

Developing a framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination

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DECLARATION WITH REGARD TO INDEPENDENT WORK

I, Susan Steyn, identity number 8510110102084 and student number 12999318, hereby declare that this research submitted to the North-West University, for the PhD study: **Developing a framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination**, is my own independent work and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the North-West University; and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

MRS SUSAN STEYN

DATE

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ABSTRACT



DEVELOPING A FRAMEWORK FOR THE OPTIMISATION OF THE IMAGE OF SOUTH AFRICA AS A TOURISM DESTINATION

Since the 1970s when the first destination image studies were performed, this topic has become one of the most predominant in the tourism marketing literature. Destination image within the tourism industry is essential, as most tourism products are services rather than physical goods, and can often only compete by means of the image they portray. The image of a specific destination is a major element in the final decision when selecting the destination. Both positive and negative images occur, together having a great impact on the travel and tourism industry. Destinations therefore have to create images of their location and what they have to offer to help differentiate them from their competition. Therefore, potential tourists rely on their mental images when deciding to visit one destination over another.

Different influences emerge within tourist decisions, which affect their ultimate experience. It is therefore clear that, to understand tourists' needs and wants, relationship building is important and this could assist with the marketing of products or services. Marketing plays a central part in tourism, since consumers need to travel to a certain destination to see, feel or test the product that is to be purchased and evaluated.

Image is formed based on three main components. These are: cognitive (what one knows about a destination), affective (how one feels about what one knows) and conative components (how one acts on this information). To date, various image models have been developed. However, none of these have been applied to, tested in, or developed for South Africa. It is therefore important to know how tourists formulate a destinations' image as well as what influences their image regarding a destination. Therefore, to achieve this and the goal of this study, which is to develop a framework for the optimisation of the image of South

Africa as a tourism destination, a comprehensive review of marketing and destination image literature was performed, subsequent to which the research was conducted.

After having conducted the literature review and gathered expert advice and opinions, various literature-based attributes were identified. A total of sixty-three attributes were acknowledged whereafter these were sifted and grouped into Cognitive, Affective and Conative attributes. After taking expert advice into consideration, these attributes were once again sifted and it was determined whether they were applicable for this research. A total of fifty-seven attributes remained important and formed part of the questionnaire. Forty-two attributes were Cognitive, twelve Affective and three Conative.

The research was conducted at the international departure area of a major international airport in South Africa. The respondents consisted of international tourists that were returning to their home countries after visiting South Africa. A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed of which 474 questionnaires were obtained. Of these, 451 questionnaires were usable for this study, as 23 questionnaires were incomplete and not usable. The number of questionnaires was therefore representative of the target population and further analysis. After the questionnaires for this study were gathered, the primary data was captured and analysed.

Different types of data analyses were used in this study: Firstly, descriptive analysis to determine findings concerning the demographic profile of respondents and the respondent's travel behaviour whilst visiting South Africa. Secondly, factor analyses to factorise the image attributes into image factors; and to factorise external aspects into factors and determine how these affect image formation. Thirdly, ANOVAs (One-way analysis of variance) were conducted where more than two categories formed part of the question, *t*-tests were conducted to compare the image factors with questions consisting of only two categories and Spearman rank correlations were conducted to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between selected variables. Finally, Structural Equation Modelling was used to empirically test the framework and evaluate how well the data supports the hypothesised model.

The first factor analysis resulted in 13 reliable and valid factors, which consisted of the cognitive, affective and conative image attributes. These factors, together with the factors of the second factor analysis (Media, Political and Iconic aspects) were used as constructs in the Structural Equation Modelling analysis. After having combined the results of all the different analyses, a framework was developed that identifies the aspects influencing South Africa's image.

Some of the main findings were that media, political happenings and iconic aspects directly influenced cognitive, affective and conative images. Novel to this study was the significant influence of icons. Interestingly, demographic information only affects cognitive image and neither affective nor conative image. Travel behaviour contributes to the formation of cognitive, affective and conative image. However, surprisingly, the lack of influence from travel agents and travel guides was also depicted in the results. This framework emphasises the importance of pre-, onsite and post-experiences as well as communication in image formation.

This study contributes academically, methodologically and practically. Academic contributions include empirically testing the framework, which significantly contributes to literature; and the innovative inclusion and assessment of icons adds a new dimension to image formation in literature. From a methodological point of view, it is clear that the analyses of all influencing aspects are challenging and not standardised. The types of analyses applied in this study enhanced the in-depth analyses of the data that was then included into one framework. The data was empirically tested and found to be reliable. The empirical testing of all aspects in a South African context was different and innovative, which finally created a detailed picture of South Africa's image as a tourism destination. Finally, the practical contribution of this study is that the framework developed for this study can be used by tourism organisations of various types in planning and implementing marketing strategies. The framework can direct their advertising and staff training; and improve the general tourism product of South Africa. The framework can also be applied to other tourism destinations.

Clear recommendations were made regarding the focus of marketing strategies and building the image of South Africa. It was recommended that the framework developed in this study be implemented by national tourism organisations such as SA Tourism, as well as provincial organisations such as Tourism Boards. Product owners can benefit from the framework by considering some of the influential aspects in their product development and marketing strategies. Lastly, all marketing strategies and plans for South Africa should be focused on improving the cognitive, affective and conative image of South Africa.

Keywords: *Marketing; consumer behaviour; tourism marketing; image; destination image; image models; image attributes; image components; image factors; image aspects; South Africa; influencing factors/aspects; travel decisionmaking.*

OPSOMMING



ONTWIKKELING VAN 'N RAAMWERK VIR DIE OPTIMALISERING VAN SUID-AFRIKA SE BEELD AS 'N TOERISMEBESTEMMING

Sedert die 1970's, toe die eerste studies oor bestemmingsbeeld uitgevoer is, het hierdie onderwerp baie belangrik in die toerisme-literatuur geword. Bestemmingsbeeld in die toerismebedryf is noodsaaklik, aangesien die meeste toerismeprodukte eerder dienste is as fisiese goedere, en kan dikwels alleenlik deur middel van die beeld wat uitgestraal word, meeding. Die beeld van 'n spesifieke bestemming is 'n belangrike element in die finale besluit wanneer die keuse oor 'n bestemming gemaak word. Beide positiewe en negatiewe beelde kom voor, wat saam 'n sterk impak maak op die reis- en toerismebedryf. Bestemmings moet gevolglik beelde skep van hulle ligging en wat hulle kan aanbied, om sodoende hulle in staat te stel om hulle van hul mededingers te onderskei. Voornemende toeriste maak dus staat op hul psigiese beeld wanneer hulle besluit om één spesifieke bestemming eerder as 'n ander te besoek.

Verskillende aspekte beïnvloed toeriste se besluite wat 'n effek op hul uiteindelijke ervaring het. Om toeriste se behoeftes en begeertes te verstaan, is dit dus duidelik dat die opbou van verhoudings belangrik is en dit bevorderlik kan wees vir die bemarking van produkte of dienste. Bemarking speel 'n sentrale rol by toerisme, aangesien verbruikers na 'n bepaalde bestemming moet reis om die produk wat gekoop en geëvalueer moet word, te sien, te voel of te toets.

Beeld word gevorm gebaseer op drie hoofkomponente, naamlik kognitiewe komponente (wat 'n mens van 'n bestemming weet), affektiewe komponente (hoe 'n mens voel oor wat jy weet) en konatiewe komponente (hoe 'n mens op hierdie inligting reageer). Tot hede is verskeie beeldmodelle ontwikkel. Geeneen hiervan is egter op Suid-Afrika toegepas, of daarin getoets of daarvoor ontwikkel nie. Dit is dus belangrik om te weet hoe toeriste die beeld van 'n bestemming formuleer asook wat hul beeld rakende 'n bestemming beïnvloed. Dus, om bogenoemde en die doel van hierdie studie, naamlik om 'n raamwerk vir die optimalisering van Suid-Afrika se beeld as 'n toerismebestemming te optimaliseer, te bereik is 'n

omvattende oorsig van literatuur wat bemerking en bestemmingsbeeld dek, gegee, na aanleiding waarvan die navorsing uitgevoer is.

Nadat die literatuuroorsiguitgevoer en kennersadvies en -menings ingewin is, is verskeie literatuurgebaseerdekenmerke geïdentifiseer. In totaal is drie en sestig kenmerke geïdentifiseer waarna dit in Kognitiewe, Affektiewe en Konatiewe kenmerke gesif en gegroepeer is. Nadat kennersadvies ingewin is, is hierdie kenmerke weereens gesif en is daar bepaal of hulle toepaslik is vir hierdie navorsing. In totaal het sewe en vyftig kenmerkebelangrik geblyk te wees en deel van die vraelys uitgemaak. Twee en veertig was Kognitief, twaalf Affektief en drie Konatief.

Die navorsing is by die internasionale vertreksaal van 'n groot internasionale lughawe in Suid-Afrika uitgevoer. Die respondente het bestaan uit internasionale toeriste wat na hul tuislande teruggekeer het ná hul besoek aan Suid-Afrika. 'n Totaal van 500 vraelyste is versprei, waarvan 474 vraelyste verkry is. Uit hierdie 474 vraelyste was 451 bruikbaar vir hierdie studie, aangesien 23 vraelyste onvolledig en onbruikbaar was. Die aantal vraelyste was dus verteenwoordigend van die teikenpopulasie en bruikbaar vir verdere analise.

Na insameling van die vraelyste vir hierdie studie is die primêre data vasgelê en geanaliseer. Verskillende tipes data-analise is in hierdie studie uitgevoer: Eerstens, beskrywende analise om bevindinge rakende die respondente se profiel en hul reisgedrag terwyl hulle Suid-Afrika besoek het, te bepaal. Tweedens, faktor-analisesom die beeldkenmerke in beeldfaktore te faktoriseer en te bepaal hoe dié faktore beeldvorming beïnvloed. Derdens is eenrigtingvariënsie-analises (ANOVAs – One-way analysis of variance) uitgevoer waar meer as twee kategorieë deel uitgemaak het van die vraag, *t*-toetse is uitgevoer om die beeldfaktore met vrae wat uit slegs twee kategorieë bestaan het, te vergelyk en Spearman se rangorde-korrelasies is uitgevoer om die sterkte en rigting van die lineêre verhouding tussen geselekteerde veranderlikes te beskryf. Laastens is Strukturele Modellerings (Structural Equation Modelling) gebruikom die raamwerk empiries te toets en om te evalueer hoe goed die data die gehipotetiseerde model ondersteun.

Die eerste faktoranalise het uitloop op dertien betroubare en geldige faktore, wat bestaan het uit die kognitiewe, affektiewe en konatiewe beeldkenmerke. Hierdie faktore, gepaard met die faktore van die tweede faktoranalise (Media-, Politiese en Ikoniese aspekte) is as konstrakte in die Strukturele Modelleringsanalise gebruik. Nadat die resultate van al die verskillende analises gekombineer is, is 'n raamwerk ontwikkel wat die aspekte wat die beeld van Suid-Afrika beïnvloed, geïdentifiseer.

Sommige van die hoofbevindinge was dat media-aspekte, politiekegebeure-aspekte en ikoniese aspekte kognitiewe, affektiewe en konatiewe beelde beïnvloed het. Nuut aan hierdie studie is die betekenisvolle invloed van ikone. 'n Interessante waarneming is dat demografiese inligting slegs kognitiewe beeld raak – nóg affektiewe nóg konatiewe beeld. Reisgedrag dra by tot die vorming van kognitiewe, affektiewe en konatiewe beeld. Wat egter verbasend is, is dat die gebrek aan invloed van reisagente en reisgidse ook in die resultate beskryf was. Hierdie raamwerk beklemtoon die belangrikheid van voor-ervaringe, in-tydervaringe en na-ervaringe; en kommunikasie, by beeldvorming.

Hierdie studie dra akademies, metodologies en prakties by. Akademiese bydraes sluit in die empiriese toetsing van die raamwerk, wat betekenisvol bydra tot die literatuur; en die vernuwendinsluiting en assessering van ikone voeg 'n nuwe dimensie by tot beeldvorming in die literatuur. Vanuit 'n metodologiese gesigspunt beskou, is dit duidelik dat die analyses van alle beïnvloedende aspekte uitdagend is en nie gestandaardiseer nie. Die tipe analyses wat in hierdie studie toegepas is, het die in-diepte analyses van die data versterk, wat daarna by die raamwerk ingesluit is. Die data is empiries getoets en betroubaar bevind. Die empiriese toetsing van alle aspekte in 'n Suid-Afrikaanse konteks verskil en is vernuwend, wat uiteindelik 'n gedetailleerde prentjie van die beeld van Suid-Afrika as 'n toerismebestemming geskep het. Laastens is die praktiese bydrae van hierdie studie dat die raamwerk wat vir hierdie studie ontwikkel is, deur toerisme-organisasies van verskeie tipes in bemarkingsbeplanning en -implementering gebruik kan word. Die raamwerk kan hul advertering en personeelopleiding rig, en die algemene toerismeproduk van Suid-Afrika verbeter. Die raamwerk kan ook op ander toerismebestemmings toegepas word.

Duidelike aanbevelings is gemaak met betrekking tot die fokus van bemarkingstrategieë en die uitbou van die beeld van Suid-Afrika. Daar is aanbeveel dat die raamwerk wat in hierdie studie ontwikkel is, deur nasionale toerisme-organisasies soos SA Toerisme asook provinsiale organisasies soos Toerisme-Rade geïmplementeer moet word. Produk-eienaars kan voordeel trek uit die raamwerk deur sommige van die invloedryke aspekte in hul produkontwikkeling en bemarkingstrategieë te oorweeg. Laastens behoort alle bemarkingstrategieë en planne vir Suid-Afrika toegespits te wees op die verbetering van die kognitiewe, affektiewe en konatiewe beeld van Suid-Afrika.

Sleutelwoorde: *Bemarking; verbruikersgedrag; toerismebemarking; beeld; bestemmingsbeeld; beeldmodelle; beeldkenmerke; beeldkomponente; beeldfaktore; beeld-aspekte; Suid-Afrika; beïnvloedende faktore/aspekte; reis-besluitneming.*



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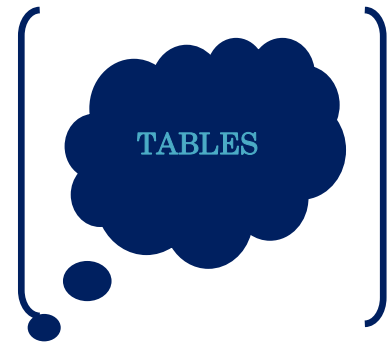
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CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION &

PROBLEM STATEMENT



We may run, walk, stumble, drive, or fly, but let us never lose sight of the reason for the journey or miss a chance to see a rainbow on the way. - Gloria Gaither

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In 2013, South Africa's tourism industry was ranked 64th of 140 countries in the World Economic Forum's Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (Blanke & Chiesa, 2013:xvi). South Africa is a developing country and tourism plays an important role in South Africa's economy. In 2009, tourism contributed R189.4 billion to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of South Africa and 919 800 jobs were created directly and indirectly (National Department of Tourism, 2012:6). A total of 12.5 million foreign visitors arrived in South Africa in 2011. Of these, 8 339 354 were visiting South Africa as tourists (Statistics South Africa, 2012:7). According to the World Tourism Organisation, in 2011 South Africa was listed as the 25th most popular tourism destination with regard to its international tourism arrivals. South Africa was the number one tourism destination amongst the Sub-Saharan African countries, followed by Mauritius (965 000), Reunion (471 000), Cape Verde (428 000) and Madagascar (225 000) (World Tourism Organisation, 2012:11). Therefore the international market is very important for the South African tourism industry. This industry is continuously growing and is affected by various factors such as marketing information, disposable income of tourists, media exposure, political position, perceptions of the country and image of South Africa as a tourism destination. According to Bigné, Sanchez and Sanchez (2001:607), to sustain tourism growth it is important to pay attention to the image portrayed and communicated by destinations as this may affect tourists' satisfaction and future visitation.

