
This section of the results gives an indication of the consumer choices made by tourists regarding accommodation, catering, and the SANParks loyalty programme.

##### 4.2.2.1 Catering preferences

Figure 4.6 indicates that the majority of respondents (51%) preferred self-catering chalet accommodation. A possible reason for this trend is the fact that these tourists can purchase their food items at shops outside the park and cater to their specific preferences. Twenty-seven per cent (27%) of respondents camped, while 17% chose to dine out and cater for themselves. Only 2% of respondents chose the bed and breakfast option, while 3% opted for the dinner, bed, and breakfast option. Only 5% of respondents chose to make use of the catering facilities at parks. It is important for SANParks to understand what can be done to convert non-users to users, as these



preferences will influence tourists' opinions of restaurants and shop operations in the parks.



**Figure 4.6: Catering preferences of tourists at parks**

#### 4.2.2.2 Purchasing provisions

Table 4.3 indicates that the majority of respondents purchased some items in the park at park shops (42%). This indicates that respondents were not making full use of park retail facilities and were only using these facilities for convenience items. Respondents who shopped from supermarkets at home made up 33%. Fifteen per cent (15%) purchased products from supermarkets en route to the park or in the towns nearest to the park (6%). It was only 4% of respondents who purchased all items from park shops. This corresponds to the catering preferences of respondents, since only 5% indicated that they made use of the bed and breakfast option or dinner, bed, and breakfast option. Table 4.3 clearly indicates that tourists are choosing to rather purchase products outside the park, and it is important for SANParks to establish the reasons for these choices.

**Table 4.3: Purchasing provisions**

| PURCHASING OF PROVISIONS                    | PERCENTAGE |
|---------------------------------------------|------------|
| <b>Supermarkets at home</b>                 | <b>33%</b> |
| Supermarkets en route to the park           | 15%        |
| <b>Some items in the park at park shops</b> | <b>42%</b> |
| Some items in towns next to the park        | 6%         |
| All items bought in the park                | 4%         |

#### **4.2.2.3 Use of park restaurants**

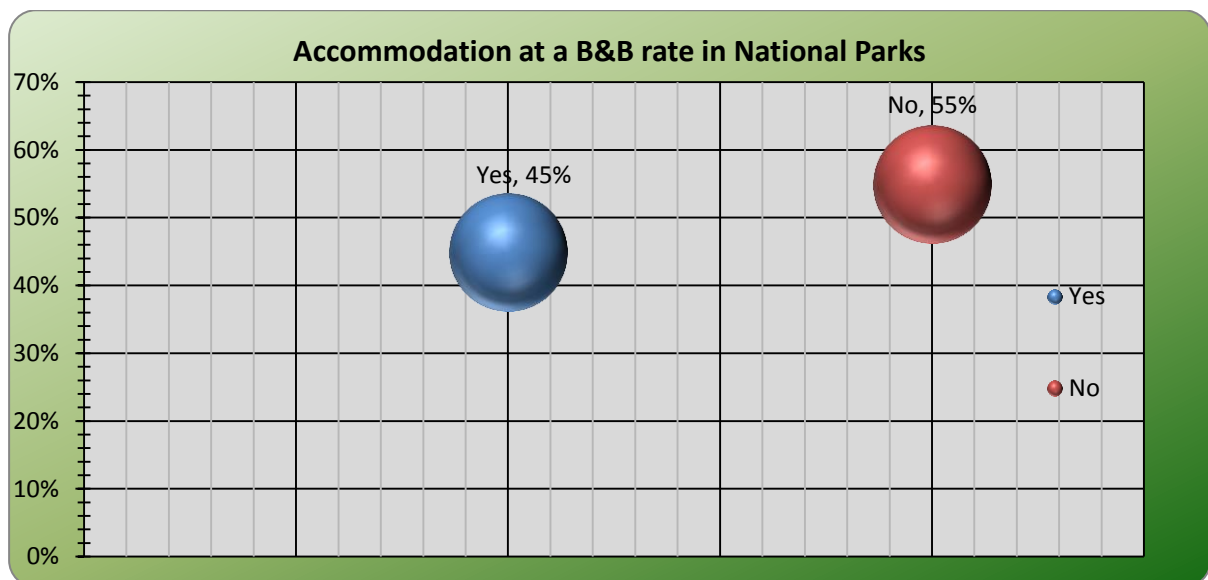
Table 4.4 indicates that the majority of respondents visited restaurants at least once during their stay (43%) or on more than one occasion during their visit (34%). Only 9% of respondents used the takeaway section only and not the restaurant, and 13% of respondents did not use the restaurants at all. This indicates that 87% of respondents made use of restaurant and takeaway facilities at some stage during their stay. There could be a number of reasons for tourists not frequenting the restaurants and takeaway facilities at SANParks, namely, lack of variety of dining options, price, limited product options and menu variety, etc.

**Table 4.4: Use of park restaurants**

| USE OF PARK RESTAURANTS                                | PERCENTAGE |
|--------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| Not at all                                             | 13%        |
| <b>At least once per visit</b>                         | <b>43%</b> |
| <b>On more than one occasion during my visit</b>       | <b>34%</b> |
| I only use the takeaway section and not the restaurant | 9%         |

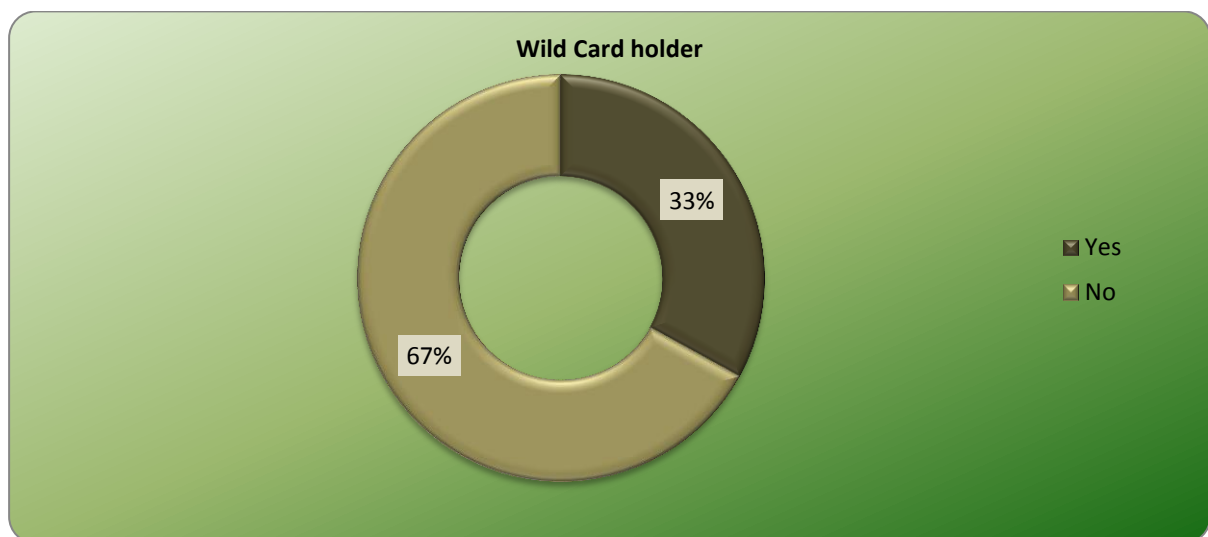
#### **4.2.2.4 B&B accommodation in national parks**

Respondents were asked whether they would make use of bed and breakfast accommodation at national parks if the restaurants provided a quality breakfast option. Figure 4.7 indicates that the majority of respondents (55%) specified that they would not make use of bed and breakfast facilities at the park, while only 45% would make use of this option. At present, only 2% of respondents made use of the bed and breakfast option, as indicated in Figure 4.6. Should SANParks improve the quality of the breakfast option at restaurants, this figure would increase by 43%.



**Figure 4.7: Accommodation at a B&B rate in national parks**

#### 4.2.2.5 Wild Card holder



**Figure 4.8: Wild Card holders**

As can be seen from Figure 4.8, the majority of respondents (67%) were not Wild Card holders, while 33% had Wild Cards. The Wild Card is a membership programme offered by SANParks that gives unlimited access to most of Southern Africa's premier conservation areas (SANParks, 2012d). It is interesting to note that the majority of respondents did not see the benefit of purchasing a Wild Card. Respondents who were Wild Card holders and probably return visitors to the parks, therefore, frequently used the food and beverage operations within parks. Previous reports compiled by Slabbert and Van Loggerenberg (2012:22) and Du Plessis *et al.* (2011:17) found that more respondents had Wild Cards than not (73% and 78%, respectively). These

reports were compiled using questionnaires completed by visitors in the Kruger National Park over a certain period. The reason for the difference between this study and the previous reports is that the questionnaire completed for the purpose of this study was completed on the SANParks website, which could include respondents who had visited other parks. This study did not specify a certain park and, as a result, could have included visitors from all national parks.

#### **4.2.3 Factor analysis**

This section focuses on exploring the perceived importance of factors related to restaurant and shop operations in SANParks.

##### **4.2.3.1 Restaurant and shop factors**

To examine the factors influencing dining at park restaurants, a principal axis factor analysis with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was undertaken. The seven restaurant aspects yielded two factors, namely, “Satisfaction” and “Variety”, all with eigenvalues greater than 1.0; these factors explained 58% of the variance. All had factor loadings over 0.4, and the sample size was 5 265. Reliability (Cronbach’s  $\alpha$ ) was computed to verify the internal consistency of aspects with each factor. Both factors with a Cronbach alpha were 0.701 and were deemed acceptable for the purpose of this study. Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ( $p < 0.001$ ), and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) was 0.777, which was acceptable.

“Satisfaction” included factors such as service efficiency and quality of meals. Factor 2, “Variety”, included factors such as different pricing options, product options, value for money, pricing affordability, and menu variety. “Satisfaction” yielded a significantly higher mean than “Variety”, which indicates that satisfaction with park restaurants is more important than variety of offerings. Satisfaction affects the travel dining experience and the food itself (Chang *et al.*, 2011:309) and is, therefore, an important factor to consider when determining food and beverage operations. Kivela and Crotts (2006:372) state that when tourists’ expectations are met and/or exceeded, they are likely to return to the destination. Variety and diversity of food are important factors to consider when determining attributes that affect the evaluation of the travel dining experience (Chang *et al.*, 2011:311). Therefore, the satisfaction of tourists with regard to the food and beverage operations was affected by various factors, one of which is

variety. This has a direct influence on standards, service delivery, staff training, etc. The component correlation matrix indicates a correlation of -0.419 between the two factors (see Table 4.5 below).

**Table 4.5: Results of the factor analysis for restaurant operations**

| Restaurant factors and component aspects                              | Factor loadings   |                   |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
|                                                                       | Satisfaction      | Variety           |
| <i>Satisfaction</i>                                                   |                   |                   |
| Quality of meals                                                      | -0.830            |                   |
| Service efficiency                                                    | -0.631            |                   |
|                                                                       |                   |                   |
| <i>Variety</i>                                                        |                   |                   |
| Menu variety                                                          |                   | 0.614             |
| Pricing options (from less expensive to more expensive at restaurant) |                   | 0.591             |
| Product options                                                       |                   | 0.519             |
| Value for money                                                       |                   | 0.428             |
| Pricing (differently priced restaurants)                              |                   | 0.414             |
|                                                                       |                   |                   |
| Eigenvalue                                                            | 1.130             | 2.951             |
| Cronbach's $\alpha$ reliability coefficient                           | 0.701             | 0.693             |
| Inter-item correlations                                               | 0.540             | 0.329             |
| Mean value (standard deviation)                                       | 1.38 ( $\pm$ .53) | 2.19 ( $\pm$ .62) |

One of the aspects of restaurants, namely, “to experience nature while dining”, was taken out of the factor analysis due to poor correlation with other aspects and will be treated as a separate item. The mean for this item was 1.81 ( $\pm$ .95).

**Table 4.6: Component correlation matrix for restaurant factors**

| Correlation matrix  | Satisfaction | Variety |
|---------------------|--------------|---------|
| <b>Satisfaction</b> | 1.000        | -.419   |
| <b>Variety</b>      | -.419        | 1.000   |

Table 4.6 indicates a medium correlation between “Satisfaction” and “Variety”, which supports the individuality of each factor.

#### 4.2.3.2 Shop factors (including the food and beverage component)

Table 4.7 reveals a similar principal axis factor analysis for the 10 shop aspects, resulting in three factors that had eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The factors accounted for 50% of the variance and were labelled “Retail Benefits”, “Retail Pricing”, and “Retail Experience”. The reliability alphas for the three factors were above 0.45. Factor 1, “Retail Benefits” constituted the focus on fast-moving consumer goods, products aimed at a variety of markets, separate curio sales, and discounts for Wild Card holders. The second factor, “Retail Pricing”, included that shops were too expensive and preference for using park shops as opposed to exiting the park. Mak *et al.* (2012:929) indicate that price is one of the factors that affect food preference. Maubach *et al.* (2009:298) indicate that the most salient factor influencing the purchase of food products is price. The third factor, “Retail Experience”, comprised purchasing provisions outside of parks as part of the holiday experience, that retail brands would enhance the experience that no major changes were required, and that shops had to focus on freshness of products. The mean value for “Retail Pricing” was slightly higher than “Retail Benefits” and “Retail Experience”, which indicates that pricing was more important to park visitors.

**Table 4.7: Results of the factor analysis for shop operations**

| Shop factors and component aspects                                             | Factor loadings   |                |                   |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|
|                                                                                | Retail Benefits   | Retail Pricing | Retail Experience |
| <b>Retail Benefits</b>                                                         |                   |                |                   |
| Shops to focus on fast-moving goods                                            | 0.654             |                |                   |
| Shops should aim at a variety of markets                                       | 0.635             |                |                   |
| Curios should be sold separately                                               | 0.607             |                |                   |
| Wild Card holders should get discounts                                         | 0.591             |                |                   |
|                                                                                |                   |                |                   |
| <b>Retail Pricing</b>                                                          |                   |                |                   |
| Rather pay more at shops in park than exit during holiday                      |                   | 0.879          |                   |
| Shops are too expensive                                                        |                   | -0.656         |                   |
|                                                                                |                   |                |                   |
| <b>Retail Experience</b>                                                       |                   |                |                   |
| Buying provisions before leaving for holiday is part of the holiday experience |                   |                | 0.864             |
| Retail brands would enhance retail experience                                  |                   |                | -0.599            |
| The park shops do not require major changes                                    |                   |                | 0.521             |
| Shops should focus on freshness of goods                                       |                   |                | -0.434            |
|                                                                                |                   |                |                   |
| Eigenvalue                                                                     | 2.799             | 1.189          | 1.035             |
| Cronbach's $\alpha$ reliability coefficient                                    | 0.551             | 0.457          | 0.576             |
| Inter-item correlations                                                        | 0.235             | 0.304          | 0.264             |
| Mean value (standard deviation)                                                | 2.48 ( $\pm$ .63) |                | 3.30 ( $\pm$ .72) |

Two of the aspects for shops, namely, Factor 2 (“shops are too expensive” and “I would rather pay more at park shops than exit the park while on holiday”), will be treated as separate items due to their low Cronbach alpha value. The Cronbach alpha values for “Retail Benefits” and “Retail Experience” were both above 0.5, which is acceptable. However, the Cronbach alpha for “Retail Pricing” was 0.45, which is not reliable and will, thus, be reported separately. The mean for “shops are too expensive” was 2.21 ( $\pm$ .93), and that for “I would rather pay more at park shops than exit while on holiday” was 2.45 ( $\pm$ 1.16).

In Factor 3, “Retail Experience”, two of the aspects were reversed in order to form part of the factor analysis. These aspects were “shops should focus on freshness of products” and “retail brands would enhance my experience”.

The component correlation matrix indicated medium correlations between factors, which indicates that the factors can be seen as related to each other (see Table 4.8).

**Table 4.8: Component correlation matrix for shops**

| Correlation matrix | Retail Benefits | Retail Experience |
|--------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| Retail Benefits    | 1.000           | -0.306            |
| Retail Experience  | -0.306          | 1.000             |

Table 4.8 indicates a small correlation of -0.306 between the two factors, which indicates independence of the factors.

### 4.3 CAUSAL RESULTS

The following section explores correlations between factors identified in the factor analysis and demographic factors. A conceptual model is suggested, and structural equation modelling is explored.

#### 4.3.1 Spearman correlations

Spearman rank order correlations have been used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables, namely, to determine the relationship between restaurant and shop factors with selected variables. A correlation of 0 indicates no relationship at all, a correlation of 1.0 indicates a perfect positive relationship, and a value of -1.0 indicates a perfect negative relationship. Table 4.9 indicates the correlations between “Retail Benefits”, “Retail Experience”, “Satisfaction”, “Variety”, experience while dining outside, shops are too expensive, rather shop inside the park than exit during holiday, year of birth, and gross income.



**Table 4.9: Spearman correlation**

|                                          | Retail Benefits | Retail Experience | Variety       | Satisfaction | Experience while dining outside | Shop inside rather than exit park | Shops too expensive | Age     | Gross income |
|------------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|---------------|--------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|---------|--------------|
| <b>Retail Benefits</b>                   | 1.000           | <b>-.410**</b>    | <b>.371**</b> | .255**       | .059**                          | -.114**                           | <b>.345**</b>       | .059**  | .094**       |
| <b>Retail Experience</b>                 | <b>-.410**</b>  | 1.000             | -.293**       | -.215**      | -.080**                         | .106**                            | -.284**             | -.041** | .011         |
| <b>Variety</b>                           | <b>.371**</b>   | -.293**           | 1.000         | .336**       | .189**                          | -.143**                           | .297**              | -.042** | .104**       |
| <b>Satisfaction</b>                      | .255**          | -.215**           | .336**        | 1.000        | .186**                          | -.025                             | .198**              | .002    | .041**       |
| <b>Experience while dining outside</b>   | .059**          | -.080**           | .189**        | .186**       | 1.000                           | .043**                            | .055**              | -.195** | .004         |
| <b>Shop inside rather than exit park</b> | -.114**         | .106**            | -.143**       | -.025        | .043**                          | 1.000                             | -.294**             | .093**  | -.033*       |
| <b>Shops too expensive</b>               | <b>.345**</b>   | -.284**           | .297**        | .198**       | .055**                          | -.294**                           | 1.000               | -.045** | .112**       |
| <b>Year of birth</b>                     | .059**          | -.041**           | -.042**       | .002         | -.195**                         | .093**                            | -.045**             | 1.000   | .043**       |
| <b>Gross income</b>                      | .094**          | .011              | .104**        | .041**       | .004                            | -.033*                            | .112**              | .043**  | 1.000        |

\*\* Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (two-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (two-tailed)

According to Table 4.9, the most significant negative correlation is between “Retail Experience” and “Retail Benefits” (-.410). This indicates that when one variable increases, the other decreases, and an inverse relationship exists between the two variables. Therefore, an increase in “Retail Experience” aspects such as “buying provisions before leaving on holiday” and “retail brands would enhance my experience” would mean that “Retail Benefits” such as “shops should have products aimed at a variety of markets” and “shops should focus on fast-moving goods” would no longer be a necessity and would decrease. The most significant positive correlations are between “Variety” and “Retail Benefits” (.371) and “shops are too expensive” and “Retail Benefits” (.345). A positive relationship indicates that an increase in one variable results in an increase in the other, and vice versa. An increase in “Variety” aspects such as “product options” and “pricing options” would increase “Retail Benefits” such as “products aimed at a variety of markets” and “shop should focus on fast-moving goods”. When the factor “shops are too expensive” increases, there is an increase in “Retail Benefits” such as “Wild Card holders should receive discounts”.

Age has a negative correlation with “Retail Experience” (-.041), “Variety” (-.042), “experience nature while dining” (-.195), and “shops are too expensive” (-.045). Each of these factors will experience a decrease when age of respondents increases. In terms of “Retail Experience”, aspects such as “buying provisions before leaving home” and “shops cater to my requirements, and no changes are needed” will decrease with an increase in age. Therefore, the older respondents become, the less likely they are to buy products before leaving home and will make more use of park shops and, as a result, will be less likely to be satisfied with “shops cater to my requirements, and no changes are needed”. With respect to “Variety” aspects such as “pricing options” and “menu variety”, these will decrease as age of respondent’s increases. Mak *et al.* (2012:931) explain that due to diminished taste and olfactory sensitivity, older people tend to display different food preferences to younger people.

Mak *et al.* (2012:931) explain that age negatively correlates with number and range of culinary exploitations; therefore, an increase in age results in a decrease in “menu variety”. The decrease in “pricing options” as a result of an increase in age can be as a result of life-cycle stage, where older respondents no longer have dependent children and, therefore, have more disposable income. “Experience nature while dining outside” decreases as age increases, as older respondents prefer upmarket dining (see 3.2.3.1). “Shops are too expensive” decreases as age increases, as older respondents tend to have more disposable income.

Age positively correlates with “Retail Benefits” (.059), “Satisfaction” (.002), “rather pay more at park shops than exit during holiday” (.093), and “gross income” (.043). The fact that an increase in age results in an increase in gross income is as a result of older respondents no longer having dependent children and, therefore, having more disposable income. This also explains why older respondents are more likely to “pay more at park shops rather than exiting the park during holiday”. “Retail Benefits” factors such as “shops should focus on fast-moving goods” will increase with an increase in age, as older respondents are more likely to make use of park shops. As age increases, so, too, do “Satisfaction” aspects such as “quality of meals” and “service efficiency”. As previously discussed, older respondents have more time and money available to enjoy upmarket restaurants, and “Satisfaction” aspects become more important.

“Gross income” had only one negative correlation with “rather pay more inside the park than exit during holiday” (-.033). As “gross income” increases, respondents are less likely to agree with “paying more inside the park rather than exiting during holiday”. The highest positive correlation was between “gross income” and “shops are too expensive” (.112); it is interesting to note that, with an increase in “gross income”, there is an increase in the belief that “shops are too expensive”. Gäl *et al.* (2008:40) explain the relationship between income and expenditure as an increase in income resulting in an increase in food expenditure, but at a decreasing rate. When consumers are insensitive to price, they expect quality, diversity, and convenience in food consumption.

#### **4.3.2 Comparisons of restaurant and shop factors with demographic variables**

The differences between restaurant and shop factors for various demographic groupings are analysed in this section. An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare restaurant and shop factors for gender and Wild Card holders. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the effect of home language, marital status, province of residence, and use of park restaurants. The mean scores showed that restaurant and shop factors were significantly different at the  $p < 0.001$  level of significance. *Post hoc* comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated the significant differences.

##### **4.3.2.1 Comparisons by gender**

Table 4.10 identifies a significant difference between genders for the “Retail Experience” factor. This indicates that women agreed with aspects such as “retail brands would enhance my retail experience” and “shops should focus on freshness of products” more than men did. This is probably because women are more likely to do the shopping and the preparing of meals and, as such, require quality items. In terms of “shops are too expensive”, men agreed more with the statement than women. This could be as a result of the fact that men do not usually do the grocery shopping and, once on holiday, are exposed to the park shops and the price of products. Kim *et al.* (2009:429) state that women select safety in food and price of food alternatives as the primary preference in food purchase, whereas males tend to choose taste of food as a key determinant.

**Table 4.10: T-test for comparison of restaurant and shop factors by gender**

| Restaurant and shop factors       | Male<br>N=3 235                    | Female<br>N=2 144                  | F-value | p-value      |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------|--------------|
| <b>Restaurant factors</b>         | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> |         |              |
| Satisfaction                      | 1.39 (±.54)                        | 1.36 (±.53)                        | 2.139   | .144         |
| Variety                           | 2.23 (±.61)                        | 2.15 (±.63)                        | 2.012   | .156         |
| Experience while dining outside   | 1.89 (±.97)                        | 1.70 (±.89)                        | .000*   | .996         |
|                                   |                                    |                                    |         |              |
| <b>Shop factors</b>               | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> |         |              |
| Retail Benefits                   | 2.48 (±.63)                        | 2.47 (±.64)                        | 6.888   | .827         |
| Retail Experience                 | 3.28 (±.71)                        | 3.30 (±.74)                        | .048    | <b>.009*</b> |
| Shop inside rather than exit park | 2.43 (±.1.2)                       | 2.45 (±.1.2)                       | .038    | .845         |
| Shops are too expensive           | 2.25 (±.94)                        | 2.17 (±.92)                        | 5.087   | <b>.024*</b> |

p&lt;0.001\*

#### 4.3.2.2 Comparisons by home language

The following significant differences between home languages will be discussed in terms of English and Afrikaans speakers as a group and German and French speakers as a group. For “Satisfaction”, there was a distinct difference between English and Afrikaans speakers, who considered the aspects as less important, whereas German and French speakers considered “Satisfaction” aspects as very important. “Satisfaction” consists of “service efficiency” and “quality of meals”. The reason for this difference is based on the fact that German and French tourists were more likely to make use of park restaurants on a regular basis, and as such, “quality of meals” and “service efficiency” were very important. Another aspect is that German and French respondents were foreign tourists who were accustomed to a certain standard of service and based their answers on what they expected. For “Variety”, once again, English and Afrikaans respondents found this factor less important than German and French tourists. The explanation will be the same as before, since German and French tourists made more frequent use of shops, and restaurants

aspects such as “product options”, “menu variety”, and “pricing options” were very important.

“Retail Benefits” and “shops are too expensive” were all statistically significant for Afrikaans-speaking respondents who indicated that they did not agree with these factors, as opposed to English, German, and French tourists who agreed. Once again, park shops, restaurants, and takeaways appeared to be utilised more by foreign tourists (Australian, UK, and US respondents made up part of the English-speaking respondents, which could account for the response), who agreed that “shops are too expensive”. The “Retail Benefits” factor includes aspects such as “shops should focus on fast-moving goods” and “shops should have products aimed at a variety of markets”, which would be more important to foreign tourists who made frequent use of the shops, and as such, they agreed with the need for these to be offered in shops. Afrikaans respondents did not find “experience nature while dining” to be important, as they were more likely to cater for themselves, whereas English, German, and French respondents found this aspect to be important. Interestingly, it was found that Afrikaans respondents disagreed with the aspect “rather shop inside the park than exit during holiday”. The reason for this could possibly be that these respondents were more likely to purchase provisions before leaving home and would, therefore, not make frequent use of park shops. English, German, and French respondents agreed that they would rather pay more at park shops than exit during the holiday, and the motive for this could be that foreign respondents would not have access to private transportation or know of surrounding retail shops.

“Retail Experience” was considered less important by English-speaking respondents and more important by Afrikaans, German, and French respondents. “Retail Experience” consists of aspects such as “buying my provisions before leaving home”, which was relevant to Afrikaans respondents, and “retail brands would enhance my experience”, which was found to be important to foreign respondents, as a retail brand provided consistency in terms of price, product options, and quality. This is illustrated in Table 4.11 below.