Destination image is especially important in the case of developing tourism destinations where tourism, in many cases, serves as one of the major sources of national income, employment and export earnings (Orga, 2010). Countries such as Kenya, Costa Rica, Botswana, Cuba, and the Caribbean Islands have all experienced the vital role of tourism

since it has overtaken various industries within these developing countries and contributed greatly towards these countries' economies (World Tourism Organisation, 2002:22).

The image of a destination has a direct influence on visitor behaviour and visitor choices, depending on the type of image that is formed within the tourist's mind. However, the type of image determines the tourist's intention to visit the specific destination (Byon & Zhang, 2010:510). Destination image could have an enormous impact on a country's tourism industry and therefore it is important to create and maintain a positive image. A destination's image is dynamic and continuously changing. Therefore, through its measurement, one can create a point of reference that allows better positioning against competitive destinations and implement strategies that are aimed at positive development and improvement (Royo-Vela, 2009:426). A negative image has a detrimental effect on a destination and could lead to a problematic influence on tourist numbers and whether or not tourists will visit or re-visit a destination.

The purpose of this chapter is to define the problem statement, portray the research methods applied in this study, describe the literature review, define concepts, state the main goal of the study and indicate the layout of the study by means of a chapter classification.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

More than 40 years ago, the researchers that initiated destination image exploration were John Hunt, Edward Mayo and Clare Gunn (Pike, 2002:541). As previously indicated, image plays an important role within the tourism industry and can be described as the development of a mental construct based upon a few impressions chosen from a 'flood of information'. The word image is often used as an equivalent for reputation which is what people believe about a person or an institution, versus character, which is what the person or institution actually is (Reynolds, 1965:69-70). Image can therefore differ before (reputation) and after (character) visiting a destination. Echtner and Ritchie (2003:39) defined image as the mental picturing (even though all the senses are used) of an object or a destination in a universal way. Thus image can be directly related to an individual's mental picture and / or perception of a destination or an attraction and its reputation (good or bad) within a consumer/tourist's mind.

Destination image consists of three main components, affective components (internal sources or stimuli), cognitive components (external sources or stimuli) and conative components (renowned on the basis of its sources of stimuli and motives) (Dann, 1996:47-54; Gartner, 1993:196). The development of certain images may also be influenced by

various factors such as demographic factors (age, gender, nationality, experience, income and education) as well as psychological, stimulus and social factors.

Three types of images exist, organic, induced and complex (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:11). These types of images are constructed through an individual's experience towards a particular destination. Each of these image types needs a specific type of promotion and focuses on a certain sample. Promotion also has three dimensions, informative, persuasive and reminding. Firstly, informative promotion offers non visitors / potential tourists' knowledge about a destination that makes them aware of it when making a decision. Organic image occurs from non-tourism information sources such as magazine articles, geography books and television reports.

Secondly, persuasive promotion exists. This promotion type is most suitable when induced image is formulated and focuses on persuading potential tourists to buy. Induced image therefore occurs from tourism-specific information, such as a travel brochure or a website, which is a product of destination marketing. The main difference between organic and induced image is the tourist's motivation or intention to travel. Any individual can have an organic image of a destination, although they may have no intention of visiting the destination. However, once an individual decisively seeks travel information on a destination through its advertising resources, an induced image is formulated and they have an intention to visit the destination (Gunn, 1972 as cited by Byon & Zhang, 2010:510).

Thirdly, reminding promotion occurs during the complex image formation stage and focuses on repeat visitors to remind them of the previously visited destination and to encourage them to re-visit the destination. This information is important for the purposes of this study, since it will focus on different types of visitors (first-time and repeat visitors), whereby the factors influencing their image of South Africa as a developing tourism destination will be determined. As stated before, a variety of literature and previous studies describe the elements / components that comprise image. This study will particularly focus on the main three components (affective, conative and cognitive) for the variety of studies focused on them as essential components.

When exploring image, it is vital to discuss its importance and the difference it could make for the destination. Tourism destinations are increasingly resolute in building a unique image in consumers' minds (Arionesei & Ivan, 2012:90). Since images could be either negative or positive, it is crucial that a positive image is portrayed in tourists' minds before, during and after a visit to a tourism destination. For instance, in 2010, South Africa hosted the FIFA

Soccer World Cup. This event boosted South Africa in creating an image as a modern destination with appropriate infrastructure and welcoming, open-minded people (Kramser, 2012).

A total of 8 339 354 tourists visited South Africa in 2011, an increase of 3.3% (265 802) from the 8 073 552 tourists recorded in 2010 (Statistics South Africa, 2011:6; South African Tourism, 2013:6). South Africa should, however, focus on retaining tourists who have already visited the country as well as on first-time visitors. The 2011 South African Tourism index gives a clear recording of first-time versus repeat visitors. Because of the close proximity, countries bordering South Africa have a low first-time visit rate (2.4%), but a high repeat rate of 97.6%. However other air foreign tourists have a smaller percentage of repeat-visits. Overall in 2011, air foreign tourists accounted for 52.2% of first-time visitors. These percentages are relatively high in comparison to the repeat visits and South Africa needs to maintain the balance (South African Tourism, 2013:22,102). The repeat visitor segment is relied on heavily by destination managers as well as how previous experience can affect visitors' image perception, loyalty and future behaviour (Geng-qing Chi, 2012:3).

Repeat visits are of fundamental importance for the South African tourism industry. Interestingly, George (2012:93) found that tourists visiting South Africa during the FIFA World Cup in 2010 had a positive reaction towards recommending South Africa as a tourism destination and were likely to return to South Africa as a holiday destination. The study concluded that fear of crime and safety during the FIFA World Cup did not have a damaging impact on the possibility of returning to South Africa. This significantly improves the destination image and attractiveness of South Africa as a favourable international tourism destination.

Negative image also has a definite influence on South Africa's tourism industry and visitor numbers. When South Africa bid for the 2004 Olympics Games, the Bid Committee reported a number of weaknesses, one of which was high levels of crime. The issue of crime is directly linked to perceptions and the way that international media describe criminal activities. For developing countries competing in a markedly unequal global system, the problems relating to dealing with perceptions remain widespread (Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:114-115). Negative events within South Africa could lead to potential tourists having a negative image towards the country and could influence the tourist numbers. Some recent negative publicity includes the murder of Anni Dewani in Gugulethu, Cape Town, in November 2010 which was, and still is, world news. In November 2006, three groups of tourists were attacked and robbed. It is the perception that counts and therefore attacks like

these are of concern for the tourism industry in South Africa (Williams, Essop, Kemp & Witbooi, 2006; Anon, 2013).

According to Junek, Binney and Deery (2004:378) various events globally have impacted destination image and, consequently, resulted in a decline in visits to that specific destination, therefore having a negative impact on the image in tourists' minds. Potential tourists are more likely to be severely intimidated by terrorism and political unrest than by natural disasters and this has a significant impact on the flow of tourism (Sönmez, 1998:416). The events of September 11, 2001 caused a substantial decline in tourism demand in the United States and internationally. The United States is an important tourist-generating region. However, the nine-eleven terrorist attacks on this destination had a widespread effect on the tourism and hospitality industries worldwide (Goodrich, 2002:576). A more recent attack, the Boston marathon bombing, might have an impact too. Regarding the image problem and media within the tourism industry of South Africa, City Press reported on 11 February 2013 that negative reporting undermines tourism. Deputy Tourism Minister Tokozile Xasa stated the following: "both ignorance and negative images create considerable scepticism in tourists and we therefore need to work closely with the media as partners and educate the world about this tourism destination called Africa" (SAPA, 2013). Interestingly, The New Age newspaper (Anon, 2014a:3) reported that the press coverage of the Oscar Pistorius case is a mere 10% below that of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, which was held in South Africa in 2010. From the above it is clear that crime (especially in South Africa) and media (freedom of speech) plays a major role in image formation.

According to Echtner and Richie (2003:38) and Beerli and Martin (2004a:661) destination image can be influenced by various aspects which include: promotion (brochures and advertising) Molina, Gómez and Martin-Consuegra (2010:727), the opinions of others (family and friends, travel agents, word of mouth), education (scholarly courses), media reporting (newspapers, television, magazines movies, books and social media) Gren and Gunnarsdóttir (2008:427) and popular culture (literature). These factors play an important role in the formation of an image towards a certain destination. Even though destination image is influenced by several factors, a general theoretical model of image formation is proposed by Baloglu and McCleary (1999:869) which distinguishes between stimulus factors (previous experience, distribution and information sources (Molina *et al.*, 2010:727) and personal factors (psychological and social).

In today's society, technology inevitably plays an important role in marketing and could therefore provide various opportunities and challenges for image-based research (Feighey,

2003:82). In understanding destination image, various marketing strategies can be developed and more competitive destination products could be brought to existing and prospective tourists (Kim & Yoon, 2003:2). This could lead to better understanding the behaviour of tourists (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:657). In identifying destination image factors for South Africa, improved management of tourism behaviour and decision making could occur.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

It is clear from the background to the study that destination image plays an important role and has various impacts within the tourism industry. Positive events, for example the FIFA Soccer World Cup, could lead to a positive image of South Africa as a favourable tourism destination. Negative events, for example the Anni Dewani murder case, within South Africa could lead to negative image formation, since it is emphasised that negative images create scepticism in tourists. Donaldson and Ferreira (2009:2,4) stated that South Africa faces various challenges in projecting a positive tourist destination image. Potential tourists might have a perception that South Africa has a high crime rate and therefore decide to not visit the destination at all. If tourists with a negative image visit the country, they limit their involvement in tourism activities. If a sense of unsafe destination exists in their mind, they might not return to South Africa or recommend it to others. It is therefore necessary to determine the current image of South Africa and to critically analyse which factors predict a positive image and which factors predict a negative image through the development of a framework. In doing so, these factors could be better managed and could lead to the optimising of a positive image and the limiting of a negative image. This could lead to increasing visitor numbers. Media and freedom of speech are difficult aspects to control but, if a good Public Relations strategy exists, it could help to limit or overcome negative image which is likely to overshadow positive image.

Various studies have been conducted on destination image. Pike (2002:541-542) composed a review of 142 studies on destination image from the period 1973-2000. Interestingly, only 14 of those papers focused on Africa as a research field, of which only two were conducted in South Africa. Therefore studies regarding destination image, specifically within South Africa are scarce. Only three studies (Kim, Crompton & Botha, 2000; Botha, Crompton & Kim, 1999 and Botha, 1998) were identified, however these studies mainly focused on competitiveness and positioning. Although destination image enhances destination attractiveness and, in turn, market competitiveness and positioning, the main focus of these studies was not destination image.

To date, the last formal research found on South Africa's image was in 2009. Consequently there is a research gap with regard to destination image in South Africa. Image is ever changing and therefore the current image of South Africa as a tourism destination is not known. This type of research is therefore essential. The lack of continuous image-based research within South Africa is problematic and, in conducting this research, knowledge will be added to the current literature base of destination image and, in this case, will specifically focus on a developing an international tourism destination that contributes significantly to South Africa's tourism economy. Hence this study could help improve South Africa as a favourable international tourism destination. The framework could thereby assist the South African tourism industry in understanding what influences tourists' image of South Africa and how these aspects should be managed to maintain and grow tourism within South Africa.

The research question for this study therefore remains: What are the factors influencing the image of South Africa as a tourism destination and how could these be managed to boost positive image and limit negative image?

1.4 GOAL OF THE STUDY

The main goal and objectives for this study are listed below.

1.4.1 Goal

To develop a framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination.

1.4.2 Objectives

Objective 1

To assess marketing as an important field of study and the theoretical base of this study by means of an in-depth literature review.

Objective 2

To assess destination image in a tourism context by means of an in-depth literature-based review.

Objective 3

To determine and analyse the current destination image of South Africa based on a cognitive, affective and conative evaluation.

Objective 4

To critically analyse the nature and extent of identified factors (such as media, political and iconic aspects) on the image of South Africa as a tourism destination.

Objective 5

To draw conclusions and make recommendations concerning image formation and the implementation of the framework.

1.5 METHOD OF RESEARCH

The method of research will be discussed within this section and comprises of a literature study and an empirical survey.

1.5.1 Literature study

Firstly, a literature study has been conducted based on the following concepts and keywords: *Destination image, destination, image, perceptions, previous visitations, future visitations, marketing methods, satisfaction with destination, motivation*. Resources such as books, journals, textbooks, theses, dissertations and questionnaires has been used to conduct this study. The North-West University Library's databases and scientific databases such as Google Scholar, ScienceDirect and EBSCOhost, as well as questionnaires and the Internet played an important role in obtaining the most recent information concerning this topic. Airports Company South Africa (ACSA) was approached for support and information.

1.5.2 Empirical survey

Secondly, an empirical survey was conducted and consists of the research design and method of collecting data, sampling, and the development of the questionnaire, structure of the questionnaire and data analysis, which will be discussed next.

1.5.2.1 Research design and method of collecting data

A quantitative research design was followed because this type of design is objective in nature, structured, systematic and replicable. The focus of this research design is that of variables and a random participation selection is used. With this design, statistical analysis was portrayed in tables and graphs and is representative of the population. The researcher's voice is passive or in third person (Jennings, 2010:130).

1.5.2.2 Sampling

This study's sampling method was two fold and included both probability sampling, whereby stratified sampling (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:431-432) was used to conduct the research as

well as non-probability sampling where convenience sampling was used (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:95; Smith, 2010:92). Stratified sampling was used in dividing the population into subgroups. This study focused on international tourists who have already visited South Africa. In doing this, national tourists were eliminated as well as tourists that have just arrived in South Africa and have not yet visited the country and its attractions. Screening questions were asked by the fieldworkers, to ensure that a spread over all available continents was selected; to confirm that the respondents were not South African citizens living abroad; and to guarantee that the respondents did actually visit the country and did not just stop-over to their final destination. The screening questions that were asked included the following: "From which country are you?", "Are you returning to your country of origin after having visited South Africa?", "Were you born in South Africa?" and "Have you visited the country or is this only a stop-over?"

Convenience sampling, also known as accidental or haphazard sampling, was used for members of the population (international tourists that have already visited South Africa) because of them being conveniently accessible. Convenience sampling can, however, include elements of random selection, which increases the potential of the sample to be more representative of the larger population. The respondents that were asked to complete the questionnaires were targeted within the departure area of the airport, returning to their home countries after visiting South Africa. After respondents entered the international departure area every third group was asked to participate in the research. Only one person per group completed the questionnaire.

The airport at which the research was conducted, had very strict rules and regulations regarding police clearance and access, therefore the research was conducted by trained fieldworkers from an approved and professional contracted research company. Thus, the fieldworkers were competent in understanding both the aim of the study and the questionnaire itself. Various meetings took place with these fieldworkers before the survey took place. An in depth discussion and explanation of the questionnaire with the fieldworkers took place, ensuring that the research's main aim was understood and each question was understood and could be explained to the respondents if necessary. During the week of the survey, constant communication took place between the research team and the coordinator and some problems that did occur were those of language barriers, however this was overcome by selecting respondents that understood English, yet still fitted the description of the targeted population.

The respondents were briefed beforehand to ensure that they participated willingly and honestly. These respondents, having visited various attractions within South Africa, represent a geographically widespread area, and are thus representative when wanting to gain an overall international tourists' image of the country. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608-609) a total of 384 questionnaires had to be completed for this study. A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed of which 474 questionnaires were completed / obtained. Of these, 451 Questionnaires were usable for this study, 23 questionnaires were incomplete and not usable. Therefore the number of questionnaires was representative of the target population.

The questionnaires were distributed at the largest and busiest airport in Africa, which has the capacity to handle 28 million passengers per annum. Airlines from all five continents are serviced by this International Airport and therefore ensure a variety of international tourists visiting South Africa (Airports Company South Africa, 2014). The questionnaires were distributed from 26 August to 1 September 2013.

1.5.2.3 Development of the questionnaire

In developing the questionnaire for this study, various literature-based attributes were identified, as indicated in Table 4.1. A total of sixty-three attributes were identified after which these were sifted and grouped into Cognitive, Affective and Conative attributes. After sifting and asking whether all of these attributes form part of this research, fifty-seven attributes remained important and formed part of the questionnaire of which 42 attributes were Cognitive, 12 Affective and 3 Conative.

1.5.2.4 Structure of the questionnaire

According to Smith (2010:65-66), the following structure was incorporated in designing the questionnaire. The questionnaire included the purpose of the research, which in this case was assessing the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. The questionnaire consisted of three main sections (See Appendix A). Section A included the demographic information of the targeted respondents. These questions are relatively simple questions, which encourages the respondents to complete the questionnaire and see if they take on the form of the target respondents. These questions included demographic information such as gender, age, country of residence, marital status, occupation, type of accommodation, number of times visited South Africa, mode of transport, number of people in travel group and number of people paying for as well as spending and costs of trip.

Section B, which formed the core of the questionnaire. Brunt (1997:87) refers to these as the “crux questions”. These questions were the main focus of the research and the respondents had to indicate how these questions / factors influence the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. Section C included questions regarding travel behaviour. These questions tend to be uncomplicated, non-provocative and not too personal. They were easy and understandable questions, which consisted mainly of closed-ended questions (tick-off questions). These questions included the following: Their main reason for visiting South Africa, how the respondents heard about South Africa, the length of their visit to South Africa, whether they had any negative experiences whilst visiting South Africa and, if so, to indicate the negative experience. They had to describe South Africa in one word, their feeling towards South Africa before their visit, whether their feeling (either positive or negative) has changed (either positively or negatively) after visiting South Africa, whether any negative publicity had an effect on their image of South Africa and, lastly, which attractions were visited during their stay in South Africa.

The questionnaire concluded with a brief thank-you with the institution’s name for which the research was conducted at the bottom, should the respondents have any queries or questions afterwards. The questions of the questionnaire were thought through carefully and asked in a logical order ensuring that the respondents were not bored by too many unnecessary questions. The average time it took to complete the questionnaire was 15-20 minutes.

1.5.2.5 The final questionnaire

The final questionnaire was drafted and final changes were made. The questionnaire was sent for language editing and was again proofread to make sure the questions were not changed in such a manner that they could be misunderstood by the respondents, when reading it for the first time. The final questionnaire consisted of 24 questions and a total of four A4 pages, which according to Altinay and Paraskevas (2008:126) is well within the framework of thirty to forty questions over six to eight A4 pages.

1.5.2.6 Data analysis

After gathering the needed information, the primary data was personally captured and analysed by the researcher. The software that was used for the statistical processing included Microsoft[®] Excel[®] (2007) and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS[™] version 21). Different types of data analyses were used in this study, which include Factor analysis, ANOVAs, *t*-tests, Spearman rank correlations and Structural equation

modelling. An overview of each of these methods is given in this chapter, however they are discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

1.5.2.6.1 Factor analysis

The main aim was to determine, through exploratory research, which factors play an important role in the formation of South Africa's image. Two factor analyses were drawn in order to group the variables. The first determined which attributes had an effect on the image of South Africa. This generated 13 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Field 2005:633). The second factor analysis determined whether different aspects influenced South Africa's image. Three factors loaded with eigenvalues greater than 1.0.

Within a factor analysis, either positive or negative loadings occur. A positive loading indicates a positive relationship of the variable with the factor; and a negative loading indicates an inverse relationship of the variable with the factor (Bradley, 2007:336). A confirmatory factor analysis is a complex and sophisticated set of techniques which is used at a later stage in the research process, but will confirm and test certain hypotheses or theories regarding the structure underlying a set of variables (Pallant, 2010:181) therefore specific hypotheses about the structure of the factor loadings and inter-correlations are tested.

1.5.2.6.2 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used when two or more groups' mean values need to be compared on a continuous variable (Pallant, 2010:105). One independent variable (known as a factor) consists of different levels, which correspond to the different groups or conditions. However the dependent variable is a continuous variable. Two expectations must be met to conduct a one-way ANOVA. Firstly, each of the groups needs to be a random sample from a normally distributed population and, secondly, the variances of the groups need to be equal (Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins & Van Wyk, 2005:627). The variances of the different groups are compared with the variability within each of the groups. In doing so, an F-ratio is calculated. An F-ratio refers to the variance between the groups divided by the variance within the group. A large F-ratio shows that there is more variability between the groups than there is within each group. The null hypothesis can therefore be rejected if a significant F test is performed, which indicates that the population means are equal (Pallant, 2010:249). The ANOVAs were used to determine whether respondents had different average scores towards a single quantitative measure and indicated whether the groups differ.

1.5.2.6.3 *t*-tests

Various types of *t*-tests exist. However, two types are most often used. Independent-sample *t*-tests are used when the mean scores of two different groups of people or conditions are compared to each other and the data has been collected at one occasion. Paired-sample *t*-tests are performed when the mean scores for the same group of people are compared on two different occasions. This study focused on independent-sample *t*-tests, since the data was collected on one occasion and different groups of respondents formed part of the sample (Pallant, 2010:105, 239). The *t*-tests determined whether the different groups indicated whether the factors, which consisted of the image attributes, had an effect on their image formation.

1.5.2.6.4 Spearman rank correlations

Spearman rank correlations were used to investigate a linear relationship between demographic and / or travel behaviour variables and the 13 factors identified. No relationship at all or a weak relationship is indicated by a correlation of 0. A perfect positive correlation is indicated by a value of 1.0 and a perfect negative correlation is indicated by a value of -1.0 (Peck, Olsen & Devore, 2001:161). Therefore, the direction (either positive or negative) and the strength of the relationship are indicated. If a negative correlation exists, it indicates that as one variable increases, the other decreases. Contradictory to this, a positive correlation indicates that when a variable increases, the other does too. These correlations were interpreted according to the guidelines of Cohen (1988) as cited by Ellis and Steyn (2003:52) that suggest: small rho = 0.10-0.29, medium rho = 0.30-0.49 and large rho = 0.50-1.0.

1.5.2.6.5 Structural equation modelling

This type of analysis is fairly new and permits one to test numerous models regarding the interrelationships amongst a set of variables. Multiple regression and factor analytical techniques are used to assess the position of each of these independent variables in the model; and to test the complete fit of the model to one's data (Pallant, 2010:104-105; Byrne, 2013:3). The variables are stated the way it is believed they are interrelated, by using a path diagram. The implications of the variances and co-variances are determined. A test is conducted to determine whether the variances and co-variances fit the proposed model. The results of the statistical testing are reported. This includes parameter estimates and standard errors for the numerical coefficients in the linear equations. Finally, with the needed information / results, the proposed model can be altered to fit the data (StatSoft, 2014).

To understand SEM, there are various foundations, which include theory, model and path diagram, exogenous versus endogenous constructs, dependence and correlational

relationships, model fit and model identification. When conducting SEM, six steps are involved. Step 1 is to define the individual constructs. Step 2 is to develop and specify the measurement model. This is followed by step 3, which is to assess the measurement model validity; and step 4, which is when the measurement model is valid, to specify the structural model. Step 5 includes the assessment of the structural model validity and the last step, step 6 is, if the structural model is valid, to draw conclusions and make recommendations (See Figure 4.3). All of these aspects within SEM are discussed in detail in Chapter 4. SEM was used to develop the framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination.

1.6 DEFINING THE CONCEPTS

The following concepts, which are related to the explanation and elucidation of the proposed title, are defined.

1.6.1 Destination

According to George (2008:400), a destination is defined as a place which includes the physical and supposed location which consists of main and subordinate attractions and the supporting features that attract people to visit it. It includes utilities that are designed to meet tourists' wants and needs. Pike (2008:26) defined a destination as a place at which visitors temporarily base themselves to participate in tourism related interactions and activities.

1.6.2 Image

Reynolds (1965:69) describes image as the development of a mental construct based upon a few impressions chosen from a 'flood of information'. Dichter (1985:76) defines it as "an image is not only individual traits or qualities, but also the total impression an entity makes on the minds of others". Echtner and Ritchie (2003: 39) define image as the mental picturing (even though all the senses are used) of an object or a destination in a universal way. Thus image can be directly related to an individual's mental picture and / or perception of a destination or an attraction and its reputation (good or bad) within a consumer / tourist's mind.

1.6.3 Destination image

Pike (2008:15) defines a destination's image as a repertoire of brand associations held in the mind of the consumer. These may be cognitive, affective, conative, or a combination of these. Organic sources such as previous visitation or induced sources such as advertising may have led to the development of these associations. It is also defined as an individual's overall perception or total set of impressions of a place (Fakeye & Crompton 1991:11; Hunt

1975:3 and Phelps 1986:169). Baloglu and McCleary (1999:870) define destination image as the individual's mental representation of knowledge, feelings and global impressions about a destination. Crompton (1979:18) defined destination image as the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination.

1.6.4 Tourism

Tourism can be defined as the total experience that is created from the interaction between tourists, job providers, government systems and communities in the process of attracting, interacting with, transporting and accommodating tourists (Saayman, 2001:5). Sharpley and Telfer (2002:22) define tourism as an activity which involves individuals who travel within their own countries or internationally, and who interact with other people and places. It involves people who are influenced and motivated by the norms and transformations in their own society and who carry with them their own 'cultural baggage' of experience, expectations, perceptions and standards. It is, in short, a social phenomenon which involves the movement of people to various destinations and their (temporary) stay there.

1.6.5 Developing country

A developing country is a poor country that is busy accumulating capital and developing industrial and commercial bases. Developing countries have a large growing urban population and a continuous growing income. These countries occur worldwide and include countries such as India, Egypt, South Africa, Brazil and Central America. Seventeen percent of the world's population live in such countries and these countries earn 11% of the total world income (Viviers, van der Merwe & Lotriet, 2004:35).

1.6.6 Destination marketing

Since the majority of tourism activity takes place at destinations, destination marketing is important. Destination marketing is defined by Wang and Pizam (2011:3) as a pro-active, visitor-centred approach to the economic and cultural development of a destination that balances and integrates the interests of visitors, service providers and the community. Within this definition the emphasis is marketing and Kotler et al. (1999:12) defines marketing as a social and managerial process by which individual and groups obtain what they need through creating and exchanging products and values with others. This process occurs towards a specific destination.

1.6.7 Conceptual framework

Miles and Huberman (1994:18) defined a conceptual framework as a visual or written product, one that "explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be

studied - the key factors, concepts, or variables - and the presumed relationships among them". The most important thing to understand about a conceptual framework is that it is primarily a conception or model of what is out there that one plans to study, and of what is going on with these things and why - a tentative theory of the phenomena which is being investigated.

1.7 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

This thesis consists of six chapters that will be summarised in the next section.

1.7.1 Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement

This chapter identifies of the nature of the problem and the motivation for this study. This includes the introduction, concept definitions, problem statement, main goal and objectives, and research methodology. The research methodology consists of the literature study, the empirical study, the research design, method of collecting data, selection of the sampling frame, the development of the questionnaire and the data analysis. The chapter classification is also included.

1.7.2 Chapter 2: Literature review - Understanding marketing and the consumer

Chapter 2 consists of an in-depth literature review regarding marketing. It thoroughly describes various concepts of marketing and, since marketing is such a wide subject, the literature review focused on the description and exploration of the main aspects of marketing.

1.7.3 Chapter 3: Literature review - Analysing destination image

Chapter 3 consists of an in-depth literature review concerning destination image. The literature review focuses on previous research conducted on destination image, various existing models on destination image and other aspects that form part of destination image.

1.7.4 Chapter 4: Methodological summary

Chapter 4 is a detailed summary of the type of methodology used to conduct this research. An in-depth description concerning the methodology was referred to, which included aspects such as the empirical study, the research design, method of collecting data, selection of the sampling frame, the development of the questionnaire, the layout of the questionnaire, the description of each section within the questionnaire and the data analysis.

1.7.5 Chapter 5: Empirical results

This chapter portrays the results of this study. It consists of various tables and figures. The results are divided into different sections consisting of descriptive results, exploratory results and inferential results. Factor analyses, *t*-tests, ANOVAs and Spearman rank correlations formed part of the data analysis which portrays the final results. Lastly, a framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a developing tourism destination was developed and explained through making use of the structural equation modelling analysis.

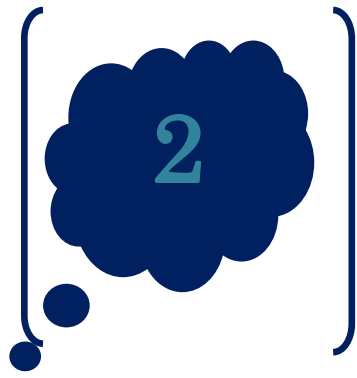
1.7.6 Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

This chapter, which is also the final chapter, consists of conclusions to project the goal and objectives of this study. It contains methodological, practical, literature-based contributions as well as recommendations regarding this study and future studies. Finally limitations within this study are provided in this chapter.