**Table 4.11: ANOVA for comparison of restaurant and shop factors by home language**

| <b>Restaurant and shop factors</b> | <b>Afrikaans<br/>N=2 302</b>       | <b>English<br/>N=2 627</b>         | <b>German<br/>N=191</b>            | <b>French<br/>N=63</b>             | <b>F-value</b> | <b>p-value</b> |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| <b>Restaurant factors</b>          | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> |                |                |
| Satisfaction                       | 1.31 ( $\pm$ .47)                  | 1.14 ( $\pm$ .55)                  | 1.56 ( $\pm$ .67)                  | 1.62 ( $\pm$ .66)                  | 29.023         | <b>.000*</b>   |
| Variety                            | 2.13 ( $\pm$ .61)                  | 2.24 ( $\pm$ .63)                  | 2.40 ( $\pm$ .59)                  | 2.30 ( $\pm$ .60)                  | 20.646         | <b>.000*</b>   |
| Experience while dining outside    | 1.77 ( $\pm$ .93)                  | 1.84 ( $\pm$ .96)                  | 1.96( $\pm$ 1.04)                  | 1.87( $\pm$ 1.00)                  | 4.171          | <b>.006*</b>   |
|                                    |                                    |                                    |                                    |                                    |                |                |
| <b>Shop factors</b>                | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> |                |                |
| Retail Benefits                    | 2.33 ( $\pm$ .63)                  | 2.56 ( $\pm$ .62)                  | 2.73 ( $\pm$ .56)                  | 2.65 ( $\pm$ .56)                  | 67.597         | <b>.000*</b>   |
| Retail Experience                  | 3.30 ( $\pm$ .72)                  | 3.20 ( $\pm$ .73)                  | 3.30 ( $\pm$ .68)                  | 3.30 ( $\pm$ .62)                  | 6.595          | <b>.000*</b>   |
| Shop inside rather than exit park  | 2.56 ( $\pm$ 1.2)                  | 2.36 ( $\pm$ 1.1)                  | 2.35 ( $\pm$ 1.1)                  | 2.29 ( $\pm$ .87)                  | 13.502         | <b>.000*</b>   |
| Shops are too expensive            | 1.97 ( $\pm$ .89)                  | 2.35( $\pm$ .92)                   | 2.66 ( $\pm$ .82)                  | 2.68 ( $\pm$ .93)                  | 94.234         | <b>.000*</b>   |

#### 4.3.2.3 Comparison by marital status

Table 4.12 indicates that “Satisfaction” was important to respondents who were living together and not as important to other respondents. This could be as a result of life-cycle stage, where these respondents were usually young and starting out in life, which meant that there was not a lot of disposable income; therefore, quality of meals and service efficiency were important. “Variety” was important to widowed respondents and those living together. This includes aspects such as “pricing affordability” and “pricing options”, which were important to the widowed respondents as a result of less disposable income, being a one-income household. The same can be said for respondents living together, as there would not be a lot of disposable income. Married and widowed respondents did not agree with aspects of “Retail Benefits” such as “shops should have products for a variety of markets” and “shops should focus more on fast-moving goods”. It is assumed that most married respondents would purchase provisions at home and, as a result, would not make use of park shops. “Retail Experience”, which includes “buying provisions before leaving home” and “shops should focus on freshness of products”, was not important to single respondents. It is assumed that single respondents would make more use of the restaurant and shop facilities and would, therefore, not purchase provisions before or

at parks. It was found that married respondents did not agree with “shops are too expensive”, which was probably, as previously stated, because married respondents were more likely to purchase provisions before arriving at the park. Therefore, any purchases at park shops would be convenience items.

**Table 4.12: ANOVA for comparison of restaurants and shop factors by marital status**

| <b>Restaurant and shop factors</b> | <b>Single<br/>N=73</b>             | <b>Married<br/>N=4 280</b>         | <b>Living together<br/>N=401</b>   | <b>Divorced<br/>N=239</b>          | <b>Widowed<br/>N=103</b>           | <b>F-value</b> | <b>p-value</b> |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| <b>Restaurant factors</b>          | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> |                |                |
| Satisfaction                       | 1.39 (±.56)                        | 1.37 (±.53)                        | 1.46 (±.60)                        | 1.40 (±.46)                        | 1.42 (±.52)                        | 3.355          | <b>.009*</b>   |
| Variety                            | 2.19 (±.64)                        | 2.18 (±.61)                        | 2.28 (±.66)                        | 2.17 (±.57)                        | 2.29 (±.66)                        | 3.008          | <b>.017*</b>   |
| Experience while dining outside    | 1.69 (±.86)                        | 1.83 (±.95)                        | 1.78 (±1.0)                        | 1.82 (±.97)                        | 1.93 (±1.0)                        | 2.249          | .061           |
|                                    |                                    |                                    |                                    |                                    |                                    |                |                |
| <b>Shop factors</b>                | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> |                |                |
| Retail Benefits                    | 2.62 (±.59)                        | 2.45 (±.63)                        | 2.59 (±.64)                        | 2.57 (±.63)                        | 2.43 (±.67)                        | 11.280         | <b>.000*</b>   |
| Retail Experience                  | 3.16 (±.73)                        | 3.32 (±.71)                        | 3.30 (±.74)                        | 3.30 (±.69)                        | 3.26 (±.63)                        | 4.150          | <b>.002*</b>   |
| Shop inside rather than exit park  | 2.54 (±1.2)                        | 2.43 (±1.2)                        | 2.54 (±1.2)                        | 2.44 (±1.2)                        | 2.31 (±1.2)                        | 1.828          | .121           |
| Shops are too expensive            | 2.28 (±.95)                        | 2.19 (±.93)                        | 2.33 (±.94)                        | 2.25 (±.90)                        | 2.23 (±.93)                        | 2.632          | <b>.033*</b>   |

#### 4.3.2.4 Comparison by province of residence

Respondents who lived outside the borders of the Republic of South Africa found “Satisfaction” and “Variety” to be important. The reason for this is that these respondents were the ones who would frequently make use of shops, restaurants, and shop facilities and, as such, would find aspects such as “quality of meals”, “service efficiency”, “product options”, and “pricing options” important. These respondents also agreed with “Retail Benefits” and “shops are too expensive”. Again, the reason for their responses is that they made frequent use of the facilities and so, too, agreed with “shops should focus on fast-moving goods” and “shops should have products for a variety of markets”. One aspect of which SANParks should be aware is that foreign tourists generally travel on a stronger currency, and yet they still perceived shops to be too expensive. Perhaps it is for this reason that local respondents preferred to buy provisions before arriving and chose self-catering accommodation.

Respondents residing in Limpopo found “experience nature while dining” to be totally unimportant. This could be as a result of the proximity of Limpopo to the park, which indicates that it, too, is similar in nature to the park. North West and Mpumalanga respondents totally agreed with the aspects of “rather shop inside the park than exit during holiday”. This could be as a result of the proximity of Mpumalanga in relation to the park. Respondents residing in the North West were predominantly Afrikaans speaking, and as discussed in the section related to home language; these respondents probably purchased products prior to arrival and would only make use of shops for convenience items. This is illustrated in Table 4.13 below.



**Table 4.13: ANOVA for comparison of restaurants and shop factors by province of residence**

|                                         | p-value | F-value | Outside SA<br>border N=642        | Free State<br>N=156               | Limpopo<br>N=256                  | Kwazulu-Natal<br>N=249            | Northern Cape<br>N=49             | Mpumalanga<br>N=388               | North West<br>N=120               | Eastern Cape<br>N=275             | Western Cape<br>N=960             | Gauteng<br>N=2 302                | Restaurant<br>and shop<br>factors |
|-----------------------------------------|---------|---------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
|                                         |         |         | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | <b>Restaurant<br/>factors</b>     |
| Satisfaction                            | .000*   | 21.676  | 1.59 (±.61)                       | 1.32 (±.57)                       | 1.26 (±.40)                       | 1.37 (±.44)                       | 1.34 (±.44)                       | 1.26 (±.42)                       | 1.33 (±.43)                       | 1.42 (±.61)                       | 1.47 (±.61)                       | 1.32 (±.47)                       |                                   |
| Variety                                 | .000*   | 8.227   | 2.28 (±.57)                       | 2.15 (±.67)                       | 2.05 (±.59)                       | 2.21 (±.62)                       | 2.12 (±.62)                       | 2.05 (±.63)                       | 2.18 (±.58)                       | 2.21 (±.63)                       | 2.30 (±.66)                       | 2.18 (±.61)                       |                                   |
| Experience<br>while dining<br>outside   | .000*   | 3.914   | 1.90 (±1.0)                       | 1.86 (±.98)                       | 1.63 (±.86)                       | 1.87 (±1.0)                       | 1.80 (±.89)                       | 1.80 (±.92)                       | 1.76 (±.99)                       | 1.92 (±.92)                       | 1.90 (±1.0)                       | 1.76 (±.92)                       |                                   |
|                                         |         |         |                                   |                                   |                                   |                                   |                                   |                                   |                                   |                                   |                                   |                                   |                                   |
|                                         |         |         | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | Mean and<br>standard<br>deviation | <b>Shop<br/>factors</b>           |
| Retail<br>Benefits                      | .000*   | 23.359  | 2.78 (±.58)                       | 2.30 (±.59)                       | 2.38 (±.64)                       | 2.50 (±.61)                       | 2.31 (±.61)                       | 2.31 (±.63)                       | 2.38 (±.64)                       | 2.46 (±.58)                       | 2.44 (±.62)                       | 2.47 (±.64)                       |                                   |
| Retail<br>Experience                    | .222    | 1.317   | 3.30 (±.65)                       | 3.36 (±.69)                       | 3.37 (±.71)                       | 3.31 (±.72)                       | 3.20 (±.66)                       | 3.34 (±.70)                       | 3.34 (±.70)                       | 3.28 (±.71)                       | 3.32 (±.74)                       | 3.28 (±.74)                       |                                   |
| Shop inside<br>rather than<br>exit park | .000*   | 12.333  | 2.26 (±1.0)                       | 2.54 (±1.2)                       | 2.45 (±1.2)                       | 2.39 (±1.1)                       | 2.45 (±1.1)                       | 2.65 (±1.3)                       | 2.69 (±1.2)                       | 2.52 (±1.1)                       | 2.39 (±1.1)                       | 2.46 (±1.2)                       |                                   |
| Shops are<br>too<br>expensive           | .000*   | 8.125   | 2.70 (±.85)                       | 1.96 (±.91)                       | 2.03 (±.95)                       | 2.33 (±.88)                       | 1.88 (±.75)                       | 1.87 (±.92)                       | 1.95 (±.88)                       | 2.13 (±.90)                       | 2.24 (±.90)                       | 2.18 (±.93)                       |                                   |

#### **4.3.2.5 Comparison by Wild Card holder**

There were statistical significances in terms of Wild Card holders and non-Wild-Card holders in terms of “Satisfaction”, “Variety”, and the aspect of “rather shop inside the park than exit during holiday”. Wild Card holders found “Satisfaction” to be more important than non-Wild-Card holders. Respondents who purchased Wild Cards belonged to the Wild Card membership programme and were, as such, probably frequent visitors to the various parks. These respondents would probably purchase convenience items from shops, restaurants, and takeaways. Aspects such as “quality of meals” and “service efficiency” were important to these respondents, as they made frequent use of parks. Wild Card holders agreed with “Retail Benefits” and “shops are too expensive”. “Retail Benefits” include the aspect “Wild Card holders should receive discounts at park shops and restaurants”. Being a card-carrying member of any membership programme should offer discounts and rewards for loyalty. This aspect would not be seen as important to non-Wild-Card holders, as they would not receive any benefits. Non-Wild-Card holders placed more importance on “Variety” and agreed with “rather shop inside the park than exit during holiday”. It is important to take into account that a large portion of non-Wild-Card holders were foreign travellers and those who did not frequently visit parks. As such, aspects such as “product variety”, “pricing options”, “value for money”, and “menu variety” were important, as these respondents were more likely to make frequent use of the shops, restaurants, and takeaways. As previously stated, foreign respondents would not have access to outside shops and would, therefore, have no option but to make use of park shops, regardless of price. Table 4.14 below illustrates these aspects.

**Table 4.14: T-test for comparison of restaurant and shop factors by Wild Card**

| Restaurant and shop factors       | Wild Card holder<br>N=1 799        | Not a Wild Card holder<br>N=3 665  | F-value | p-value      |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------|--------------|
| <b>Restaurant factors</b>         | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> |         |              |
| Satisfaction                      | 1.42 (±.54)                        | 1.35 (±.52)                        | 8.260   | <b>.004*</b> |
| Variety                           | 2.18 (±.59)                        | 2.20 (±.62)                        | 7.632   | <b>.006*</b> |
| Experience while dining outside   | 1.78 (±.92)                        | 1.83 (±.96)                        | .296    | .587         |
|                                   |                                    |                                    |         |              |
| <b>Shop factors</b>               | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> |         |              |
| Retail Benefits                   | 2.59 (±.63)                        | 2.42 (±.62)                        | 1.209   | .272         |
| Retail Experience                 | 3.28 (±.71)                        | 3.31 (±.72)                        | .730    | .393         |
| Shop inside rather than exit park | 2.42 (±1.13)                       | 2.46 (±1.17)                       | 6.302   | <b>.012*</b> |
| Shops are too expensive           | 2.32 (±.91)                        | 2.16 (.93)                         | .687    | .407         |

p<0.001\*

#### 4.3.2.6 Comparisons by restaurant use

Each of the factors listed in Table 4.15 produced statistically significant differences in the restaurant use category. For respondents who never made use of restaurants and shops, “Satisfaction”, “Variety”, and “experience nature while dining” were more important than for other respondents. Johns and Pine (2002:124) explain that physical surroundings in which food is eaten have received comparatively little attention. This is interesting, as these respondents did not use the facilities available, yet found aspects such as “service efficiency”, “value for money”, “product and pricing options”, and “menu variety” to be important. These respondents catered for themselves and purchased provisions outside the park. Yet if these aspects became available, it could alter their current purchasing behaviour. These respondents also agreed with the aspect of “rather shop inside the park than exit during the holiday”, which indicates that they would prefer to make use of park shops for convenience.