CHAPTER 2

UNDERSTANDING MARKETING

AND THE CONSUMER



“In literature and in life we ultimately pursue, not conclusions, but beginnings.” -

Sam Tanenhaus

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Marketing is a very broad concept within business, however both business marketing and tourism marketing play a vital role within the tourism industry. Marketing, as defined by Lamb, Hair and McDaniel (2009:4) is “an organisational function and set of processes for creating, communicating and delivering value to customers and for managing customer relationships in ways that benefit the organisation and its stakeholders”. According to the Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM, 1963), marketing is the management process that cost-effectively identifies, anticipates and satisfies consumers’ requests (Oboreh, Ogechukwu & Francis, 2011:230). Therefore marketing can be seen as a function within an organisation, that provides products or services to consumers, through different communication methods and promotional ideas, which are cost wise beneficial towards the company, its consumers and its stakeholders.

According to Vellas and Bécherel (1999:7) marketing plays a central part in tourism, for consumers need to travel to a certain destination to see, feel or test the product which is to be purchased and evaluated. Product value should therefore be communicated and highlighted through tourism marketing. Tourism marketing has been defined by Lumsdon (1997:25) and Vellas and Bécherel (1999:6-7) as “the managerial process of anticipating and satisfying existing and potential visitor wants more effectively than competitive suppliers or destinations. The management of exchange is driven by profit, community gain, or both. Either way, long-term success depends on a satisfactory interaction between consumers and suppliers. It also means securing environmental and societal needs as well as core consumer satisfaction. They can no longer be regarded as mutually exclusive”. The main difference between tourism marketing and business marketing is that of service versus product marketing. Tourism marketing must present a complete image of the comprehensive

tourism product, which includes external services from other areas (Vellas & Bécherel, 1999:7-8).

The importance of marketing is for marketers to know how to supply value to their consumers by having information about these consumers. Therefore, to practice marketing properly, managers need information which is the purpose of marketing research (Burns & Bush, 2006:5). The same applies for tourism marketing, for tourism is a global industry which influences many sectors. The tourism industry constantly grows and therefore information is needed, both nationally and internationally. This information is gathered by using tourism research, which helps identify how tourists feel and see the concept of tourism marketing and the industry as a whole (Jennings, 2010:7).

This chapter discusses aspects such as understanding marketing, the evolution of marketing and marketing planning. The different levels within planning will be discussed as well as a short explanation of tourism marketing and a focus on the importance of consumer behaviour within marketing. The main objective of this chapter is to assess marketing by means of an in-depth literature-based review. The structure of this chapter is portrayed in Figure 2.1.

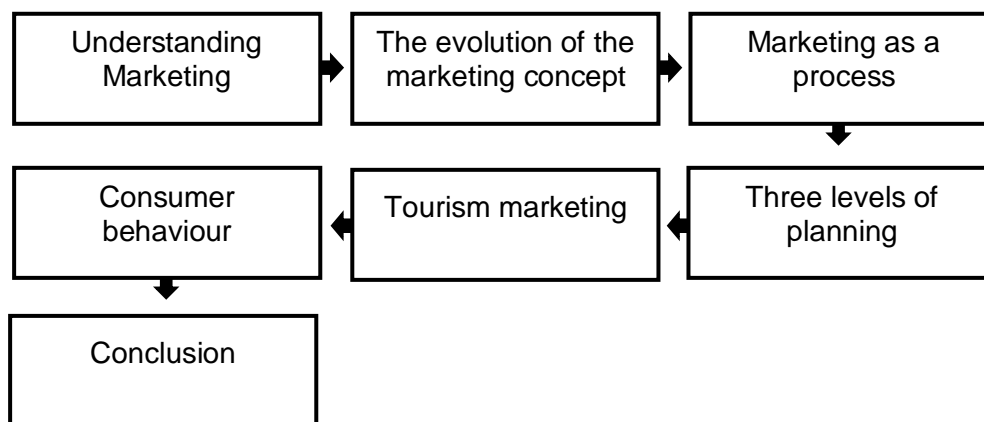


Figure 2.1: Structure of Chapter 2

Source: Author's own compilation

2.2 UNDERSTANDING MARKETING

To understand marketing from a tourism perspective, it is important to analyse marketing as a science. Solomon, Marshall, Stuart, Barnes and Mitchell (2013:5) state that marketing is everywhere. The world of marketing is changing at an immense pace, therefore being much tougher than in the past. Marketing is all about persuasion and enlightening potential consumers and creating conversation. In doing so, relationships are built and, because today's marketing environment is competitive, it is important that a good relationship exists

between consumers and companies. The value of products and services within the marketplace should be known and the consumers should receive a clear and focused marketing message (Hall, 2012:7-8). The American Marketing Association similarly defines marketing as “the process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion and distribution of ideas, goods and services to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organisational objectives” (Lancaster & Reynolds, 2005:4).

When defining marketing, Solomon *et al.* (2013:9) indicate that a new definition for marketing was introduced in 2007, since much has changed over the past three decades, when compared to earlier definitions. The new definition of marketing is the strategic business function that creates value by stimulating, facilitating and fulfilling customer demand. This process is done through building brands, nurturing innovation, developing relationships, communicating the benefits and creating good customer service. By focusing mainly on customers, a positive return on investment is created, which satisfies stakeholders and shareholders and contributes greatly towards a positive behavioural change and a maintainable business future. Marketing is therefore all about value delivery to every person affected by a transaction (Burgess & Bothma, 2007:172).

The three main parts of this definition can be described as meeting needs, creating utility and value and exchanging relationships. These three parts will be discussed individually.

2.2.1 Marketing is about meeting needs

Marketing is about meeting the needs of any person or organisation that has a part in the marketing exchange process (Dutta, 1991:496). The most important stakeholder in marketing is the consumer, which can be any company, individual, charity, or government organisation. Although the consumer may be seen as more important, it is equally essential that the seller’s needs be taken into consideration (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:9). The seller’s needs include aspects such as making a profit and being proud of the product that is sold. Holloway (2004:6) suggests that one must understand one’s consumers’ needs and wants but, because of the constant changing of the environment, it is difficult to distinguish between needs and wants.

A need is defined as the difference between a consumer’s actual state and some ideal or desired state. Once the difference is large enough the consumer will take action to satisfy a need (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 2010:161). Needs are associated with physical utilities such as eating, as well as psychological functions such as to look and feel good. A need such as hunger may arise, and to fulfil this need the consumer buys food. A want is defined as a

desire for a particular product to satisfy a need in specific ways depending on an individual's history, learning experiences and cultural environment. Considering the hunger need again, when travelling tourists may want to try different types of food within different countries, for people have diverse backgrounds and preferences. One tourist may want to have a famous cultural dish such as pizza in Italy or Wiener schnitzel in Austria, to be able to say that they have experienced it. Other tourists may eat simple and inexpensive foods just to overcome the hunger. Therefore one tourist's need may be to have a true cultural experience in what is eaten; and the other tourist may just want to satisfy their hunger need (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:10).

Motivation, on the other hand, is defined as an internal state that drives someone towards a goal of satisfying their needs (Kurtz & Boone, 2006:167; Kassean & Gassita, 2013:3). An influential approach towards motivation was developed by psychologist Abraham Maslow, which consisted of a hierarchy of needs (see Figure 2.2). These needs were categorised into five levels, where the basic needs are at the bottom and the more sophisticated needs are at the top (Kotler *et al.*, 2010:161). Within this hierarchy the lower level needs should therefore be met first before an individual can move to the next level of needs. Eventually, the highest level of needs, which is self-actualisation, can be met (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:162).

Lamb *et al.* (2009:167) define Maslow's hierarchy of needs as "a method of classifying human needs and motivations into five categories in ascending order of importance: physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualisation." Some examples of these different levels include the following: Physiological needs include medicines, staple items and generics. Safety needs include insurance, alarm systems and retirement investments. The belongingness needs are aspects such as clothing, grooming products, clubs and drinks. Ego needs refer to cars, furniture, credit cards, shops and country clubs. Lastly, self-actualisation needs include hobbies, travel and education. These are only a few examples at each hierarchical level of needs (Kurtz & Boone, 2006:167; Solomon *et al.*, 2013:163; Hult, Pride & Ferrell, 2014:187; Kassean & Gassita, 2013:3).

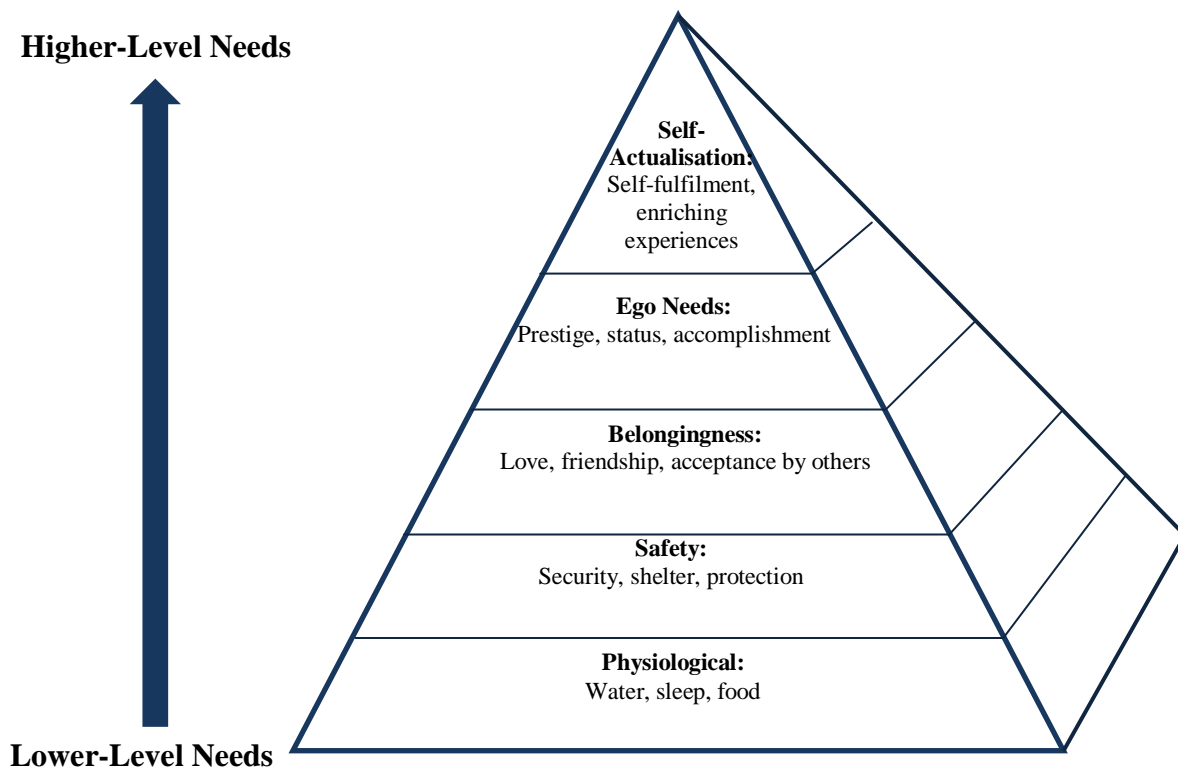


Figure 2.2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs and related products

Source: Adapted from Solomon et al. (2013:163); Lamb et al. (2009:168); Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:133); Hoffman, Bateson, Wood and Kenyon (2009:88); Hult et al. (2014:187)

It is important that products offer benefits to consumers and this is no different in the tourism industry, for tourists are likely to favour holidays that offer understanding of their needs and provide value for money. Once a need or want is satisfied by a product, it delivers benefits. With this in mind, marketers convince consumers that their product is superior to that of their competitors. Thus it is important that the tourists' motives, expectations and needs be taken into consideration (Nel & Strydom, 2004:166).

Unless consumers have the resources to obtain a product, anyone can want a product. However once desire is joined with buying power, it results in demand (Solomon et al., 2013:10). Although tourism / travel tends to lean towards being a higher-level need and is considered a luxury item which may only be pursued after other basic needs have been fulfilled, it can also satisfy lower-level needs such as belongingness which includes being loved and having companionship or physiological needs such as warmth and shelter (Seaton & Bennett, 1996:66). Demand constantly fluctuates, for consumers' needs vary and change over time (Hult et al., 2014:642). This is also the case for tourists' needs.

Kotler *et al.* (2010:161) identify another psychologist's motivation theory, which is that of Frederick Herzberg. He developed a two-factor theory, which differentiates between satisfiers, which refers to factors that cause satisfaction; and dissatisfiers, which include factors that cause dissatisfaction. This theory has two consequences, firstly, dissatisfiers should be avoided at all costs by marketers for they may unsell a product; and, secondly, the manufacturer should identify and supply the main purchase motivators and satisfiers. This will influence the brand that the consumer may decide on buying. The focus should be on minimising dissatisfiers and maximising satisfiers. This study has done the same by determining which factors leads to a positive image of South Africa and which factors leads to a negative image of South Africa amongst international tourists.

Two other concepts within marketing that are relevant to this study, are those of the marketplace and the market itself. A market is defined as all the consumers who share a common need that can be satisfied by a specific product; and who have the resources, willingness and authority to make the purchase (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:10). Supporting this, Vellas and Bécherel (1999:48) state that a market for a specific product consists of four elements. These being people that (1) have a want or a need for a product; (2) have the purchasing power; (3) are within a marketplace; (4) have the willingness to purchase products. The marketplace was previously the location where buying and selling took place face-to-face; however, in today's marketplace, world buyers and sellers may perhaps not even see each other due to selling-forums such as eBay, e-commerce websites and television shopping networks (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:10). This is especially true in the tourism environment.

2.2.2 Marketing is about creating utility and value

According to Solomon *et al.* (2013:10) utility refers to the spectrum of benefits one receives from using a product or service. Kurtz and Boone (2006:6) identify utility as "the want-satisfying power of a good or service." It is connected to value, for when consumers have the type of product they want, exactly when and where they want it, value is created and marketing therefore develops utility. Value consequently is understood as the perceived utility minus the perceived sacrifice a consumer makes to gain the utility which a product or service offer (Williams & Soutar, 2009:416). To produce value for one's consumers, marketing delivers several different kinds of utility, that includes form utility, place utility, time utility and possession utility. Form utility refers to the advantage marketing delivers for the transformation of raw materials into completed products. This includes something that one cannot or does not want to do for oneself. The advantage marketing delivers by making products and services available where consumers want them, refers to place utility. Time

utility is the advantage marketing delivers by storing products until they are required. Finally, possession utility consists of the advantage marketing delivers when consumers are permitted to own and use a product or preserve it for future use. Utility is therefore made available through marketing in numerous ways (Kurtz & Boone, 2006:462).