Respondents who only used takeaway facilities and not restaurants disagreed with “Retail Benefits” such as “shops should focus on fast-moving goods” and “shops

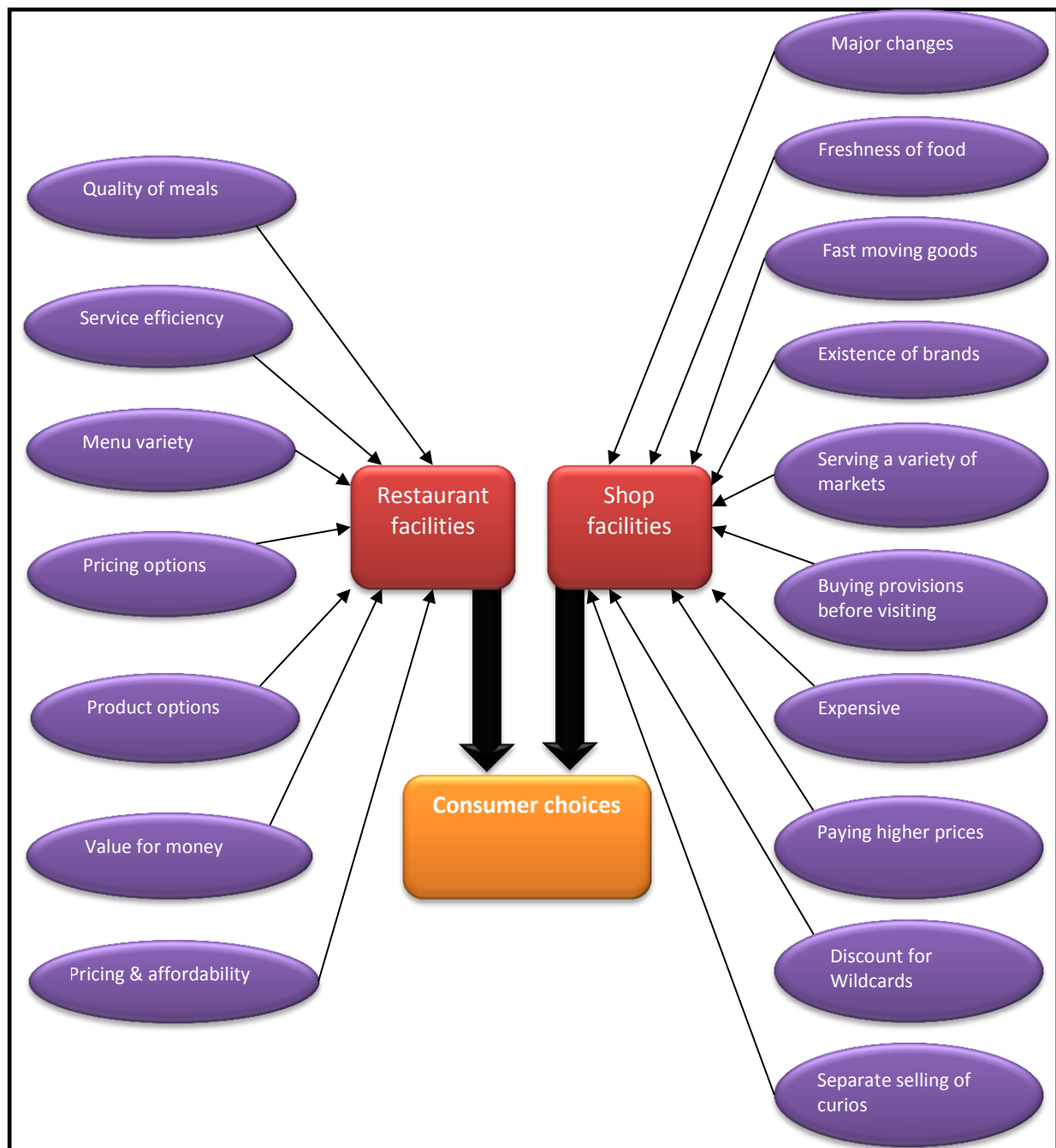
should offer products to a variety of markets”. These aspects were not considered important, as respondents did not make use of the shop to purchase products, but only for takeaways. Respondents who used restaurants on more than one occasion and those who only made use of takeaway facilities agreed with “Retail Experience”. Aspects such as “retail brands would enhance my retail experience” and “shops should focus on fast-moving goods” would affect these respondents more, as they were the ones who made use of the facilities and, as such, would benefit.

**Table 4.15: ANOVA for comparison of restaurants and shop factors by restaurant use**

| <b>Restaurant and shop factors</b> | <b>Not at all<br/>N=740</b>        | <b>At least once<br/>N=2 389</b>   | <b>More than one occasion<br/>N=1 831</b> | <b>Only use takeaway, not restaurant<br/>N=497</b> | <b>F-value</b> | <b>p-value</b> |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| <b>Restaurant factors</b>          | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i>        | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i>                 |                |                |
| Satisfaction                       | 1.49 (±.73)                        | 1.37 (±.50)                        | 1.35 (.48)                                | 1.33 (±.48)                                        | 12.495         | .000*          |
| Variety                            | 2.30 (±.75)                        | 2.20 (±.60)                        | 2.16 (±.57)                               | 2.11 (±.59)                                        | 14.275         | .000*          |
| Experience while dining outside    | 2.01 (±1.12)                       | 1.81 (±.92)                        | 1.73 (±.90)                               | 1.82 (±.95)                                        | 14.911         | .000*          |
|                                    |                                    |                                    |                                           |                                                    |                |                |
| <b>Shop factors</b>                | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i> | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i>        | <i>Mean and standard deviation</i>                 |                |                |
| Retail Benefits                    | 2.48 (±.65)                        | 2.48 (±.62)                        | 2.49 (±.63)                               | 2.37 (±.59)                                        | 5.220          | .001*          |
| Retail Experience                  | 3.26 (±.79)                        | 3.28 (±.71)                        | 3.34 (±.69)                               | 3.33 (±.71)                                        | 3.359          | .018*          |
| Shop inside rather than exit park  | 2.76 (±1.22)                       | 2.44 (±1.13)                       | 2.30 (±1.13)                              | 2.59 (±1.22)                                       | 30.744         | .000*          |
| Shops are too expensive            | 1.96 (±.92)                        | 2.22 (±.88)                        | 2.36 (±.95)                               | 2.01 (±.89)                                        | 42.156         | .000*          |

#### 4.4 THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL

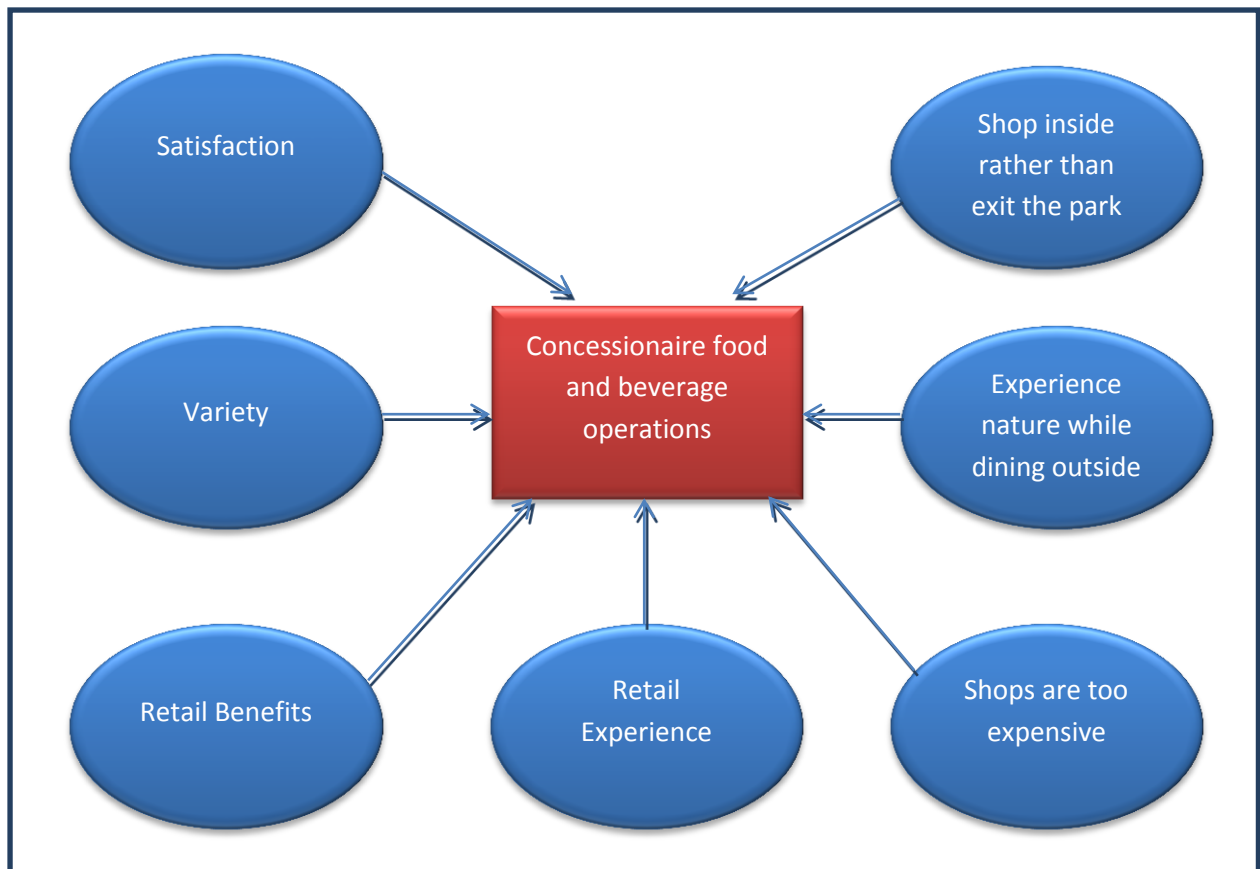
Figure 4.9 is the conceptual model (Conceptual Model A), based on informal discussions with SANParks, on the basis of which the questionnaire was constructed.



**Figure 4.9: The conceptual model (A) for concessionaire food and beverage operations (including restaurants and shops) in SANParks**

After the factor analysis, the conceptual model was adapted and the hypothesis stated (see Chapter 1). The conceptual model (Conceptual Model B) in Figure 4.10 was,

thus, constructed from the factor analysis, which identified that “Satisfaction”, “Variety”, “Retail Benefits”, “Retail Experience”, “shop inside rather than exit the park”, “experience nature while dining outside”, and “shops are too expensive” might have an influence on consumer choices in nature-based products. The latter conceptual model will be tested by means of a structural equation model.



**Figure 4.10: The conceptual model (B) for concessionaire food and beverage operations (including restaurants and shops) in SANParks**

#### 4.4.1 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) represents a theory-driven data analytical approach for the evaluation of assumed specified hypotheses regarding causal relations among measured and/or latent variables (Mueller & Hancock, 2010:371). It, therefore, gives an indication of causal relationships between variables and is often diagrammed for a better understanding of a path analysis. A central issue addressed by any structural equation modelling analysis is the assessment of the fit between observed data and the hypothesised model (Mueller & Hancock, 2010:379).

### ***Step 1: Identification and definition of the constructs***

Identification and definition of the latent variables were done in the literature chapter and focused on “Satisfaction”, “Variety”, “Retail Benefits”, “Retail Experience”, and “shops are too expensive”. Each latent variable consists of a set of observed variables.

### ***Step 2: Developing and specifying the measurement model***

The measurement model was developed by identifying the latent constructs and assigning variables to each construct. The model was specified as a confirmatory factor analysis model. Maximum likelihood (ML) estimation was used to estimate the model. ML estimation is a technique for estimating parameters, in which the values that maximise the likelihood are chosen (Porkess, 2005:150). The method is of key importance in statistical inference, possesses many advantageous properties (Porkess, 2005:150), and is considerably more robust than other estimation methods.

### ***Step 3: Designing a study to predict empirical results***

The research design and model estimation are important in this step, where four issues are discussed: the type of data analysed (covariance or correlations), sample size, model estimation, and the computer software used for the study.

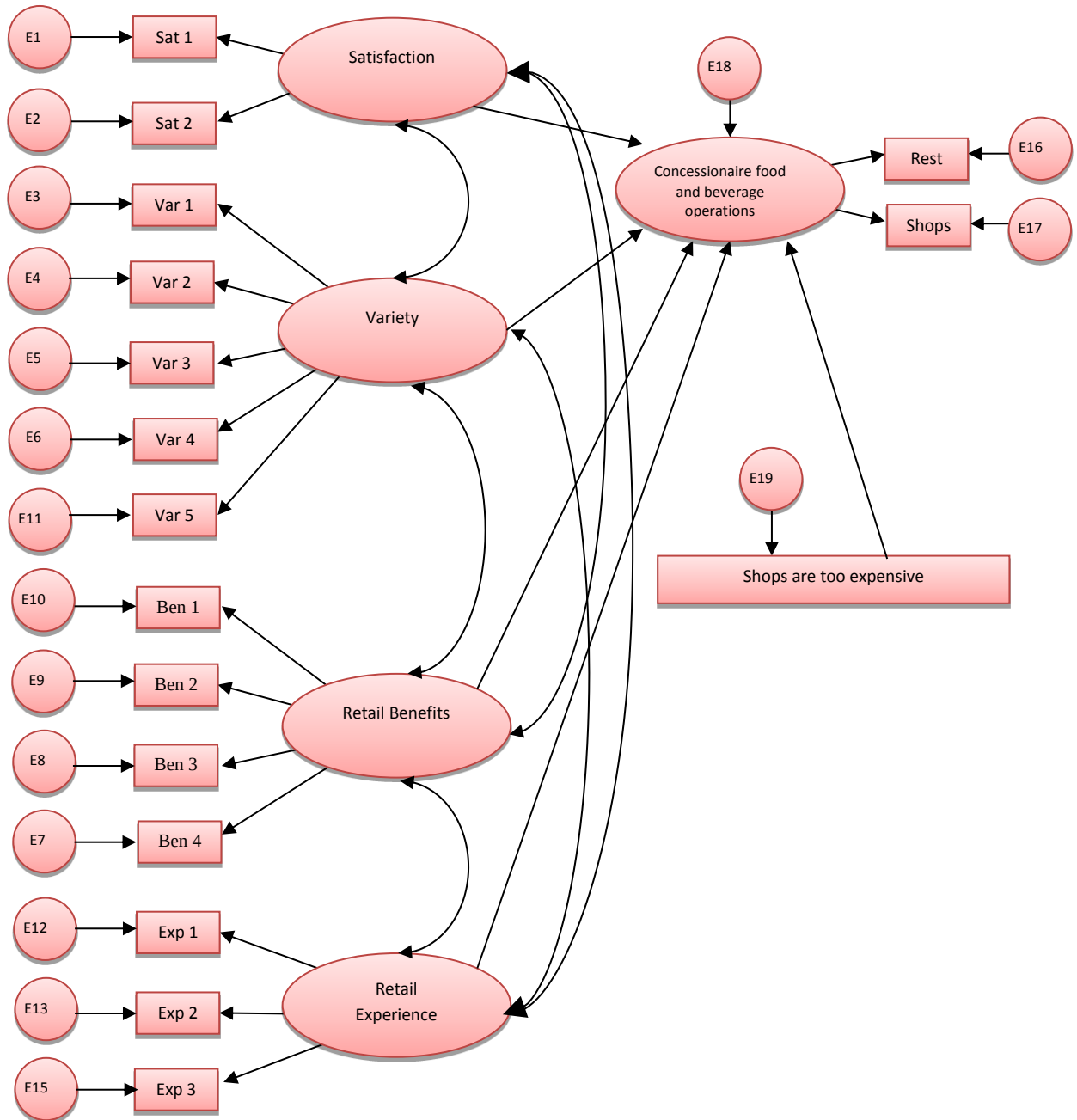
- **Type of data**

Covariance and correlation data describe linear relationships (Keller, 2012:130). The choice between the use of covariance or correlation should be based on the interpretive and statistical issues for the study. The structural equation model was constructed using covariance data. Covariance is the measure of the linear relationship between two random variables (Porkess, 2005:66).

- **Sample size**

A common guideline for obtaining trustworthy maximum likelihood estimates is to have at least five constructs (Mueller & Hancock, 2010:376). Regarding power, the sample size should be justified on two fronts. Firstly, authors should explain how sample size should provide relevant tests of the data-fit model, and secondly, the sample size should provide sufficient power to detect individual model relations of key theoretical interest (Mueller & Hancock, 2010:377). For this study, the conceptual model

contained seven components. The sample size was 5 464, which is large and will produce more stable solutions that are more likely to be replicable.



**Figure 4.11: Proposed model for concessionaire food and beverage operations in SANParks**

A variety of estimation methods have been used in SEM to indicate how closely the correlation or covariance matrix implied by the hypothesised model conforms to the



covariance matrix of the observed data, thus guiding attempts to find best-fitting models. Maximum likelihood (ML) estimation was, thus, used to estimate the models. In testing restaurant and shop operations, it was found that there was no difference between the two food service operations, and they were, therefore, combined and tested as one aspect.

**Table 4.16: Standardised regression weights estimate and p-label**

|                 |                                     |      |                         | Standardised regression weights estimate | P-label |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------|------|-------------------------|------------------------------------------|---------|
| H <sup>1</sup>  | Food and beverage                   | <--- | Satisfaction            | -.083                                    | .000*   |
| H <sup>2</sup>  | Food and beverage                   | <--- | Variety                 | .259                                     | .000*   |
| H <sup>3</sup>  | Food and beverage                   | <--- | Retail Benefits         | -.096                                    | .011*   |
| H <sup>4</sup>  | Food and beverage                   | <--- | Retail Experience       | -.650                                    | .000*   |
| H <sup>5</sup>  | Food and beverage                   | <--- | Shops are too expensive | -.014                                    | .238    |
| H <sup>6</sup>  | Satisfaction                        | <--> | Variety                 | .657                                     | .000*   |
| H <sup>7</sup>  | Satisfaction                        | <--> | Retail Benefits         | .365                                     | .000*   |
| H <sup>8</sup>  | Satisfaction                        | <--> | Retail Experience       | -.307                                    | .000*   |
| H <sup>9</sup>  | Variety                             | <--> | Retail Benefits         | .588                                     | .000*   |
| H <sup>10</sup> | Variety                             | <--> | Retail Experience       | -.496                                    | .000*   |
| H <sup>11</sup> | Retail Benefits                     | <--> | Retail Experience       | -.677                                    | .000*   |
| Sat 1           | Quality of Meals                    | <--- | Satisfaction            | .847                                     | .000*   |
| Sat 2           | Service Efficiency                  | <--- | Satisfaction            | .638                                     | .000*   |
| Var 1           | Pricing Affordability               | <--- | Variety                 | .261                                     | .000*   |
| Var 2           | Pricing Options                     | <--- | Variety                 | .577                                     | .000*   |
| Var 3           | Value for Money                     | <--- | Variety                 | .585                                     | .000*   |
| Var 4           | Menu Variety                        | <--- | Variety                 | .703                                     | .000*   |
| Var 5           | Product Options                     | <--- | Variety                 | .724                                     | .000*   |
| Ben 1           | Focus on fast-moving consumer goods | <--- | Retail Benefits         | .556                                     | .000*   |
| Ben 2           | More products aimed at              | <--- | Retail Benefits         | .547                                     | .000*   |

|       |                                                                                     |      |                   |       |       |
|-------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|-------------------|-------|-------|
|       | variety of consumers                                                                |      |                   |       |       |
| Ben 3 | Curios should be sold separately                                                    | <--- | Retail Benefits   | .428  | .000* |
| Ben 4 | Wild Card holders should have benefits                                              | <--- | Retail Benefits   | .406  | .000* |
| Exp 1 | Buying provisions before leaving home is part of the holiday experience             | <--- | Retail Experience | .351  | .000* |
| Exp 2 | Retail brands would enhance my retail experience                                    | <--- | Retail Experience | -.767 | .000* |
| Exp 3 | Shops should focus on freshness of products                                         | <--- | Retail Experience | .394  | .000* |
| Rest  | Introduction of a restaurant brand would improve my dining experience               | <--- | Food Service      | .903  | .000* |
| T/A   | Introduction of a takeaway brand would enhance my experience at takeaway facilities | <--- | Food Service      | .919  | .000* |

From Table 4.16, it is clear that the path coefficients of the individual items were statistically significant, with the exception of H<sup>5</sup>, where the relationship was not supported. The H<sup>1</sup>, H<sup>2</sup>, H<sup>3</sup>, H<sup>4</sup>, H<sup>6</sup>, H<sup>7</sup>, H<sup>8</sup>, H<sup>9</sup>, H<sup>10</sup>, and H<sup>11</sup> path coefficients were statistically significant for the hypotheses tested.

#### ***Step 4: Assessing measurement model validity***

The measures of fit can include a combination of criteria. For each measurement of fit, a decision as to what represents a good enough fit between the model and the data must reflect other contextual factors such as sample size (a very large sample makes the chi-squared test overly sensitive), the ratio of indicators to factors, and the overall complexity of the model. These include the chi-squared test, the normal fit index (NFI), the relative fit index (RFI), the incremental index of fit (IFI), the Tucker-Lewis

index (TLI), the comparative fit index (CFI), the expected cross-validation index (ECVI), the relative noncentrality index (RNI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). To assess the fit of the food service model, it is suggested that multiple fit indices should be used to assess the model's goodness of fit.

**Table 4.17: Goodness-of-fit indices**

|                          | Food service model |
|--------------------------|--------------------|
| Chi-square               | 369.0230           |
| DF                       | 109                |
| CMIN/DF                  | 3.385              |
| p-value                  | p<.000             |
| CFI                      | .857               |
| RMSEA [90% CI for RMSEA] | .078 [.075; .080]  |

The hypothesised model was tested, and acceptable support was found for the hypothesised model,  $\chi^2$  (chi-squared)=369.0230 (n=5464, df=109, p<.000), comparative fit index (CFI)=.857, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)=.078. According to Table 4.17, the fit indices of the model suggested that it was acceptable.

From Table 4.16, it is clear that the path coefficients of individual items were statistically significant, except that between “shops are too expensive” and “Food service”. When analysing the path coefficients for the hypotheses, it is clear that the path coefficients for all hypotheses, except H<sup>5</sup>, were statistically significant.

#### 4.4.2 Hypotheses supported

H<sup>1</sup> was confirmed at the 5% significance level, thereby supporting the hypothesised relationship between the “Satisfaction” and “food and beverage operations”. This was supported by the standardised path coefficient of -.083 (p=.000), indicating a negative relationship. As a result, the more importance placed on satisfaction by consumers with aspects such as “service efficiency” and “quality of meals”, the less likely it was that they would require retail brands.

**H<sup>2</sup>** was confirmed at the 5% significance level, thereby supporting the hypothesised relationship between “Variety” and “food and beverage operations”. This was supported by the standardised path coefficient of .259 ( $p=.000$ ), indicating a positive relationship. This suggested that the more important variety options were to consumers, the more they required retail brands. Variety includes “menu variety”, “pricing affordability”, “pricing options”, “value for money”, and “product option variety”. These aspects would be satisfied by the introduction of retail brands, as their price, products, and quality are standardised. This was the only positive relationship between a factor and food service.

**H<sup>3</sup>** was confirmed at the 5% significance level, thereby supporting the hypothesised relationship between “Retail Benefits” and “food and beverage operations”. This was supported by the standardised path coefficient of -.096 ( $p=.011$ ), indicating a negative relationship. This suggested that the more consumers agreed with aspects related to retail benefits being offered in shops, the less the need for retail brands. These aspects include “shops should focus on fast-moving goods”, “Wild Card holders should receive discounts”, and “shops should offer products aimed at a variety of markets”. If these aspects were available in the shops and restaurants, there would be no need for a retail brand.

**H<sup>4</sup>** was confirmed at the 5% significance level, thereby supporting the hypothesised relationship between “Retail Experience” and “food and beverage operations”. This was supported by the standardised path coefficient of -.650 ( $p=.000$ ), indicating a negative relationship. This was the strongest relationship, and therefore, “Retail Experience” had the greatest influence on food service (as indicated in the ANOVA tables). The higher the level of agreement with aspects such as “purchasing provisions before leaving home” and “the shops should focus on fast-moving goods”, the less the need for retail brands. If respondents were purchasing products before leaving home or en route to the park, they would not be making use of the shops, unless they required convenience items and, as such, would not feel the need to have a retail brand.

**H<sup>6</sup>** was confirmed at the 5% significance level, thereby supporting the hypothesised relationship between “Satisfaction” and “Variety”. This was supported by the

standardised path coefficient of .657 ( $p=.000$ ), indicating a positive relationship. This was the strongest positive relationship among factors, indicating that an increase in satisfaction would result in an increase in variety. The higher the level of importance of “quality of meals” and “service efficiency”, the higher the level of importance of “pricing options”, “menu variety”, “product options”, and “value for money” would be. In order to be satisfied, variety was required.

**H<sup>7</sup>** was confirmed at the 5% significance level, thereby supporting the hypothesised relationship between “Satisfaction” and “Retail Benefits”. This was supported by the standardised path coefficient of .365 ( $p=.000$ ), indicating a positive relationship. An increase in the importance of “Satisfaction” would result in an increase in the level of agreement with “Retail Benefits”. Therefore, aspects such as “service efficiency” and “quality of meals”, if considered important, would require shops to offer “fast-moving goods”, “products aimed at a variety of markets”, and “discounts for Wild Card holders”.

**H<sup>8</sup>** was confirmed at the 5% significance level, thereby supporting the hypothesised relationship between “Satisfaction” and “Retail Experience”. This was supported by the standardised path coefficient of  $-.307$  ( $p=.000$ ), indicating a negative relationship. Interestingly, the more important “Satisfaction” was to respondents, the less they agreed with the need for “Retail Experience” aspects. Therefore, the more important “service efficiency” and “quality of meals” became, the less likely respondents were to agree with “retail brands would enhance my experience” and “buying provisions before leaving home”. This was an interesting aspect, as respondents were showing that if parks increased service efficiency and quality of meals, they would be less likely to purchase provisions before arriving at the park.

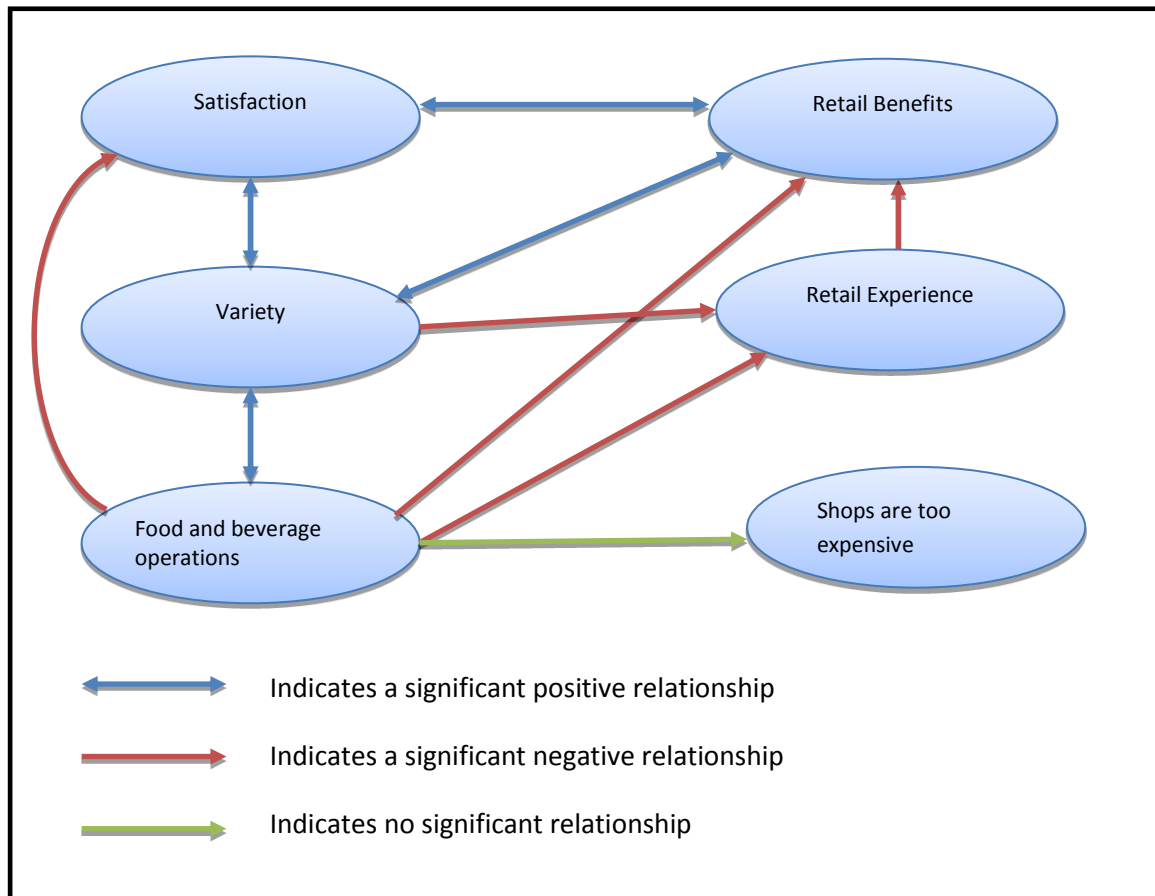
**H<sup>9</sup>** was confirmed at the 5% significance level, thereby supporting the hypothesised relationship between “Variety” and “Retail Benefits”. This was supported by the standardised path coefficient of  $-.588$  ( $p=.000$ ), indicating a negative relationship. If SANParks were to increase the variety aspects such as “product options”, “pricing options”, and “menu variety”, the less likely respondents would be to agree with the “Retail Benefits” aspects. These include “shops should focus on fast-moving goods” and “shops should have products aimed at a variety of markets”.