2.2.3 Marketing is about exchange relationships

An exchange relationship is at the heart of every marketing act. Exchange takes place when something is gained in return for something else, with an equivalent value. The consumer therefore receives a service or product, which satisfies his or her need and the seller receives an equivalent value (for example money) for it (Grönroos, 2008:308). Christian Grönroos from Sweden also states that: “Marketing is to establish, maintain and enhance long-term customer relationships at a profit, so that the objectives of the parties involved are met. This is done by mutual exchange and fulfilment of promises.” A minimum of two people or organisations is needed for an exchange to take place, where the willingness to make a trade exists. Each involved party should have something the other party wants; therefore giving up something to receive something they would rather have (Lamb *et al.*, 2009:4). Aspects which are to be taken into consideration when exchange takes place are the following: effective communication; agreement on the value of the exchange; ethics and honesty towards exchange and, finally, for an exchange to take place value must be present (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:11). Now that the concept of marketing has been explained, the next section will focus on how marketing evolved from as early as the 1900s to today, and the significance of that to tourism marketing.

2.3 THE EVOLUTION OF THE MARKETING CONCEPT

Solomon *et al.* (2013:13) state that the idea of satisfying consumer needs was started only recently. Before the 1950s, marketing focused basically on making production more effective. The history of marketing events is portrayed in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Marketing history

1954 - 1955	Three volumes of the Lord of the Rings is published in Britain
1956	The first self-service Tesco supermarket opens in a converted cinema in Maldon, UK
1958	The British era of Formula 1 begins when Mike Hawthorn becomes a champion in a Ferrari 246
1961	Mattel introduces the Barbie doll in Europe
1962	Ford’s first ever rear-wheel-drive car, the Cortina model, goes on sale in Britain. The Beatles record their “Please Please Me” single which reaches number 2 in the official UK chart

1963	The Pepsi Generation kicks off the cola wars
1965	All TV commercials for cigarettes are banned in the UK
1968	The famous Hair musical opens at Shaftesbury Theatre in London, one day after the abolition of theatre censorship
1970	Following the birth of the mass package holiday business, British European Airways (today British Airways) establishes its own charter airline
1971	First European McDonald's outlet opens in Zaandam, Netherlands
1972	The Swedish band ABBA is formed and wins the Eurovision contest two years later with the song "Waterloo"
1974	DHL opens its first office in London
1978	The band Queen releases the Jazz album featuring hit singles such as "Fat Bottomed Girls" and "Bicycle Race"
1979	Sony introduces the first Walkman
1980	Ted Turner creates CNN
1983	Microsoft Windows is announced and sells for £100
1985	Nike releases the Air Jordan, Michael Jordan's signature shoe New Coke is launched, old Coke is brought back 79 days later
1986	Launch of <i>The Independent</i> newspaper in Britain
1987	MTV Europe launches First GAP store opens outside the US, in London
1991	Nokia equipment is used to make the world's first GSM call
1992	EuroDisney opens in Paris
1995	eBay is founded by Pierre Omidyar in his California living room
1998	Germany's Daimler-Benz acquires America's Chrysler Corporation for more than \$38 billion in stock to create a new global auto-making giant called Daimler-Chrysler
2003	Amazon debuts its "search inside the Book" feature that allows users to search the full text of more than 33 million pages from over 120 000 printed books

Source: Solomon et al. (2013:13-14)

Seaton and Bennett (1996:20) identified three phases within origins of marketing: the production era, the selling era and the marketing era. However, four eras have been identified by Solomon *et al.* (2013:14-16) which also includes the production era (up until 1930), the selling era (1920-1964), the consumer era (1957-1998) and the new era (1988 to present).

2.3.1 The production era up until 1930

Approximately one hundred years ago, Henry Ford said, "History is more or less bunk. It's tradition. We don't want tradition. We want to live in the present, and the only history that is worth a tinker's damn is the history that we make today" (Hall, 2012:29). Henry Ford

generated his ideas from a process in an abattoir, where each worker received a designated set of jobs within the production phase. Ford's focus demonstrates a production orientation. This is usually effective when demand for a product is greater than the supply. In the 1920s consumers had to take what was available, because there was not a large variety to choose from. According to Seaton and Bennett (1996:20) suppliers were few and the consumer was pleased to buy whatever product was on offer. The companies therefore focused on getting the most out of production and reducing costs of supply and campaigns. Usually when focusing on a production orientation, the market is seen as being homogeneous, whose needs will be satisfied by a basic function of a product. This view can be very narrow and affect a company negatively if not managed correctly (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:14).

2.3.2 The selling era (1920-1964)

This orientation-type is company-centred. The company overlooks their consumer's needs and wants and does not focus on being client-centred. A good example of this orientation-type is during the Great Depression in the 1930s, when the focus of companies shifted from production to selling, due to the fact that money was a scarce resource for the greatest number of people and companies would do anything to sell their products. After World War 2, consumers' goods were produced from industrial capacity goods. Consumers could satisfy their needs in buying all products they could not have bought during the years of the war. This resulted in consumers being more selective in what they bought. The competition in attaining consumers was high and succeeded well into the 1950s. However, consumers did not like to be pushed into buying goods, therefore a bad image was formed towards marketing, due to its hard-selling tactics. In following a selling orientation, companies need rather to focus on a once-off sale rather than repeated sales, therefore needing to encourage consumers to buy a product, such as life insurance (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:14-15). According to Hall (2012:30) within this era, in the 1950s, the retail revolution was born which included the development of supermarkets and a consumer economy. This led to an increase in competition and companies could no longer depend on a guaranteed demand for all of their products. Within this era, high pressure selling and advertising occurred to create or influence demand for goods which were manufactured by the company (Seaton & Bennett, 1996:20).

2.3.3 The consumer era (1957-1998)

Companies quickly realised that consumers' needs and wants are more important and an appropriate product is to be created rather than creating a product first and then looking for consumers to buy it. Thus return on investment was reliant on brand equity, and brand equity upon brand loyalty. In implementing a consumer orientation, competition was

defeated and marketing started to play an important role within a company. This was followed by implementing Total Quality Management (TQM) where quality products were produced that met consumers' needs and wants. The main focus within this era was the consumer and this benefited both the company and its consumers (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:15). Consumer's tastes and needs had to be taken into account along with the promotion of products (Seaton & Bennett, 1996:21). Television advertising became very important during the 1960s. Marketing was back and seen as being cool and mainstream. This was followed by the 1970s, when creative marketing arrived, which included sophisticated adverts and campaigns. Another age of marketing within this era included the decade of the brand (1980s), where marketing was seen as the golden key that revealed fortunes and the brand of a company was seen as a very important aspect of the company. Lastly, within the 1990s the target marketing age occurred where everything evolved around thorough targeting and value for money (Hall, 2012:30-31).

2.3.4 The New era: make money and act ethically (1988 to present)

The New Era orientation refers to the building of long-term relationships with consumers and recognising the company's role within society. In doing this, Customer Relationship Management (CRM) evolved, where the value proposition was modified to meet the consumer's unique needs and wants. This could only be implemented in thoroughly tracking consumers' preferences and behaviour over time. With the arrival of the World Wide Web, it eased the implementation of CRM. However, it is argued that, instead of measuring a company's share of the market as in the past; in future its success will be measured by its share of mind (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:16). The 2000s were also known as the digital marketing age and if a company did not make use of digital advertising, they were seen as not adapting to the latest developments in marketing. The present is also seen as the age of the idea, where everybody is searching for "the idea" that is universal and assimilates all activities (Hall, 2012:32). It is therefore important that companies arise from the competition in thinking innovatively and becoming part of its consumer's daily lives. To achieve this, the main focus should be on business ethics, social benefits and accountability (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:17). The focus of marketing is creating a life-long consumer, in treating consumers as friends and recognising new identification technology (Hall, 2012:39). Within tourism, the focus has changed from being only on economic aspects to the tourists' experience and the nature of the tourist. This includes the social and environmental fields of tourism as well as training and educational needs (Jennings, 2010:4).

Hall (2012:44) identifies core lessons learnt from the history of marketing. Firstly, one needs a product that one is proud of - if not the company is in trouble. Boring communication will

never work and a marketing plan should not only focus on money, but have a great idea. One should talk to consumers in their language and not that of the company. One is getting it wrong if one does not spend fifty percent of one's time thinking about one's consumers. Lastly, marketing does not stand still, it is a race, one needs to act and think fast.

Because of the fast pace of living today, marketers face challenges within the marketing environment. Consumers' lifestyles are different and they tend to want products available at all times and at the exact moment they need it. They are not prepared to wait for them and, because they are accustomed to computers and the internet, their speed of living increases and makes the work of marketers in today's world more difficult (Hollensen, 2010:119). Social media is the new way to go within the marketing environment. Almost everyone has a Facebook profile, a twitter account and many other blogs or websites. E-marketing therefore plays an important role in this day and age and the tourism industry should use the opportunities it offers.

2.4 MARKETING AS A PROCESS

Marketing is seen as a process, more specifically a decision process. Within this process different strategies are determined to help achieve long-term objectives. In doing so the strategies are implemented through using the right tools at one's disposal. This section will focus on marketing planning and marketing tools that help marketers with decision making to plan ahead and help execute these plans.

2.4.1 Marketing planning

The first phase in marketing planning is to investigate the marketing environment. In doing so, the company's strengths and weaknesses are to be understood as well as its opportunities and threats. This will assist in the development and marketing of the company's products. The SWOT analysis will be discussed later within this section, which explains the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the company. Various questions arise when engaging in marketing planning. To answer these questions, a marketing plan should be developed. According to Solomon *et al.* (2013:36) a marketing plan is defined as a document that describes the marketing environment, outlines the marketing objectives and strategy and identifies who will be responsible for carrying out each part of the marketing strategy.

It is important to know which products are to be marketed to which consumers. Some companies decide to market their products to as many consumers as possible, in doing so offering their products or services to a mass market, which is "all possible consumers in a market regardless of the differences in their specific needs and wants" (Solomon *et al.*,

2013:36-37). This could be effective, however another focus could be on a segment within the market. A market segment is a distinct group of customers within a larger market who are similar to one another in some way and whose needs differ from other customers in the larger market (Hawkins, Mothersbaugh & Best, 2007:16). When focusing on one segment within the market, the company's product could position itself within the target market. Market position is seen as the way the specific target market perceives the product when compared to competitor brands.

2.4.2 Marketing tools: The marketing mix

The marketing mix is also referred to as the four P's of marketing, Product, Place, Price and Promotion (see Figure 2.3). These are combined to satisfy a consumer's needs. However, when focusing on services, a further three P's can be added, People, Process and Physical evidence (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:66-67; Hoffman *et al.*, 2009:493; Hollensen, 2010:77; Christopher, Payne Ballantyne, 2013:11; Blythe, 2013:9). Because a primary focus of tourism is services, these three additional P's will briefly be explained. According to Lancaster and Reynolds (2005:41), for service delivery to be successful people play a critical role, for it is people that deliver services and without people service delivery is not possible. Certain processes need to be present for service delivery to take place, for if a process is not present it could lead to negative experience and consumers may never make use of certain services again. Lastly, physical evidence, which is defined by Lancaster and Reynolds (2005:41) as the ability and environment in which the service is delivered, includes both tangible goods and intangible experience. Therefore, the ability of the company to communicate consumer satisfaction to potential consumers is very important. These three additional elements could empower marketers to concentrate on aspects that could create uniqueness within the company for a future competitive advantage (Hoffman *et al.*, 2009:494; Hollensen, 2010:77).

The four P's of the marketing mix are co-dependent on each other even though they are seen as individual parts in a marketing strategy. The marketing mix is the most essential concept within marketing because, when various offerings are available to consumers, these four crucial decision areas should be managed correctly (Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:19). Marketers sell products, whereas consumers buy value or a solution to their problems. Therefore four C's exist from a consumer's point of view. These four C's are customer solution, customer cost, convenience and communication. The consumer is not only interested in the price of the product, but the total cost of obtaining, consuming and disposing of the product. The product therefore needs to be conveniently available to the consumers and effective two-way communication is needed. To build the four P's, marketers

need to take these four C's into consideration to ensure effective marketing (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:67). Next, the four P's of the marketing mix will be discussed.

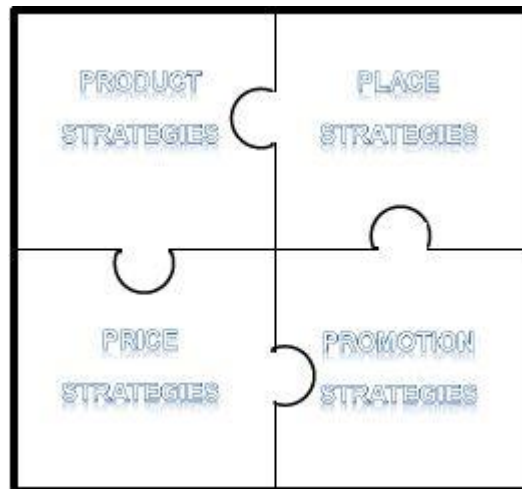


Figure 2.3: The marketing mix

Source: Solomon et al. (2013:37)

2.4.2.1 Product

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2010:38), a product is anything (service, goods, person, and idea) that is offered for sale in exchange for something else. Product within the marketing mix is a blend between different aspects, which include the physical features; design and packaging thereof; as well as any other service such as free delivery. Product is a very important aspect within the marketing mix and it needs to focus on attaining the consumers' attention. Seaton and Bennett (1996:18) identify questions that need to be taken into consideration when referring to product. Some of which are what products are to be offered? What benefits and features does the product offer? Will it meet consumer's needs and wants? What other products are its main competitors?

2.4.2.2 Price

When referring to price, it is the amount that must be exchanged by the consumer to receive the offering in return. Price can be used to draw consumers' attention, by putting certain products on sale. Sometimes the price is increased to stress the fact that the product is of high quality or advanced. The price paid for a product or service could also indicate a status symbol, if it is very expensive (Solomon et al., 2013:38). Price strategies have a direct effect on marketing and sales within a company (Kotler et al., 2010:557). Again a question to be asked as identified by Seaton and Bennett (1996:18) is at what price should products be presented to its consumers?

2.4.2.3 Promotion

Promotion is defined by Kotler and Armstrong (2010:66) as all the activities marketers undertake to inform consumers about their products and to encourage potential customers to buy these products. There are different forms of promotion, which include television advertising, billboards, magazine adverts, personal selling, sponsorship, direct marketing and so on. Marketing sometimes even communicates mythical messages, which include stories with figurative elements that express the principles and shared emotions of a certain culture. The question to be asked here is how the company should publicise its product (Seaton & Bennett, 1996:18). Within the tourism industry, promotion could affect the image tourists have of a certain destination; and if the image that they portray before their visit is not the same as during their visit, they might blame promotion for false advertising. Therefore promotion needs to be ethical and correct and portray the truth.

2.4.2.4 Place

The last of the four P's is place, which refers to the availability of the product to the consumer at the desired time and location (Hawkins *et al.*, 2007:21), therefore ensuring the product or service is available to the consumer at a specific time and place. Place is connected to distribution in getting the product to the consumer from the producer. The channels involved may include retail websites or retail outlets and so on (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:39). According to Seaton and Bennett (1996:18) with regard to place a question a company should ask is where the company's product should be distributed. Even though products are mainly sold in supermarkets and department stores, tourism (which is a service) cannot be distributed in a similar way.

For effective marketing to take place, the four P's, which are from the seller's viewpoint and the four C's, which take the buyer's viewpoint, need to coincide with each other (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:67). The next section will focus on the three levels of planning, the main emphasis being on functional planning which is the core planning within marketing.