**H<sup>10</sup>** was confirmed at the 5% significance level, thereby supporting the hypothesised relationship between “Variety” and “Retail Experience”. This was supported by the standardised path coefficient of  $-.496$  ( $p=.000$ ), indicating a negative relationship. Once again, an increase in variety options such as “product options”, “pricing options”, and “menu variety” would make it less likely for respondents to agree with the “Retail Experience” aspects such as “buying my provisions before leaving home” and “shops cater to my needs, and no change is required”. Once again, SANParks has an opportunity to change the dissatisfaction of respondents with shops and restaurants by increasing variety aspects.

**H<sup>11</sup>** was confirmed at the 5% significance level, thereby supporting the hypothesised relationship between “Retail Benefits” and “Retail Experience”. This was supported by the standardised path coefficient of  $-.677$  ( $p=.000$ ), indicating a negative relationship. This was the strongest negative relationship, indicating that there was little support between “Retail Benefits” and “Retail Experience”. Therefore, the more respondents agreed with “Retail Benefits” aspects, the less they agreed with “Retail Experience” aspects. An increase in “shops should focus on fast-moving goods” and “products aimed at a variety of markets” would mean a decrease in the likelihood that respondents would “purchase provisions before leaving home” and “retail brands would enhance my experience”. This indicates that, should SANParks change the shops and restaurants to cater to the requirements of respondents, retail brands would not be as necessary.

Figure 4.12 gives an indication of the types of relationship found between the variables tested. In terms of concessionaire food and beverage operations, there was only one positive relationship, which was with variety; all other relationships were negative, indicating that variety was the only factor that supported the introduction of food service brands in the park. There were positive influences between “Satisfaction” and “Variety” as well as “Satisfaction” and “Retail Benefits” and “Variety” and “Retail Benefits”. These were supportive relationships where an increase in one factor would cause an increase in the other. Negative relationships existed between “Variety” and “Retail Experience” and “Retail Benefits” and “Retail Experience”. This indicated that an increase in one factor would cause the other to decrease, and vice versa. An

example would be that an increase in the variety of restaurants/shops in the park would not necessarily increase the “Retail Experience” for consumers. Lastly, no significant relationship was found between “food and beverage operations” and “shops are too expensive”.



**Figure 4.12: Relationships between factors and food and beverage operations**

## 4.5 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to analyse the data and construct a proposed model for concessionaire food and beverage operations. The data presented gave an indication of the demographic profile of tourists visiting parks as well as the possible effects that these demographics had on food choice. The following conclusions were made regarding the demographics: respondents were males (60%), aged between 51 and 60 years of age (29%), who spoke English (48%), were married (80%), and resided in Gauteng (42%). These respondents had a tertiary education (78%) and earned more than R552 001 (21%) per annum. In terms of consumer choices, respondents

preferred self-catering chalet accommodation (51%), which indicated that most of provision purchases would be done outside the park, with most respondents only purchasing convenience items at park shops (42%). These respondents did not have Wild Cards (67%) and indicated that they would not make use of bed and breakfast accommodation at the park (55%).

The factor analyses identified two aspects for restaurant operations, which were “Satisfaction” and “Variety”, while shops yielded two factors, “Retail Benefits” and “Retail Experience”, and the aspects of “shops are too expensive” and “rather purchase at park shops than exit during holiday”. Spearman correlation was used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the factors of age and gross income. The most significant negative correlation occurred between “Retail Experience” and “Retail Benefits” (-.410), while the most significant positive relationship was between “Retail Benefits” and “Variety”. Each of the factors was also tested with the demographics in order to understand the relationships between them. This was done by means of ANOVA and t-tests. The results for restaurant factors indicated that:

- “Satisfaction” was very important to males, German and French tourists, respondents who were living together, respondents who lived outside the borders of South Africa, Wild Card holders, and respondents who did not use park restaurants at all;
- “Variety” was important to males, German speakers, respondents who were living together and widowed respondents, those living in the Western Cape and respondents from outside the borders of South Africa, non-Wild-Card holders, and respondents who did not use park restaurants at all; and
- “experience nature while dining” was important to females, German speakers, respondents who were widowed, respondents who resided in the Western Cape and Eastern Cape and those from outside the South African borders, non-Wild-Card holders, and respondents who did not make use of park restaurants at all.

The results for shop factors indicated that respondents who agreed with:

- “Retail Benefits” were females, German speakers, single respondents, those who resided outside the borders of South Africa, and Wild Card holders;



- “Retail Experience” were females, Afrikaans, German, and French speakers, married respondents, those who resided in Limpopo and the Free State, respondents who used the park restaurants on more than one occasion, and those who only used the takeaway section and not the restaurant;
- “shop inside the park rather than exit during holiday” were females, Afrikaans speakers, single respondents and those who were living together, respondents from the North West and Mpumalanga, non-Wild-Card holders, respondents who did not use park restaurants at all, and those who made use of takeaway facilities only and not restaurants; and
- “shops are too expensive” were male, German and French speakers, respondents who were living together, respondents from outside the borders of South Africa, Wild Card holders, and those who made use of the park restaurants on more than one occasion.

A conceptual model was devised in order to test the relationship between concessionaire food and beverage operations and the various factors identified in the literature and, subsequently, the factor analysis. Structural equation modelling identified a proposed model, which was tested, and acceptable support was found for the hypothesised model. All hypotheses stated in Chapter 1 were supported, bar H<sup>5</sup>, which was not supported, which indicated that no significant relationship existed between “shops are too expensive” and “concessionaire food and beverage operations”. The following chapter, Chapter 5, discusses the conclusions drawn from the study and the resulting recommendations.

# Chapter 5

## ***CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS***

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter reported the results, as determined through the empirical analysis. In this chapter, the study is concluded; therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to present the conclusions of the research and to make recommendations based on the results.

The goal of this study was to develop a concessionaire model for food and beverage operations in South African national parks. Such a model will assist SANParks in understanding the needs of tourists in terms of food and beverage consumption. Understanding what tourists require will enable SANParks to award a food and beverage concessionaire that is better able to satisfy these needs. Ensuring that the most appropriate concession is awarded will safeguard against potential negative feedback with regard to shops and restaurants.

Chapter 1 presented an overview of the research. The introduction was clarified, specifically regarding the lack of social science research into food consumption as part of the travel experience. The problem statement indicated the current financial constraints that had been placed on protected areas as well as the dissatisfaction of tourists with current concessionaires within SANParks, with specific reference to restaurants, shops, and shops. Insight into these aspects will enable SANParks to make educated decisions regarding the awarding of concessionaires of restaurants, takeaways, and shops. Previous research into tourist food consumption was identified, indicating that no current research existed into developing a concessionaire food and beverage model. The research methodology for the study was interpreted and consisted of a literature review, empirical

study, and data analysis. Finally, a framework for the chapters was discussed. The goal of the study was identified in this chapter, and the following six research objectives were derived from the goal of the study:

- To analyse good governance and public-private partnerships (PPPs) in protected areas by means of a literature review. Chapter 2 focused on good governance and public-private partnerships of protected areas in order to attain the first objective (see section 1.3.2) of the study. Funding for protected areas has come under threat, and as such, they are required to introduce innovative ideas through which resources can be obtained. The six IUCN management categories of protected areas were defined and discussed in order to understand the primary management objective. Good governance principles and models for protected areas were explained. Public-private partnerships occur when part of the services that falls under the responsibility of the public sector is provided by the private sector. Types, benefits, and risks of PPPs were explained as well a clarification for the need of PPPs in protected areas. A discussion of SANParks emphasised the commercialisation strategy, which came about as a result of the budgetary constraints. Problems associated with the current shop and restaurants concessionaires were identified and analysed with reference to the SANParks Annual Report 2011/2012.
- To analyse the consumer behaviour of tourists with regard to food and beverage consumption by analysing the relevant literature. Chapter 3 introduced the concept of food consumer behaviour for travel dining in order to fulfil the second objective (see section 1.3.2) of the study. Research regarding food consumer behaviour for tourists is in its infancy and neglected as far as social science research is concerned. Factors affecting tourist food consumption were postulated and adapted from current research. Three areas were identified and discussed, namely, the tourist, food at the destination, and destination food service. Various food service models currently emerging in research were discussed.
- To determine the factors influencing dining at park restaurants and shop facilities by means of an empirical study. Chapter 4 presented the data in order to attain the third research objective (see section 1.3.2). Data was discussed in terms of descriptive statistics and causal results. Descriptive statistics included a demographic profile of tourists who made use of parks and consumer choices of these tourists in terms of

catering preferences, purchase of provisions, use of park restaurants and B&B accommodation, and Wild Card status. Descriptive statistics further explained the restaurant and shop factors by means of a factor analysis, which identified two restaurant factors and three shop factors. Restaurant factors included “Satisfaction” and “Variety”, while shop factors consisted of “Retail Benefits”, “Retail Pricing”, and “Retail Experience”. Due to the low Cronbach alpha value for “Retail Pricing”, which proved not to be reliable, the aspects were reported separately. Causal results included Spearman correlation, ANOVA, and t-test comparisons, which discussed statistically significant relationships between factors and demographics.

- To determine the relationship between factors and selected variables pertaining to restaurant and shop facilities by means of an empirical study. In Chapter 1, hypotheses were listed, stating the relationship between factors and selected variables, which were tested in Chapter 4 by means of structural equation modelling (see 1.3.2).
- To interpret results from empirical analysis and literature review in order to identify key components of a concessionaire model for nature-based products. Chapter 4 presented the empirical analysis. Factors that were identified in Chapter 3 as important to tourist food consumption were analysed and presented. These key components were then illustrated in a conceptual framework, through which structural equation modelling was utilised to determine a good fit.
- To draw conclusions and make recommendations with regard to the implementation and application of a concessionaire model for food and beverage operations in South African national parks. Chapter 5 presents the conclusions and recommendations of this study. Each objective will be discussed separately in order to demonstrate how each was achieved. Finally, a model for concessionaire food and beverage operations will be proposed in order to achieve the main goal of the study.

The purpose of this chapter is to present the conclusions and recommendations of this study and to present a proposed model of concessionaire food and beverage operations for South African national parks.

## 5.2 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions regarding the research can be drawn:

- Conclusions with regard to good governance and public-private partnerships in protected areas
- Conclusions pertaining to tourist food consumption
- Conclusions with regard to the demographic profile of park visitors
- Conclusions regarding factors of restaurant and shop facilities
- Conclusion pertaining to causal results

### 5.2.1 Conclusions with regard to good governance and public-private partnerships of protected areas

The following are regarded as the main conclusions for research objective 1 (see section 1.3.2):

- Funding to protected areas has been cut, and alternative funding sources are imperative to ensure the continued existence of protected areas (cf. 2.1).
- Due to lack of funds, governance of protected areas is under threat of becoming ineffectual, which jeopardises the effective management of protected areas (cf. 2.1).
- The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) has identified six management categories of protected areas, of which national parks is one such category (cf. 2.2).
- The five principles of good governance for protected areas are legitimacy and voice, direction, performance, accountability, and fairness (cf. 2.3).
- There are three elements of conservation management in national parks, namely, ownership, income, and the management body (cf. 2.3.1).
- Several models of management for visitor and tourism management have been identified for national parks. They are governmental arrangements, the public utility model, cross-sector alliances, regulated monopolies, divestiture, community conserved areas, and the national park model (cf. 2.3.1).
- Public-private partnerships refer to arrangements between the public and private sectors, where part of the service that falls under the public's responsibility is provided by the private sector (cf. 2.4).

- Types of PPPs are identified as private participation in infrastructure (PPI), private sector participation (PSP), P3 (used in the USA), privately funded projects (used in Australia), and private finance initiatives (PFIs), used in the UK, Japan, and Malaysia (cf. 2.4.1).
- Despite the different names, the premise for PPPs remains unchanged, which is that PPPs are long-term commercial partnerships between the public and private sectors, the benefits of PPPs are broader than accessing private capital, and PPPs can deliver significant benefits in terms of increased quality and quantity of infrastructure services (cf. 2.4.1).
- The various forms of PPPs are management and “operation and maintenance” contracts (cf. 2.4.1.1), leases (cf. 2.4.1.2), joint ventures (cf. 2.4.1.3), concessions (cf. 2.4.1.4), build-operate-transfer (cf. 2.4.1.4), and design-build-operate-transfer (cf. 2.4.1.4).
- PPPs can deliver better value for money (cf. 2.4.2) and have many benefits (cf. 2.4.2.1); however, there are potential risks involved (cf. 2.4.2.2).
- The need for PPPs was justified (cf. 2.4.3) and the type of PPP for protected areas discussed (cf. 2.4.3.1).
- The history and organisational environment within SANParks were deliberated (cf. 2.5 and 2.5.1).
- The commercialisation strategy, adopted in 2000, was explained, indicating its financial receipts (cf. 2.5.2).
- Shortcomings of restaurant and shop concessions identified by tourists were discussed (cf. 2.5.3).
- The SANParks Annual Report 2011/2012 was discussed in terms of tourist feedback (Figure 2.4) and a performance chart, indicating poor performance in shops and dining (Figure 2.5), performance of restaurants (Figure 2.6), and shops (Figure 2.7).
- Food service should be seen as a crucial part of the tourist holiday experience (cf. 2.5.3).

## **5.2.2 Conclusions with regard to tourist food consumer behaviour**

The following are regarded as the main conclusions for research objective 2 (see 1.3.2):

- Tourist food consumption is a crucial form of tourist consumption, but has been largely neglected in the hospitality and tourism literature (cf. 3.1).
- Understanding tourist consumption behaviour is essential for the host destination due to the economic benefits of tourist flow and tourism spending (cf. 3.1).
- Understanding how and why consumers make their choices is vital for the marketing plan of a destination (cf. 3.2).
- The consumer decision-making process consists of the recognition of a need, the search for information, pre-purchase alternative evaluation, purchase, consumption, and post-purchase evaluation (cf. 3.2.1).
- Dissatisfaction is the beginning of all behaviour (cf. 3.2.1).
- Food choice is affected by numerous interrelating factors (cf. 3.2.2).
- Variables related to tourist food consumption are divided into the tourist, the food at the destination, and destination food service (cf. 3.2.3).
- The tourist is influenced by individual factors, group factors, socio-demographic factors, food-related personality types, and motivational factors (cf. 3.2.3.1).
- Individual factors are perception, attitude, personality, and lifestyle (cf. 3.2.3.1).
- Group factors consist of culture, religion, reference groups, social class/stature, and family group and family life cycle (cf. 3.2.3.1).
- Socio-demographic factors include age, gender, income, and education (cf. 3.2.3.1).
- Food-related personality types are comprised of food neophobia and food neophilia (cf. 3.2.3.1).
- Motivational factors are based on the theory that once a person's goals have been achieved, the needs subside, and until they arise again, the person is in a state of normality, which is depicted by Maslow's hierarchy of needs (cf. 3.2.3.1).
- Food at the destination can be classified as a "peak" experience instead of a "supporting" experience (cf. 3.2.3.2).
- Sensory perceptions play a psychological and physiological role in appraisal and appreciation of food (cf. 3.2.3.2).

- There are a number of fallacies concerning sensory food attributes (cf. 3.2.3.2).
- Consumers have become health-conscious and require variety and diversity of meals (cf. 3.2.3.2).
- Destination food service relates to the service encounter and type of restaurant/takeaway facility (cf. 3.2.3.3).
- Restaurants perform better if they are franchised than if not (cf. 3.2.3.3).
- Types of franchise agreements include product and trade name franchising, business format franchising, a master licence, multiple-unit ownership, area developers, and piggyback franchising (cf. 3.2.3.3).
- There are benefits and potential disadvantages of franchising with reference to SANParks (cf. 3.2.3.3).
- Food service models related to tourist food consumption (cf. 3.3) consist of the conceptual model of the tourist experience according to Quan and Wang (cf. 3.3.1), the food consumption model according to Mak *et al.* (cf. 3.3.2), and the model of local food consumption at a destination by Kim *et al.* (cf. 3.3.3).
- No concession model for food and beverage operations exists in the literature (cf. 3.3).

### **5.2.3 Conclusions with regard to the demographic profile of tourists to SANParks**

The following are regarded as the main conclusions for objective 3 (see 1.3.2):

- The majority of respondents were male (60%) (cf. 4.2.1.1).
- The largest group of respondents (29%) was aged between 51 and 60 years (cf. 4.2.1.2).
- The majority of respondents spoke English (48%) at home (cf. 4.2.1.3).
- Eighty per cent (80%) of respondents were married (cf. 4.2.1.4).
- Most of the respondents (42%) lived in Gauteng (cf. 4.2.1.5).
- Tertiary qualifications (78%) were the highest level of education obtained by most respondents (cf. 4.2.1.6).
- Twenty-two per cent (22%) of respondents did not wish to disclose their annual gross income (cf. 4.2.1.7).



#### **5.2.4 Conclusions with regard to consumer choices of tourists to SANParks**

The following are regarded as the main conclusions for objective 3 (see 1.3.2):

- The majority of respondents (51%) indicated that they preferred self-catering chalet accommodation (cf. 4.2.2.1).
- Forty-two per cent (42%) of respondents purchased some items in the park at park shops (cf. 4.2.2.2).
- Respondents who visited park restaurants at least once during they stay comprised 43% (cf. 4.2.2.3).
- The majority of respondents (55%) indicated that they would make use of bed and breakfast accommodation at national parks if the restaurants provided a quality breakfast option (cf. 4.2.2.4).
- Most of the respondents (67%) were not in possession of a Wild Card (cf. 4.2.2.5).

#### **5.2.5 Conclusions with regard to restaurant and shop factors in SANParks**

The following are regarded as the main conclusions for objective 3 (see 1.3.2):

- Restaurant aspects yielded two factors, namely, “Satisfaction” and “Variety” (cf. 4.2.3.1).
- Shop factors yielded three factors, namely, “Retail Benefits”, “Retail Pricing, and “Retail Experience” (cf. 4.2.3.2).
- “Retail Pricing” yielded a low and unreliable Cronbach alpha, and as such, the two aspects “shops are too expensive” and “rather pay more in park shops than exit during holiday” were treated as separate factors (cf. 4.2.3.2).

#### **5.2.6 Conclusions with regard to Spearman rank order correlations for SANParks**

The following are regarded as main conclusions for objective 3 (see 1.3.2):

- Spearman rank order correlation yielded a significant negative relationship (-.410) between “Retail Experience” and “Retail Benefits” (cf. 4.3.1).
- The most significant positive relationship (.345) was between “Variety” and “Retail Benefits (cf. 4.3.1).

- Age yielded a negative correlation with “Retail Experience” (-.041), “Variety” (-.042), “experience nature while dining” (-.195), and “shops are too expensive” (-.045) (cf. 4.3.1).
- Age yielded positive correlations with “Retail Benefits” (.059), “Satisfaction” (.002), “rather pay more at park shops than exit during holiday” (.093), and “gross income” (.043) (cf. 4.3.1).
- Gross income yielded a negative correlation with “rather pay more in park shops than exit during holiday” (-.033) (cf. 4.3.1).
- The highest positive correlation for gross income was with “shops are too expensive” (.112) (cf. 4.3.1).

### **5.2.7 Conclusions with regard to comparisons of restaurant and shop factors with demographics**

The following are regarded as main conclusions for objective 4 (see 1.3.2):

- “Satisfaction” was important to males (c.f. 4.3.2.1), German and French tourists (c.f. 4.3.2.2), respondents who were living together (c.f. 4.3.2.3), respondents who lived outside the borders of South Africa (c.f. 4.3.2.4), Wild Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5), and respondents who did not use park restaurants at all (c.f. 4.3.2.6).
- “Satisfaction” was deemed unimportant to English-speaking respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.2), respondents residing in Mpumalanga and Limpopo (c.f. 4.3.2.4), non-Wild-Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5), and respondents who only made use of takeaway facilities and not restaurants (c.f. 4.3.2.6).
- “Variety” was important to males (c.f. 4.3.2.1), German-speaking respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.2), respondents who were living together and widowed respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.3), those living in the Western Cape and respondents from outside the borders of South Africa (c.f. 4.3.2.4), non-Wild-Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5), and respondents who did not use park restaurants at all (c.f. 4.3.2.6).
- “Variety” was deemed unimportant to females (c.f. 4.3.2.1), Afrikaans respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.2), divorced respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.3), those residing in Mpumalanga and Limpopo (c.f. 4.3.2.4), and respondents who only made use of takeaway facilities and not restaurants (c.f. 4.3.2.6).

- “Experience nature while dining” was important to females (c.f. 4.3.2.1), German-speaking respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.2), respondents who were widowed (c.f. 4.3.2.3), respondents who resided in the Western Cape and Eastern Cape and those from outside the South African borders (c.f. 4.3.2.4), non-Wild-Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5), and respondents who did not make use of park restaurants at all (c.f. 4.3.2.6).
- “Experience nature while dining” was deemed unimportant to Afrikaans respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.2), single respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.3), respondents residing in Gauteng and the North West (c.f. 4.3.2.4), Wild Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5), and respondents who used park restaurants on more than one occasion (c.f. 4.3.2.6).
- Respondents who agreed with the “Retail Benefits” factor were males (c.f. 4.3.2.1), German-speaking respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.2), single respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.3), those who resided outside the borders of South Africa (c.f. 4.3.2.4), and Wild Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5).
- Respondents who did not agree with “Retail Benefits” were females (c.f. 4.3.2.1), Afrikaans respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.2), respondents who were widowed and those who were married (c.f. 4.3.2.3), respondents residing in the Free State (c.f. 4.3.2.4), non-Wild-Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5), and respondents who used only the takeaway facilities and not restaurants (c.f. 4.3.2.6).
- Respondents who agreed with “Retail Experience” factors were females (c.f. 4.3.2.1), Afrikaans, German, and French speakers (c.f. 4.3.2.2), married respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.3), those who resided in Limpopo and the Free State (c.f. 4.3.2.4), and respondents who used the park restaurants on more than one occasion and those who only used the takeaway section and not the restaurant (c.f. 4.3.2.6).
- Respondents who did not agree with “Retail Experience” factors were males (c.f. 4.3.2.1), English respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.2), single respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.3), respondents residing in the Northern Cape (c.f. 4.3.2.4), Wild Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5), and respondents who did not make use of park restaurants at all (c.f. 4.3.2.6).
- Respondents who agreed with “rather shop inside the park than exit during the holiday” were females (c.f. 4.3.2.1), Afrikaans respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.2), single respondents and those who were living together (c.f. 4.3.2.3), respondents from the North West and Mpumalanga (c.f. 4.3.2.4), non-Wild-Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5), and respondents who

did not use park restaurants at all and those who made use of takeaway facilities only and not restaurants (c.f. 4.3.2.6).

- Respondents who did not agree with “rather shop inside the park than exit during the holiday” were males (c.f. 4.3.2.1), French-speaking respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.2), widowed respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.3), respondents from outside the borders of South Africa (c.f. 4.3.2.4), Wild Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5), and respondents who used park restaurants on more than one occasion (c.f. 4.3.2.6).
- Respondents who agreed with “shops are too expensive” were male (c.f. 4.3.2.1), German and French speakers (c.f. 4.3.2.2), respondents who were living together (c.f. 4.3.2.3), respondents from outside the borders of South Africa (c.f. 4.3.2.4), Wild Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5), and those who made use of the park restaurants on more than one occasion (c.f. 4.3.2.6).
- Respondents who did not agree with “shops are too expensive” were females (c.f. 4.3.2.1), Afrikaans respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.2), married respondents (c.f. 4.3.2.3), respondents residing in the Free State (c.f. 4.3.2.4), non-Wild-Card holders (c.f. 4.3.2.5), and respondents who did not make use of park restaurants at all (c.f. 4.3.2.6).

## **5.2.8 Conclusions with regard to the concessionaire food and beverage operations model for SANParks**

The following are considered the main conclusions for objective 5 (see 1.3.2):

- A conceptual model for concessionaire food and beverage operations in SANParks was hypothesised (cf. 4.4).
- The conceptual model was analysed using structural equation modelling, and a proposed concessionaire model for food and beverage operations in SANParks was identified (cf. 4.4.1).
- Goodness-of-fit indices were used to assess the model’s goodness of fit and were found to be statistically significant (cf. 4.4.1).
- There was a relationship between:
  - “Satisfaction” and “Food Service” (cf. 4.4.2);
  - “Variety” and “Food Service” (cf. 4.4.2);
  - “Retail Benefits” and “Food Service” (cf. 4.4.2);

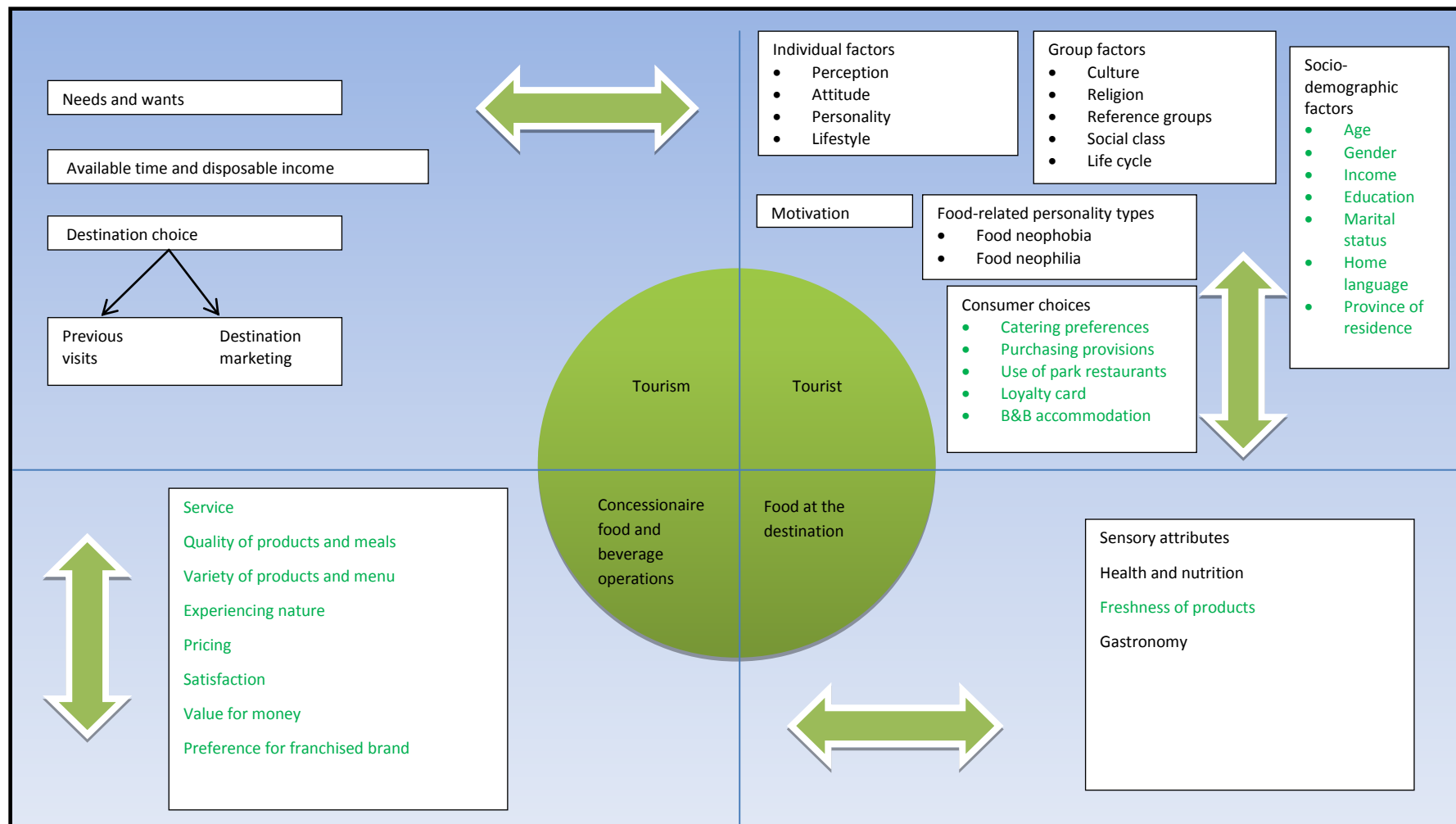
- “Retail Experience” and “Food Service” (cf. 4.4.2);
- “Satisfaction” and “Variety” (cf. 4.4.2);
- “Satisfaction” and “Retail Benefits” (cf. 4.4.2);
- “Satisfaction” and “Retail Experience” (cf. 4.4.2);
- “Variety” and “Retail Benefits” (cf. 4.4.2);
- “Variety” and “Retail Experience” (cf. 4.4.2); and
- “Retail Benefits” and “Retail Experience” (cf. 4.4.2).
- There was no relationship between:
  - “shops being too expensive” and “Food Service” (cf. 4.4.1).
- The final model (as indicated in Figure 5.1) was developed from the literature analysis and the empirical investigation. This model consists of four quadrants, namely, tourism, the tourist, food at the destination, and concessionaire food and beverage operations. Tourism needs to take place for there to be a tourist.
  - Tourism requires that needs and wants are identified, that time and money are available in order to satisfy these needs and wants, and that, finally, a destination is chosen. The destination is chosen on the basis of either previous visits to a destination or destination marketing for a new destination. Once a need and want for tourism have been established, the tourist will determine the destination and type of tourism, based on tourist consumer behaviour choices. With reference to the proposed model, this will be determined by motivation, socio-demographic factors, group factors, individual factors, consumer choices and food related personality types. Tourism therefore affects the tourist in terms of destination choice which is in turn affected by consumer choices.
  - Tourist consumer behaviour with regard to food is affected by factors such as individual factors, group factors, socio-demographic factors, motivation, food-related personality types, and consumer choices – all of which determine food choices and preferences. Tourist consumer behaviour is affected by the type of tourism entered into as well as food at the destination. Health and nutrition, sensory attributes, freshness of products and gastronomy all contribute to the decision the tourist will make in terms of destination. It is important to understand that this model is related specifically to destinations such as SANParks as all food and beverage operations are within the enclosed Park and dining outside the Park is not possible. Therefore