2.5 THREE LEVELS OF PLANNING

According to Solomon *et al.* (2013:51) business planning is defined as "an ongoing process of making decisions that guide the company both in the short term and for the long haul." Because of an ever-changing business environment, informed decisions are to be made at all levels within a company and therefore planning focuses on the strengths of a company. In doing so, objectives are identified before taking action. Planning differs from company to company and the size of the business. Planning consists of three levels, which are strategic planning, functional planning, (also known as marketing planning) and operational planning (Figure 2.4). For the purpose of this chapter, functional planning will be discussed in detail

as it focuses on marketing planning. However, strategic planning and operational planning will also be discussed briefly.

	Functional Planning (In Marketing Department, called Marketing Planning)		
What it is:	Strategic Planning		Operational Planning
Who does it?	Planning done by top level corporate management	Planning done by top functional-level management such as the company's director	Planning done by supervisory managers
What they do:	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Define the mission 2. Evaluate the internal and external environment 3. Set organisational or business unit objectives 4. Establish the business portfolio (if applicable) 5. Develop growth strategies 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Perform a situation analysis 2. Set marketing objectives 3. Develop marketing strategies 4. Implement marketing strategies 5. Monitor and control marketing strategies 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Develop action plans to implement the marketing plan 2. Use marketing metrics to monitor how the plan is working

Figure 2.4: Levels of planning

Source: Solomon et al. (2013:51)

2.5.1 Strategic planning

Strategic planning can be defined as a managerial process that matches the company's resources, such as financial assets and workforce, and capabilities, which are the things enabling the company to do well due to expertise and experience, to its marketing opportunities for long-term growth to take place. When conducting strategic planning, top-management usually identifies the purpose of the company and what it wishes to achieve within the next five years. Within large companies, strategic planning takes place at corporate level and at individual business unit level (Solomon et al., 2013:52). Kotler et al. (2010:61) state that strategic planning is important to ensure a strategic fit between a company's aims and its varying marketing opportunities.

For large companies to depend on only one product is of great risk, therefore some large companies develop multiproduct companies or independent divisions which are prepared

around products or brands. These independent divisions are referred to as SBUs (Strategic Business Units) and represent the company on numerous areas. Each SBU is diverse enough to have its own mission, business objectives, managers and competitors as well as resources (Kotler *et al.*, 2010:64). The following steps are to be followed when strategic planning takes place: a mission statement is to be identified for the company as a whole, after which top-management evaluates the internal and external environments of the company and establishes organisational or SBU objectives. Following this is the formation of the business portfolio; and then the developing of growth strategies (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:53).

2.5.2 Functional planning (Also called marketing planning within the marketing department)

The strategic plan, as discussed briefly in the previous section, does not indicate how to achieve the company's objectives. This makes lower level managers' work more stressful in having to develop functional plans as to how to successfully reach the company's objectives (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:75). The second level of planning is therefore functional planning. The name derives from the various areas comprising the company including finances, marketing and human resource management. Usually within the marketing department the Marketing Director or Marketing Manager takes charge of marketing planning. Functional planning includes a five-year plan which backs the company's strategic plan and a thorough annual plan for the year ahead (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:52). Within the functional planning level, the marketing plan is developed and implemented. A marketing plan, as defined by Solomon *et al.* (2013:51), is a document that describes the marketing environment; outlines the marketing objectives and strategies; and identifies how the strategies embedded in the plan will be implemented. According to Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:41), the fundamental function of marketing planning is to answer questions such as where the company is, where the company would like to be, how the company would get there and whether the company is on course or not?

As previously discussed, for the four P's of the marketing mix to be implemented successfully, the marketers need to do remarkable planning. Therefore the company should have feasible **P**roducts at **P**rices that consumers will be prepared to pay and deliver the product to the right **P**lace where consumers want to buy as well as **P**romoting these products effectively. This could help the company to gain advantage over its competitors. The company therefore needs to have something better to offer than its competition (Hult *et al.*, 2014:44). These four P's are also important within the tourism industry (Ciricović, 2014:111).

Even though the steps within marketing planning are closely related to those within strategic planning, the central difference is that the main focus of marketing planning is the company's products, prices, distribution procedures to the right place and their promotional methods. Customer value and customer relationships are of the utmost importance within marketing planning. There are four steps involved in marketing planning. They are performing a situation analysis, setting marketing objectives, developing marketing strategies and implementing and controlling the marketing plan. These steps will be discussed next (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:76).

2.5.2.1 Step 1: Perform a situational analysis

The first step in developing a marketing plan is analysing the marketing environment. In doing so, the company's SWOT analysis is used and the company identifies specific influences the environment could have on its marketing plan. It is also important to take the main competitors into consideration and evaluate their marketing to ensure effective planning (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:76). In other words, a SWOT analysis evaluates the strategic position of the company by identifying its strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (Kurtz & Boone, 2006:67; Saayman, Slabbert & Uys, 2006:224). After performing a SWOT analysis, the company could contemplate ways to turn its weaknesses into strengths and its threats into opportunities (See Figure 2.5). Strengths and weaknesses are resources within the company that are controllable, whereas uncontrollable resources are the company's opportunities and threats which occur externally (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:50-51; George, 2008:80-81).

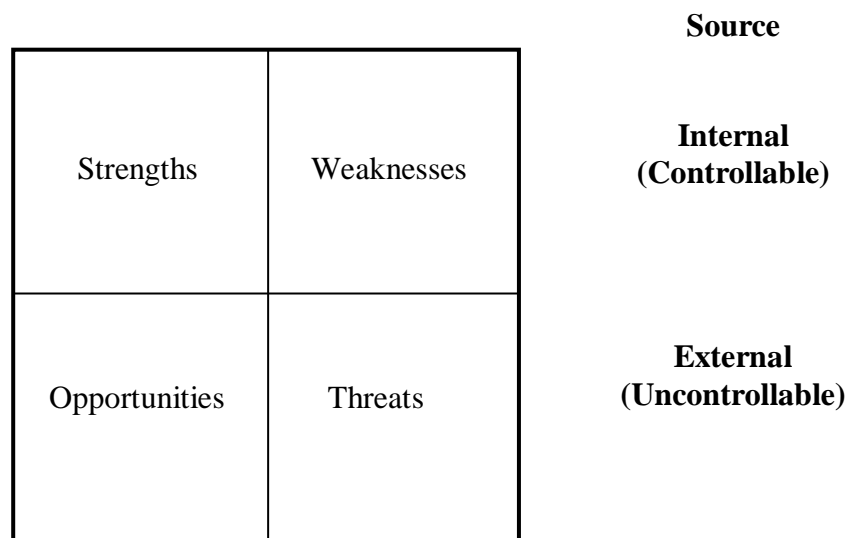


Figure 2.5: Strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT analysis)

Source: Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:50)

2.5.2.2 Step 2: Set marketing objectives

According to Solomon *et al.* (2013:76) once a detailed understanding of the marketing environment is acknowledged, the next step is to formulate definite marketing objectives. Marketing objectives are statements that the company wants to achieve through marketing activities (Hult *et al.*, 2014:42) The difference between marketing objectives and corporate objectives is that marketing objectives are usually specifically developed towards the company's products, brands, size and other elements within the marketing mix; whereas corporate or business objectives are a guideline for the functioning of the company overall. Therefore, marketing objectives should be met to ensure a successful marketing division within the company, which again supports the company's overall corporate or business objectives. Two levels of objectives within marketing planning occur, firstly strategic thrust objectives which outline the course of the plan and involve deciding on which markets to target and which products or services to sell. Secondly, strategic objectives set definite objectives for individual products (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:52).

Objectives need to be set to know which products should be sold in which markets. The strategic thrust objectives define the forthcoming course and areas of potential growth within the company. Four different alternatives exist. These are market penetration, product development; market development and entry into new markets (see Figure 2.6).

		Markets	
		Existing	New
Products	Existing	Market penetration or expansion	Market development
	New / related	Product development	Enter new markets

Figure 2.6: Strategic thrust alternatives

Sources: Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:52); Kotler et al. (2010:65)

2.5.2.2a Market penetration

Within the market penetration strategy, a company plans to escalate sales of existing products to existing markets. This leads to increased penetration which is also known as expansion. The current markets refer to current consumers, non-consumers and consumers that support the company's competitors. Some actions that could be implemented are lowering prices, improving dispersal of products and conducting promotions or sales promotions (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:73-74; Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:52). This strategy is a high risk strategy for it may result in financial losses if not managed correctly (Burgess & Bothma, 2007:366).

2.5.2.2b Product development

Here the focus is on a company's existing markets and where new products are launched within these markets. New products are developed or new variants or even modifications and improvements are made to the product to deliver greater performance. However, new products may disappoint consumers if they fail to offer additional benefits (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:74; Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:52). Product development may result in expenses and risks are involved. However, it may lead to consumers being very satisfied and they benefit from buying the product (Hult *et al.*, 2014:357).

2.5.2.2c Market development

Solomon *et al.* (2013:74) as well as Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:53) refer to market development as the stage where a company's existing products are introduced within new markets. This could either mean expanding the company's geographical market, or focusing on a different segment within its current geographical market. An example could be that instead of focusing only on young consumers for a certain product, to broaden the market to attract older consumers as well. In finding a new market, competitive advantage may arise and the company's competitors may still market to other segments, whereas the company has broadened its horizon and focuses on distributing their current products within brand new markets (Kotler *et al.*, 2010:65).

2.5.2.2d Entry into new markets

The last strategy described by Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:53) is entry into new markets where the emphasis is on both new products and new markets. Therefore totally new products are developed and distributed within totally new markets. The risk factor in this instance is very high when deciding to implement this type of strategy. This strategy is usually implemented when a company's existing products and markets offer limited

prospects for future growth. However, if a synergy exists between existing and new products, this strategy is likely to succeed (Blythe, 2014:325).

The main focus of strategic thrust objectives is to indicate the direction of the company regarding its products and markets. However, the focus of strategic objectives is to set aims for each individual product. This is done within the planning at product level. Four options occur which are to build, hold, harvest and divest. Building sales and market share should not be seen as the only objective for a product, however holding sales and market share may make sense within certain situations. Another option to building is harvesting where profit margins are maximised, contrariwise the reduction of sales and market share are permitted. Finally the most logical result may be that of divestment, where the product or service is sold (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:54).

2.5.2.3 Step 3: Develop marketing strategies

Within step 3 of the marketing planning process, the actual marketing strategies are developed by the marketing managers. The marketing strategies involve identifying activities that need to be achieved to accomplish the previously set marketing objectives. This includes the decision as to which market is to be targeted; and the establishment of the marketing mix strategies that include product, price, promotion and place. This supports the positioning of the product within the market. The marketers should therefore understand how consumers see their product in relation to their competitors (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:74). Marketing strategies need to be consumer driven, however within the market place there are various consumers with very different needs. The company therefore needs to focus on a certain segment within the total consumer population to know their consumer's needs and wants (Kotler *et al.*, 2010:69).

2.5.2.3.1 Selecting a target market

The target market is defined by Kotler and Armstrong (2010:63) as the market segment selected because of the company's belief that its offerings are most suited to winning those consumers and sustaining profitability. Hoffman *et al.* (2009:229) add to this definition and state that this selected segment becomes the company's main marketing focus. In doing this, the company evaluates the probable demand by deciding whether the company's product will have competitive advantage within the marketplace; and whether it possesses unique capabilities. The marketing plan therefore identifies the company's target market and gives a detailed description of whom, what and where the specific target market is (Kurtz & Boone, 2006:67).

2.5.2.3.2 Developing marketing mix strategies

The marketing mix decisions detect how marketing objectives will be achieved within the target market in using product, price, promotion and place; as well as the value it adds to the company's consumers. These decisions are to be taken very seriously and are to be taken by combining them and supporting each other (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:63).

2.5.2.3.2a Product strategy

Without having a product, a company has nothing to sell and cannot make a profit; therefore the product forms the dominant part of the marketing mix. Product strategies are to be formulated carefully. By doing so, this will enable them to achieve the overall marketing objectives of the company. Decisions concerning product design, branding, packaging, maintenance or support services all form part of product strategies. Additional decisions may include what makes the company's product unique and whether there will be variations of the specific product by focusing on the target market (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:77). The tourism product is a multifaceted set of diverse physical resources, activities and services. By buying this combination of natural resources, activities and services, the tourist buys a need for experience (Ciricović, 2014:112-113).

2.5.2.3.2b Price strategy

Solomon *et al.* (2013:77) state that this strategy refers to the amount that a company charges for its product. The willingness of consumers to pay for the product obviously plays an important role in the development of the pricing strategy. If the price is not right, all other efforts within marketing are pointless. The pricing strategy not only focuses on determining the right price for the consumers, but also for the wholesalers and retailers. The prices asked by the company's competitors, the demand for the product, and the costs involved in producing the product, all have an influence on the pricing strategies.

2.5.2.3.2c Promotion strategy

How a product's benefits and features are communicated to a company's target market is known as the promotion strategy. In making use of promotion strategies, marketers are enabled to create a message for the specific product to be communicated to target consumers. Promotion strategies also include public relations and publicity, direct marketing, personal selling and sales promotions. These elements are then used to communicate the marketing message to the target market (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:77). As a marketing mix element within the tourism industry, promotion is intended to deliver support for the location of product within the tourism market and to generate consciousness about it. In doing so, an image is created and, finally and most importantly, it's positioning in the market is decided.

The main goal of the promotional mix therefore is to offer a positive image of the tourism product to probable tourists, thus assisting in making it their primary choice (Ciricović, 2014:114).

2.5.2.3.2d Distribution or place strategy

The final marketing mix strategy is that of distribution or place strategy. This strategy is all about in what way and where the company will present the product to its target consumers. Firstly, a company should decide whether they want to sell their product through wholesalers and retailers, or if they want to sell the product directly to their final consumers. When deciding which retailers to use, it is dependent on the product, price and promotion choices. For instance, a luxury product would not normally be sold in a discount shop, for it may damage its brand image. Consumers today want to be able to purchase goods online from the comfort of their home. Therefore, the products should be made available to fulfil these needs and wants by means of effective and appropriate delivery methods (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:78).

2.5.2.4 Step 4: Implement and control the marketing plan

After developing the marketing plan, it is necessary to make a success of it. During this implementation phase, marketers need to be able to regulate the extent to which the marketing objectives are met. This is done by means of control, which consists of three steps. Firstly, measuring the actual performance; secondly, comparing the actual performance to the previously set marketing objectives; and, thirdly, altering the objectives and strategies through this analysis. These alterations are needed to achieve success, thus the marketing objectives need to be flexible when necessary. The breakeven point is to be calculated, which helps with the control of the marketing plan. Control is necessary on a continual basis so that if the direction of the marketing plan drifts off from what the outcome needs to be, this can be recognised and changed early enough (Cohen, 2006:7)

For effective control to take place, suitable marketing metrics are essential. Marketing metrics is defined by Solomon *et al.* (2013:78) as “concrete measures of various aspects of marketing performance”. ROMI (Return On Marketing Investment) is when marketing affects a company’s success financially and within other sections or divisions. When allowing for marketing to be an investment rather than an expense, it ensures that marketing enhances the business and is considered more strategically. Therefore the ROMI concept intensifies the significance of recognising and following suitable marketing metrics. The control process allows companies to identify the objectives that have not been met and why. Contingent on the causes, either the marketing plan’s strategies are to be adjusted, or the marketing

objectives, which will then reveal realistic goals. This ensures, as discussed previously, that objectives are not only specific and measurable, but also attainable (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:78-80). By implementing this step, the measurement and control aspects include action plans, responsibility, timeline, budget and measurement and control. Each of these aspects will be discussed next.

2.5.2.4a Action plans

Solomon *et al.* (2013:80) state that the implementation and control of the marketing plan is manifested through the presence of a sequence of action plans, which support the company's marketing objectives and strategies. Action plans, also known as marketing programmes, are implemented to ensure that these objectives and strategies are achieved. It is best when a separate action plan is set for every important element within the marketing plan. Table 2.2 is a template for how an action plan is to be implemented. Implementation of the marketing plan is sometimes seen as an impossible or very intimidating task. However, if a step-by-step action plan is followed and each step is completed with in-depth quality, it is easily implemented. The last four elements in an action plan are responsibility, timeline, budget, and measurement and control. If these are all successfully combined, the company's overall implementation and control section of the marketing plan is likely to be a success.

Table 2.2: Action plan template

Title of action plan

Give the action plan a relevant name

Purpose of action plan

What does one hope to accomplish by the action plan? That is, what specific marketing objective and strategy within the marketing plan does it support?

Description of action plan

Be succinct, but still thorough, in explaining the action plan. What are the steps involved? This is the core of the action plan. It describes what must be done to accomplish the intended purpose of the action plan

Responsibility for the action plan

What person(s) or organisational unit(s) are responsible for carrying out the action plan? What external parties are needed to make it happen? Most importantly, who specifically has final "ownership" of the action plan – that is, who is accountable for it?

Timeline for the action plan

Provide a specific timetable of events leading to the completion of the plan. If different people are responsible for different elements of the timeline, provide that information.

Budget for the action plan

How much will implementation of the action plan cost? This may be direct costs only or may also

include indirect costs, depending on the situation. The sum of all the individual action plan budget items will ultimately be aggregated by category to create the overall budget for the marketing plan.

Measurement and control of the action plan

Indicate the appropriate metrics, how and when they will be measured, and who will measure them.

Source: Solomon et al. (2013:80)

2.5.2.4b Responsibility

Not everyone that is involved in the implementation of the marketing plan can be seen as a marketer; however, without people a marketing plan cannot be implemented. Most sections of a company are affected by the marketing plan. To deploy the necessary human resources for the plan's objectives to be achieved, the human resource department and upper management need to be involved. It is not only the marketing department's duty to implement the marketing plan, but various sections within the company including customer service, sales, quality control, production, finance, shipping, information technology and so on. All of these sections will help implement the marketing plan successfully (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:81).

2.5.2.4c Timeline

Solomon *et al.* (2013:81) state that for the overall marketing plan to be successful, each action plan involves a timeline for the achievement of numerous responsibilities. A flow chart is a form often used to portray the timing of the tasks at hand that need to be completed. Other charts used include Gantt charts or PERT charts, which are very common charts within operations management. The implementation of these tasks at hand, which is portrayed on the timeline, will be observed closely and assessed for its performance (Kurtz & Boone, 2006:75). The financial management of the marketing plan and the budgets are also developed around the timeline, so managers know when cash disbursements are necessary.

2.5.2.4d Budget

It is challenging to predict the needed expenditure related to a marketing plan, therefore each action plan assumes that costs are involved and carries a budget item. When the overall marketing plan is developed, a master budget is drafted and traced throughout the entire market planning process. During the course of the marketing planning process, if deviations from the budget occur, they are reported to the responsible party of that specific section or area. The budget therefore comes to be a critical part of control (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:81). A budget comprises the breakdown of all costs acquired during the implementation of the marketing plan. It also contains the balance of projected sales, profits and losses during this timeframe (Kurtz & Boone, 2006:67).

2.5.2.4e Measurement and control

The type of metric(s) that is used by marketers to monitor and regulate individual action plans is the overall control process for the marketing plan. It is a fact that effective and consistent measurement and control is not always done correctly or efficiently by marketers, which compromises the company's marketing planning. Using the right metrics will help marketers to make worthy choices (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:82) and would lead to optimal control. The main purpose of any marketing plan is to forecast the time it is going to take the company to achieve its long and short term goals set within the marketing plan. Once these goals are achieved, an exit strategy is followed in which, for example, the company decides to exit the market once it has reached its goals (Kurtz & Boone, 2006:68).

2.5.3 Operational planning

The third level of planning is known as operational planning and line-managers are usually responsible for this. These line-managers consist of marketing communications managers, marketing research managers or sales managers. This planning includes annual, semi-annual or quarterly plans and concentrates on the day-to-day implementation of these plans (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:52). A written plan can be great on paper, however, if it is not appropriately implemented, it is of no use, and this is what operational plans are for. These plans are over a shorter period, say two months or so, in which detailed directions are given to perform the tasks and activities and complete them within the right time. Since Table 2.2 indicates the action plan template, it would most probably be functional within operational management. Many operational activities can be used during the previous two planning processes: strategic and marketing planning. Such activities may include the collection of data, which is then directed to management at functional level and beyond (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:83). Now that the concept of marketing has been described and there is a better understanding thereof, a description of tourism marketing will be discussed next.

2.6 TOURISM MARKETING

Tourism marketing comprises diverse components. These components are physical or tangible which include buildings, food and vehicles. There is also the service component which is intangible and is the experience component (Ford, Sturman & Heaton, 2012:7-9). It is necessary to place the marketing of tourism in the context of services and services marketing. The tourism industry is seen as the worlds' largest industry and therefore it is a significant component in the service economy (Rogers, 2013:12). A service is defined as any activity that one party can offer to another which is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything. Its production may or may not be tied to a physical product (Fyall & Garrod, 2005:34). However, because tourism focuses on services which include

experiences that are intangible (Hoffman *et al.*, 2009:6, 26-27), it relies heavily on the image being portrayed as positive, through for example media and word of mouth (George, 2008:416).

Experience is probably the most important component, yet it has been neglected for many years by tourism marketers. This component cannot function without the other two and is used in advertising campaigns as well as in the development of products. To understand tourism marketing, it is important to define tourism. Saayman (2000:3) defines tourism as the total experience that originates from the interaction between tourists, job providers, government systems and communities in the process of attracting, entertaining, transporting and accommodating tourists. A problem that arises is the long-term damage caused by tourists' ever-changing buying/consumer behaviour. Tourism therefore is often driven by short-term needs rather than long-term objectives because the industry is always changing and tourists need constant change (World Tourism Industry, 2010).

Consumers' perceptions can have a positive and negative impact on the tourism product (Sánchez, Callarisa, Rodríguez & Moliner, 2006:395). Tourism is more often than not a product that is partly constituted by the dreams and fantasies of its consumers (Fyall & Garrod, 2005:142), where perceptions can be highly favourable or detrimental to marketing efforts. Tourism carries a higher than normal level of risk because it represents a high-involvement purchase (Gursoy & McCleary, 2003:362-363). Tourists are often uncertain during the purchasing period because the tourism product is only experienced after the point of purchase. Tourism products often create an ideology in the tourists' minds by using marketing methods such as brochures. This makes it difficult for some organisations to uphold the high level of service as advertised and satisfying the visitors' expectations (Fyall & Garrod, 2005:44). Image formation within the tourism industry therefore plays an integral part in tourists' perceptions. The next section will focus on consumer behaviour, the decision-making process and aspects that have an influence on consumer behaviour.

2.7 CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Each consumer is unique and has his / her own reasons for choosing a specific product. As previously discussed in section 2.3.1, marketing is all about fulfilling consumer needs and wants. It is therefore important to know what the consumers' needs and wants entail. According to Solomon *et al.* (2013:150) the process individuals or groups go through to select, purchase, use and dispose of goods, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy their needs and desires, is known as consumer behaviour. Lancaster and Reynolds (2005:56) similarly define consumer behaviour as "the acts of individuals directly involved in obtaining

and using economic goods and services, including the decision processes that precede and determine these acts.” Therefore marketers need to know why, when and how often consumers buy or use the company’s products or services. Factors such as time of purchase and social influences are to be understood. Consumers consequently have different types of decisions and, as a result, the decision-making process plays an important role within consumer behaviour (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:150-151). Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick, (2013:116) define consumers as “individuals who buy products or services for personal consumption”. Within the tourism industry, which focuses on experience, service plays an important role and therefore tourists will purchase services, which is often difficult to measure. The decision-making process therefore plays an important role in purchasing behaviour and will be focused on next.

2.7.1 Decision making: The decision-making process

Different decisions exist and they vary in importance depending on what product or service is purchased. This goes hand-in-hand with how much effort a consumer is willing to devote to their decisions. One therefore has two forms of decision making, which includes extended problem solving versus habitual decision making. Extended problem solving is when very important decisions, such as buying a house, have to be made and consumers go through the steps of the decision-making process prudently. In contradiction to extended problem solving, consumers make habitual decisions, where little to no sensible effort is used. Here consumers do not search for information or compare alternatives. The purchase is made automatically and due to habit (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:130; Vellas & Bécherel, 1999:68). Within the tourism industry, an example of habitual purchase could be to go on a yearly vacation out of habit, because it is what the tourist sees as an annual decision. Even the destination chosen could be habitual, because the tourist may have grown up with, for instance, an annual sea-vacation and therefore purchases it because that is what the tourist perceives as a relaxed vacation.

Sometimes tourists even make impulsive purchases and purchase goods or services that are not actually needed, but do it because they identify with it as being vacation-related. An example of the differences between extended problem solving and habitual decision making within marketing is provided in Table 2.3. However, numerous decisions fall somewhere in the middle and are categorised by limited problem solving (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:151). With limited problem solving, the consumer has some familiarity towards the product and the search for information may be internally and through remembrance. However, a slight external search for information may occur, such as comparing prices of products before purchasing takes place. This enables marketers to affect purchase behaviour by

encouraging the need to conduct information searching from advertising; and decreasing the risk of brand substitution through providing warranties (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:130).

Table 2.3: Extended problem solving versus habitual decision making

	Extended Problem Solving	Habitual Decision Making
Product	New car	Box of cereal
Level of involvement	High (important decision)	Low (unimportant decision)
Perceived risk	High (expensive, complex product)	Low (simple, low-cost product)
Information processing	Careful processing of information (search advertising, magazines, car dealers, websites)	Respond to environmental cues (shop signage or displays)
Learning mode	Cognitive learning (use insight and creativity to use information found in environment)	Behavioural learning (ad shows product in beautiful setting, creating positive attitude)
Needed marketing actions	Provide information via advertising, salespeople, brochure and websites. Educate consumers to product benefits, risks of wrong decisions.	Provide environmental cues at point of purchase, such as product display

Source: Solomon et al. (2013:153)

Two factors which include involvement and perceived risk, usually prescribe the type of decision-making process. Depending on the level of involvement of the consumers, the effort they put into the buying decision is determined by it. Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:130) indicated the type of involvement during the different stages of the decision-making process. This level of purchase involvement is portrayed in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: The consumer decision-making process and level of purchase involvement

Stage	Low involvement	High involvement
Need recognition / Problem awareness	Minor	Major, personally important
Information search	Limited search	Extensive search
Evaluation of alternatives and the purchase	Few alternatives evaluated on few choice criteria	Many alternatives evaluated on many choice criteria
Post-purchase evaluation of the decision	Limited evaluation	Extensive evaluation including media search

Source: Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:130)

The level of involvement refers to the importance of the apparent consequences of the purchase to the consumer; and whether they perceive the product to be risky (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:151; Lamb *et al.*, 2009:148). Once a product is seen to be expensive and complex, then perceived risk might be present. Five different types of risks can be involved, time risk, financial risk, social risk, psychological risk and physical risk. Time risk refers to the time that is needed to make the purchase, whereas financial risk refers to the money that is needed to purchase the product. Social risk is what people might think of the consumer, when he / she purchases the product and psychological risk refers to what the consumer thinks of himself / herself when buying the specific product. Lastly, physical risk involves the risk the product could have on the consumers' appearance or health (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:151). Hoffman *et al.* (2009:96) identify one more type of risk, which is performance risk. Performance risk is when the possibility arises that the purchased product may not achieve the task for which it was bought. When purchasing, for instance a box of cereal, consumers usually see the perceived risk as low and therefore feel low-involvement within the decision-making process. Environmental cues such as specials usually influence consumers to purchase the goods.

High-involvement purchases which include buying a car or television, usually have high perceived risks. The consumer will think cautiously about the decision and evaluate alternative products, because when bad decisions are made, it might lead to consequences such as monetary loss or humiliation. Other factors that determine the level of consumer involvement, as identified by Lamb *et al.* (2009:147-148), include the consumer's previous experience with the product; the consumer's different interests or hobbies; or the situation in which the consumer finds him or herself (for example a cheaper product may be purchased for one's daily purchases, but if a special occasion occurs, more expensive products may be purchased). Social visibility also has an effect on involvement through displaying famous brands which create a statement around the purchaser; however this may lead to social risk. The decision-making process contains three stages. Firstly, the pre-purchase stage. Secondly, the consumption stage. Thirdly, the post-purchase stage (Hoffman *et al.*, 2009:86). The process as indicated by Solomon *et al.* (2013:152) also consists of five steps, which are problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, product choice and post-purchase evaluation (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005:815). The steps of the decision-making process are portrayed in Figure 2.7. Each of these five steps will be discussed within this section.