the food and beverage operations are of utmost importance and will contribute significantly to the choice of destination. This model can be adapted to other destinations, but the food and beverage operations would be only a small part of the contributing factors for destination choice.

- Food at the destination is affected by factors such as sensory attributes, health and nutrition, freshness of products, and gastronomy. Due to the fact that food and beverage operations within SANParks form the only option in terms of restaurants and shop facilities, this aspect is important in terms of destination choice. The type of food and beverage operations available will affect the concession food and beverage operations in terms of service, quality of products and meals, variety, pricing, satisfaction and value for money.
- Finally, concessionaire food and beverage operations are affected by factors such as service, quality of products and meals, variety of products and menus, experiencing nature while dining, pricing, satisfaction, value for money, and preference for a franchised brand. It is important to note that tourism factors that affect the tourist are also affected by tourist consumer behaviour choices. The tourist consumer behaviour choices affect the food choices at the destination, but are also affected by the food choices. Food at the destination affects the concessionaire food and beverage operations and is affected by concessionaire food and beverage operations. Lastly, concessionaire food and beverage operations affect tourism and are affected by tourism. Tourism affects concessionaire food and beverage operations in terms of previous visits to the destination as well as destination choice.

This model proposes a holistic view of tourism in respect of food and beverage operations for nature-based products. It will allow SANParks to determine what it is that affects the decisions of tourists with respect to destination choice specifically regarding food and beverage operations at a destination. In order for the model to be effective, all four quadrants need to be assessed and utilised. SANParks must understand the tourist's decisions regarding the type of tourism chosen, the consumer behaviour of tourists in terms of food and beverage operations and the requirements for concession food and beverage operations. Decisions on future food and beverage concessions within

SANParks should take the consumer behaviour of tourists visiting SANParks into consideration. The model identifies the factors which tourists found important in terms of food at the destination and as such provide a framework from which SANParks can identify the best fit concessionaire. Factors such as service, quality of products and meals, variety of products and menu, pricing, satisfaction, value for money, preference for a franchised brand and freshness of products all indicate the measured factors which tourists find important. Therefore SANParks should identify concessionaires which are able to best offer these factors in order to improve the state of restaurants and shops within Parks. This model can therefore be used to provide an interpretation of what is required from concessionaires within SANParks.



**Figure 5.1: Concessionaire model for food and beverage operations for nature-based products**

**Source: Author's own proposed model based on the literature and empirical results**



### **5.3 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THIS STUDY**

The following contributions were made by this study:

- This study made a huge practical contribution by analysing consumer food and beverage preferences and needs in a nature-based product in South Africa. This was the first study of its kind, and it can greatly assist SANParks in improving the current product offering.
- A significant contribution was made by developing the model, which can now be implemented by SANParks, but also tested in other parks to determine its comprehensive applicability and to develop it even further.
- The literature analysis also highlighted the function of SANParks and the current financial position, which indicated the importance of food and beverage operations in the parks.

### **5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.4.1 General recommendations**

- SANParks should implement and further test the model indicated above in order to focus on the aspects important to tourists and fulfilling their needs. Food and beverage experiences can make a significant difference in the overall experience of the visitor.
- Future concessionaire contracts awarded by SANParks to private food and beverage operations should consider the requirements of tourists with regard to food consumption.
- SANParks should, in future, identify the causes of the negative feedback received from tourists and determine the best remedial action for these causes with immediate action.
- The benefits of the Wild Card loyalty programme need to be revised in the future, as tourists do not feel the need to purchase Wild Cards when visiting the park. This could be linked to buying food in the park as well as dining at the restaurants.
- SANParks has identified that rentals received by concessionaires remain lucrative to the parks, to such a degree that any complaints continue to be negligible. Food and beverage operations will continue to perform poorly if these complaints are not acknowledged and some form of remedial action is not taken. It is advised, then, that

SANParks ascertain the cause of the complaints regarding these operations and identify various strategies that can be implemented to overcome them.

- SANParks should distinguish between the needs and wants of domestic tourists as opposed to international tourists. The results indicate that the requirements of these two groups can be significantly different with regard to food choice and preference.
- Tourists need to be made aware of research being conducted in parks as well as the results of these research projects. They need to be made aware of any positive changes made by SANParks.

#### **5.4.2 Recommendations with regard to further research**

The following recommendations are made for further research:

- It is important for SANParks to understand the underlying details of complaints from tourists with regard to restaurants and takeaway facilities.
- Further research into tourist consumer behaviour with regard to provision purchases before arriving at parks will enable SANParks to identify shortfalls and maximise on tourist expenditure.
- It is important for SANParks to investigate loyalty and reward programmes available in other protected areas as well as other commercial programmes, with the intention of introducing a beneficial reward programme for frequent visitors.
- Aspects not considered for this study, such as food-related personality types and the importance of health and nutrition in food and beverage choices, should be researched in future.
- A distinction should be made between the requirements of domestic tourists and international tourists. Their requirements with regard to food are quite different.
- Research related to the difference in tourists' preferences for food and beverage operations for different tourism products should be conducted. This study focused on nature-based products, but tourists visiting other attractions will have different preferences, and research into these preferences will assist destination management.
- This research should be conducted in all parks, and results should be adapted to the requirements of individual parks.

- The research conducted did not take into account all aspects that could affect tourist food consumption. Therefore, future research into these aspects and their effect on food and beverage operations can be conducted.
- An in-depth knowledge of tourist food consumption is required for all hospitality operations in order to satisfy tourists.
- Further research into the most appropriate type of franchising agreement for nature-based products is required.

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## ANNEXURE A

### SANPARKS SURVEY 2011: PARK RESTAURANTS AND SHOPS

#### SECTION A

Email address for competition purposes:

1. Gender?

|   |   |
|---|---|
| M | 1 |
| F | 2 |

2. What is your age?

|                  |   |
|------------------|---|
| 21-30 yrs        | 1 |
| 31-40 yrs        | 2 |
| 41-50 yrs        | 3 |
| 51-60 yrs        | 4 |
| 61-70 yrs        | 5 |
| 71 yrs and older | 6 |

3. Home Language?

|                        |   |
|------------------------|---|
| Afrikaans              | 1 |
| English                | 2 |
| Other (please specify) | 3 |

4. Marital status?

|                 |   |
|-----------------|---|
| Single          | 1 |
| Married         | 2 |
| Living together | 3 |
| Divorced        | 4 |
| Widow/ed        | 5 |

5. Province of residence?

|                                     |    |
|-------------------------------------|----|
| Gauteng                             | 1  |
| Western Cape                        | 2  |
| Eastern Cape                        | 3  |
| North West                          | 4  |
| Mpumalanga                          | 5  |
| Northern Cape                       | 6  |
| KwaZulu-Natal                       | 7  |
| Limpopo                             | 8  |
| Free State                          | 9  |
| Outside SA borders (please specify) | 10 |

6. Are you a Wild Card Holder?

|     |   |
|-----|---|
| Yes | 1 |
| No  | 2 |

7. Highest level of education?

|                  |   |
|------------------|---|
| Doctorate degree | 1 |
| Master's degree  | 2 |
| Honours degree   | 3 |
| Degree           | 4 |
| Diploma          | 5 |
| Matric           | 6 |
| Pre-matric       | 7 |
| Other            | 8 |

8. What is your gross annual income?

|                     |   |
|---------------------|---|
| < R20 000           | 1 |
| R20 001 – R140 000  | 2 |
| R140 001 – R221 000 | 3 |
| R221 001 – R305 000 | 4 |
| R305 001 – R431 000 | 5 |
| R431 001 – R552 000 | 6 |
| R552 000>           | 7 |

9. Which catering do you prefer when visiting national parks?

|                          |   |
|--------------------------|---|
| Camping                  | 1 |
| Self-catering chalet     | 2 |
| Dine out & self-catering | 3 |
| Bed & breakfast          | 4 |
| Dinner, bed & breakfast  | 5 |

10. Where do you usually purchase your provisions when visiting national parks?

|                                   |   |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Supermarkets at home              | 1 |
| Supermarkets en route to the park | 2 |
| Some items at park shops          | 3 |
| Some items in towns near the park | 4 |

11. If park restaurants were to offer a quality breakfast product, would you make use of the B&B rate?

|     |   |
|-----|---|
| YES | 1 |
| NO  | 2 |



## SECTION B

13. SANParks has restaurants operational in the majority of camps in National Parks. However, feedback from SANParks' customers has indicated that the dining product offered in the restaurants and at the take-away facilities is at best "average" and in many instances "poor". SANParks is of the view that the introduction of South African Restaurant Brands through a franchise model will resolve the problems that are currently experienced at the restaurants ensuring consistency, value for money, product and pricing options, quality of offering and high service standards.

Based on the above please answer the following questions:

|                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              | Total agree      |   |   |   |   |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|---|---|---|---|
|                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              | Agree            |   |   |   |   |
|                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              | Neutral          |   |   |   |   |
|                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              | Disagree         |   |   |   |   |
|                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              | Totally disagree |   |   |   |   |
| The introduction of a restaurant brand for example Spur, Cape Town Fish Market, Mugg and Bean, Café 41, Tashas, Wimpy, House of coffees, Cattle Baron, Primi Piatti, Tuscan BBQ, Carnivore, Wiesenhofs, Burgundys, Brazza, Bugattis, Fournos, Newscafe, Moyo's, Buther House, John Dorys, Famous Fishhoeks, Cofi, House of coffees, or Panarottis (which ever suites the park and/or camp) would improve the dining experience in National Parks restaurants | 1                | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

If you TOTALLY DISAGREE, please explain why.

|                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                |   |   |   |   |   |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| The introduction of a take-away brand for example Debonaires, Steers, Nandos, Sandwich Baron, Romans, Scooters, Anat, KFC, Milky Lane, Vovotelo, Kauai food or Juicy Lucy (which ever suites a park and/or camp) would improve the take away experience at National Parks Take Away facilities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|

If you TOTALLY DISAGREE, please explain why.

Please indicate which brands you would like to see in the parks and why

Please indicate which brands you would not like to see in the parks and why not

## SECTION C

14. The following section aims to determine which areas of dining in National Parks are more and which are less important. Please complete to inform SANParks on these areas.

|                                                                                               | Very Important       |   |   |   |   |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------|---|---|---|---|
|                                                                                               | Important            |   |   |   |   |
|                                                                                               | Neutral              |   |   |   |   |
|                                                                                               | Less Important       |   |   |   |   |
|                                                                                               | Not important at all |   |   |   |   |
| Experience nature whilst dining, i.e. outside dining                                          | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Product options (menu variety)                                                                | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Value for money                                                                               | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Pricing (affordability is more important than quality)                                        | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Menu variety (fish, meat, vegetarian, kiddies, halaal, etc)                                   | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Pricing options (availability of smaller / cheaper options and expensive fine dining options) | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Quality of meals                                                                              | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Service efficiency                                                                            | 1                    | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

15. The following section refers to the shops in National Parks. Please answer the questions as this would inform us on the product that needs to be offered in the shops:

|                                                                                                                                                  | Totally agree    |   |   |   |   |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|---|---|---|---|
|                                                                                                                                                  | Agree            |   |   |   |   |
|                                                                                                                                                  | Neutral          |   |   |   |   |
|                                                                                                                                                  | Disagree         |   |   |   |   |
|                                                                                                                                                  | Totally disagree |   |   |   |   |
| The shops in National Parks should focus more on fast moving consumer goods                                                                      | 1                | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Curios should be sold separately from the food and beverage sales in National Park shops                                                         | 1                | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Wild Card holders should have benefits such as discounts at Park restaurants and shops                                                           | 1                | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Park shops should have more products aimed at a variety of markets including children                                                            | 1                | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The shops in National Parks caters for my requirements and no major changes are required                                                         | 1                | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| A retail brand such as SPAR, 7-Eleven, Pick n Pay, Friendly or Woolworths Foods will enhance my retail experience in National Parks              | 1                | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The shops should focus on freshness of vegetables, meat and bread                                                                                | 1                | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Buying my provisions before leaving on holiday is part of my holiday and will remain so even if the shops are less pricy and stock a wider range | 1                | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I would rather pay more at the shop in the park than to exit the park during my holiday to buy from less expensive outlets outside the park      | 1                | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The shops are too expensive                                                                                                                      | 1                | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**THANK YOU FOR COOPERATION!**