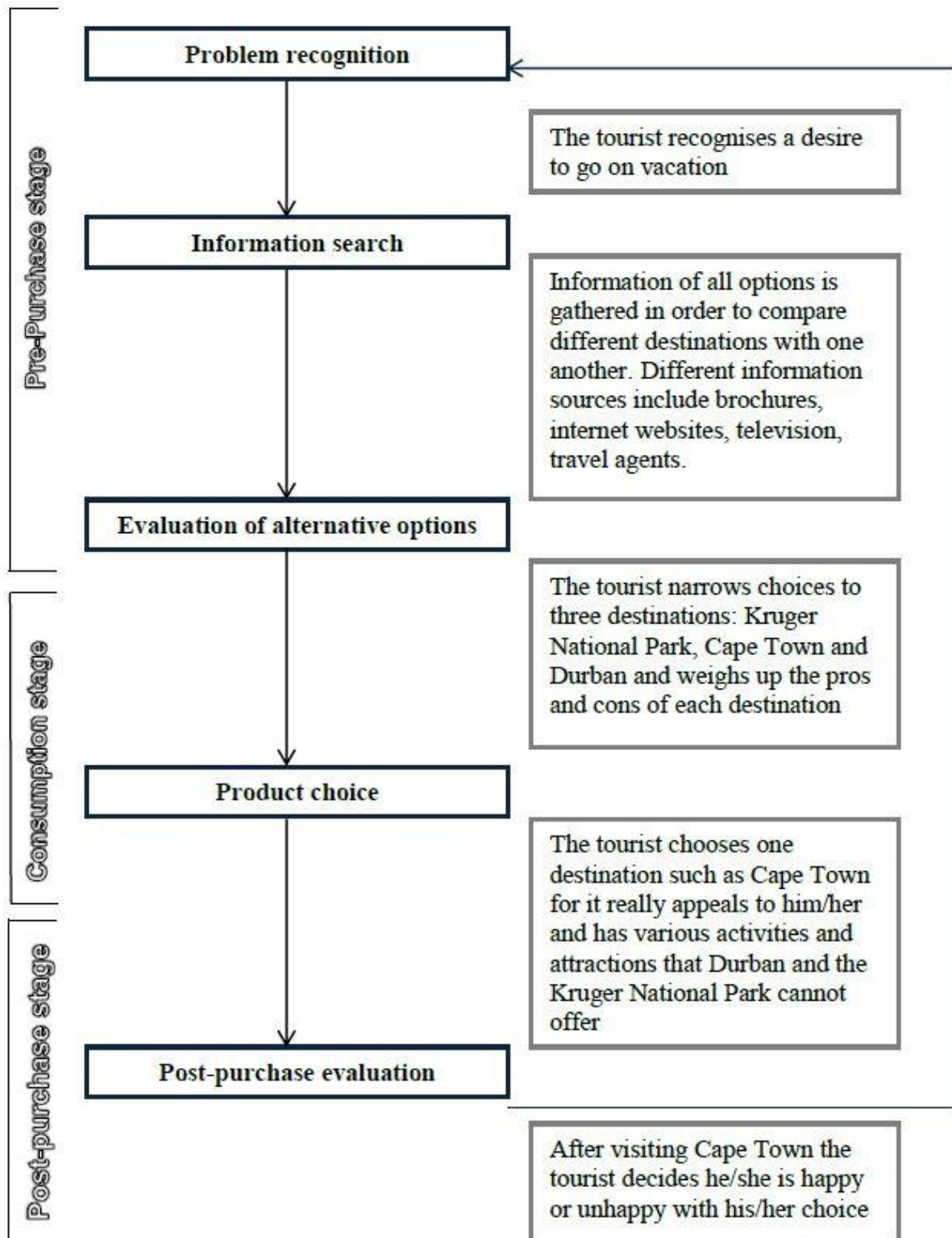


Figure 2.7: The consumer decision-making process

Adapted from: Solomon et al. (2013:152); Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:118); Hoffman et al. (2009:86) and Hollensen (2010:114)

2.7.1a Step 1: Problem recognition

Step 1 within the decision-making process is that of problem recognition which, according to Solomon *et al.* (2013:153) and Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick, (2013:118) occurs when a consumer sees a significant difference between their present situation and some preferred or idyllic state, hence the urge to satisfy their needs (Hollensen, 2010:113). An example within the tourism industry could be that there is a desire for a vacation, but the tourist does not know where he / she wants to go since there are so many opportunities or destinations to choose from (George, 2008:177). Even though a problem may exist, if the difference between the current situation and the desired situation is small, the consumer may not be motivated to move to the next step within the decision-making process. Therefore two factors, the greatness of the difference between the desired situation and the present situation and the comparative significance of the problem, may have an influence on the degree to which the consumer intends to resolve the problem (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:118).

2.7.1b Step 2: Information search

Information is needed to solve the identified problem. In this case, where to go on vacation? Therefore, information search is the next step within the decision-making process whereby information is gathered to solve this problem by identifying various options to choose from. Internal and external sources of information exist and include advertisements such as brochures, internet websites, television, travel agents and the radio (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:153-154). Information on options is gathered to compare the options of the different destinations. The consumer's knowledge may increase as more information is gathered regarding a certain product or service. This stage occurs when consumer's need for information results in dynamic seeking and intensified attention (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:163). Marketers therefore need to make this necessary information accessible to tourists. Behavioural targeting techniques can be used by marketers, by delivering advertisements with regard to different destination options as pop-up advertisements, while surfing on the internet (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:156).

2.7.1c Step 3: Evaluation of options

Hollensen (2010:115) indicates step 3 within the decision-making process as the evaluation of the different options collected within step 2; and to identify some true contenders. A small number of destinations in which the tourist is interested are identified, whereafter the tourist weighs the pros and cons of the different destinations against each other and narrows down the available choices. The tourist might have the desire to travel internationally but, because of the expenses involved in travelling abroad, he or she narrows down their choices to

national destinations. These destinations are then compared to each other and, depending on the tourist's wants and needs, are further narrowed down. After this process has been completed, it is time for the tourist to decide which destination he or she is going to choose. The choices might be that of the Kruger National Park, Cape Town and Durban. Evaluative criteria and characteristics of each of these destinations are identified (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:156). These characteristics may include sightseeing, attractions, seasonality, types of accommodation, travel distance, cost and so on. After these criteria have been taken into consideration, the tourist may rank the different destination options in order of preference (George, 2008:177).

2.7.1d Step 4: Product choice

Making the decision and implementing this choice is the fourth step within the decision-making process. In helping to make the final choice heuristics are often depended upon. Heuristics may include rules such as "price = quality", therefore they are willing to pay more for that which they assume is of a better quality. These rules / heuristics simplify the decision-making process. The best known heuristic might be that of brand loyalty. If previous experiences have been good at, for instance SANParks (South African National Parks), the tourist may see the Kruger National Park as superior to Cape Town or Durban as destinations. However, Cape Town and Durban may have other brand loyalty traits that the Kruger National Park does not offer. After struggling through the comparisons of each destination choice, the tourist chooses to go to Cape Town for vacation. The factors that led to the decision might be that the tourist has a family which has never been to Cape Town and the attractions and activities are more inviting than those of Durban or the Kruger National Park, given the tourist's needs and wants (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:156-158). Factors that are taken into consideration include time and money, after which the final reservations are made and confirmed (George, 2008:177).

2.7.1e Step 5: Post-purchase evaluation

According to Solomon *et al.* (2013:158-159) within this last step of the decision-making process the consumer (tourist) will evaluate his or her choice of vacation destination. After evaluating the choice, it will lead to either a level of consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This is determined through the general feeling or attitude towards a product (the destination) after it has been purchased (visited). Expectations are set before the purchase and by means of different sources such as word of mouth from family and friends, previous experiences, marketing communication, information sources and own experiences. After the destination has been visited, these expectations are judged or compared to the actual experience. Marketers should therefore be cautious when advertising a product, for

portraying true expectations within advertising is very important to ensure consumer satisfaction. If purchasing results in dissatisfaction or regret, it is also known as cognitive dissonance. From a marketer and a consumer point of view, it is very important that dissonance is reduced between what was expected and what was actually experienced after the purchase has taken place.

If the tourist experienced his / her vacation to Cape Town negatively, he or she might not return to Cape Town; and this may result in negative word of mouth, which is not good for the image of the City of Cape Town. Marketers need to gain consumers' insights and feelings about their purchases and whether they are happy or not with the product / experience. Often cognitive dissonance, which is buyer discomfort caused by post-purchase conflict, where two very similar products, such as the choice between Durban and Cape Town, have the same attractions. However, in choosing to go to Cape Town, the tourist may be disappointed afterwards having chosen Cape Town over Durban, therefore creating a feeling of regret (Hollensen, 2010:116). However, choosing to go to Cape Town might have the opposite effect and the tourist could have a positive experience and a satisfactory vacation (George, 2008:178).

2.7.2 Influences on consumers' decisions

The facets within the decision-making process are not the only important aspects within decision making. There are other influences within consumers' lives that also affect this process. Three types of influences occur, internal, situational and social influences. The ultimate choice that a consumer makes is therefore influenced not only by the decision-making process but also these three categories of influences. Figure 2.8 portrays the influences on consumers' decision making; and to make effective marketing decisions it is important that marketers understand these influences (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:159). These three categories of influences will be discussed next.

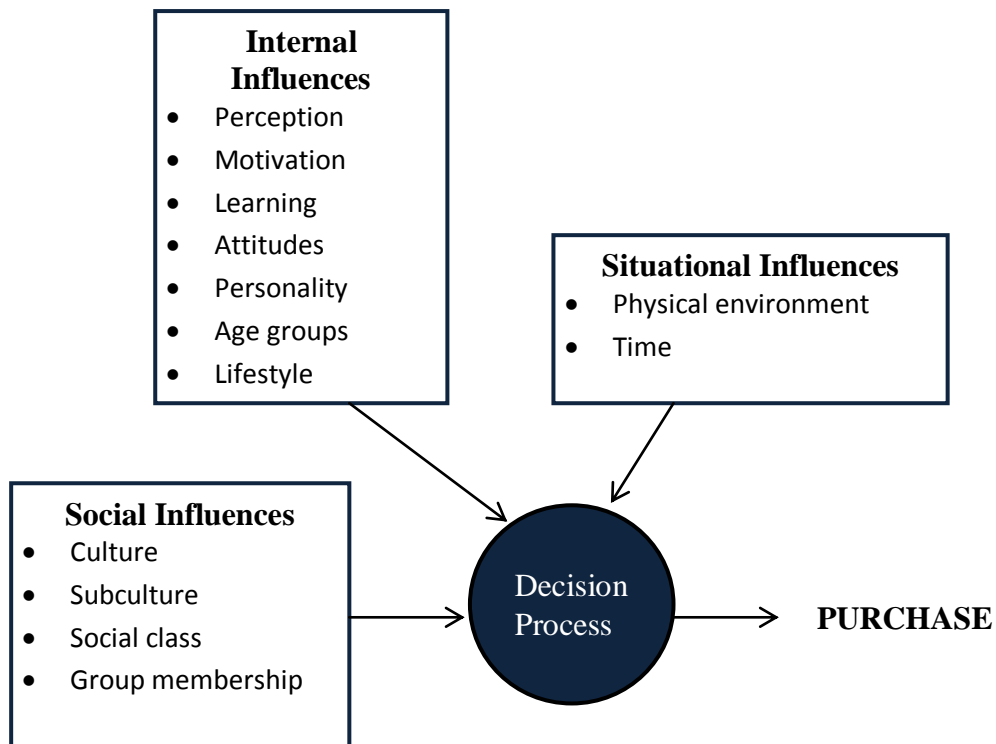


Figure 2.8: Influences on consumer decision making

Sources: Solomon et al. (2013:160) and Hawkins et al. (2007:278-279)

2.7.2.1 Internal influences on consumers' decisions

Each individual has different needs and wants and will internalise information differently and in various ways. These internal influences include perception, motivation, learning, attitudes, personality, age groups and lifestyle (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:160). Each of these will be discussed next.

2.7.2.1a Perception

Perception, as defined by Kotler and Armstrong (2010:159) and Lamb *et al.* (2009:165), is the process by which people select, organise and interpret sensory information to form a meaningful picture of the world. Information is received through various forms, this includes one's sensations. Kurtz and Boone (2006:169) define perception as "the meaning that a person attributes to incoming stimuli gathered through the five senses". The five senses are sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch. Perception refers to the instant response of one's sensory receptors through rudimentary stimuli such as colour, sound and light. Past experiences have an effect on how consumers interpret these sensations. Sometimes consumers might feel confused because of excessive information, too much similar information, or ambiguous or conflicting information available about a product. Such confusion may be caused by opinions of friends, advertisements, in-store displays and special offers. Because of this mass availability of information, the perception process may

have implications for marketers, such as messages getting lost among all the cluttered information. Even if these messages are noticed, the consumers might not interpret them in the same way as marketers intended. The issues that arise during the perception process are those of exposure, attention and interpretation (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:160).

Exposure is defined by Solomon *et al.* (2013:161) as the extent to which a stimulus is capable of being registered by a person's sensory receptors. The stimulus therefore needs to be noticed and be within the range of people's sensory receptors. Consumers must be able to see, hear, taste, smell and touch the stimulus. Even hidden messages within advertising may influence consumers to buy one's product. Consumers are then influenced subconsciously and this is known to be subliminal advertising. The second issue that needs to be understood is that of attention. Attention is the extent to which mental processing activity is devoted to a particular stimulus (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:161). Consumers tend to consider advertisements according to their current needs. An example may be that if one is hungry, an advertisement of a restaurant or food would be noticed above other advertisements. A problem that advertisers have today is that, due to aspects such as multi-tasking, SMS's, Television, iPods and cell phones, consumers' attention span tends to be shorter than previously. This causes advertisers to be more creative in their advertising, resulting in long advertisements to get a consumer's attention and also short advertisements created to have a surprise element in attaining consumer's attention. The last issue within the perception process is that of interpretation. According to Solomon *et al.* (2013:162) interpretation refers to the process of assigning meaning to a stimulus based upon prior associations a consumer has with it and assumptions made about it. If consumers do not understand the product the way the advertisers intended, the best marketing concepts would be unsuccessful.

According to Kurtz and Boone (2006:169) there are two factors which lead to a consumer's perception of an object or occasion. The first being stimulus factors which refer to a product's characteristics. These characteristics include the product's size, colour, weight and shape. Secondly, that of individual factors, which are distinctive characteristics of an individual and include sensory processes along with experiences, basic inspirations and expectations.

2.7.2.1b Motivation

Motivation is all about satisfying one's needs. This is done through an internal state when a need arises. This leads to tension, which will drive the consumer towards a goal to reduce the tension and remove the need through satisfying it (Lamb *et al.*, 2009:167). Motivation

and Maslow's hierarchy of needs have previously been discussed in section 2.2.1. Hult *et al.* (2014:187) state that not only one motive directs a consumer's activities or decisions, but a set of motives (Kluin & Lehto, 2012:823). Some motives may lead to goal achievement, whilst others may prohibit it. If the consumer's level of needs is understood by marketers, the company's products and messages could be tailored to satisfy these needs.

2.7.2.1c Learning

Another internal influence on consumer's decision making is that of learning. Both Solomon *et al.* (2013:164) and Kotler and Armstrong (2010:160) define learning as a change in behaviour caused by information or experience. There are different perspectives of how people learn, two of which are behavioural learning and cognitive learning.

Behavioural learning theories accept that learning occurs as a result of influences that form between events that one perceives. Two types of behavioural learning exist, which are classical conditioning and operant conditioning. Classical conditioning is when two stimuli are perceived at about the same time, after which the response of one stimulus is transferred to the other. This theory was developed by a Russian scientist, Ivan Pavlov. Marketers make use of this phenomenon in advertising a product such as a car on a beach. This results in a connection formed between the beach and the car (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:164). Operant conditioning is when actions result in rewards or punishments. An example could be that the consumer who received a reward in a cereal box would be more likely to buy the same brand of cereal again. Stimulus generalisation is the good or bad feelings of the consumer towards a product; and this could influence how similar products are perceived.

Contradicting behavioural learning theory is that of cognitive learning theory. Within cognitive learning theory, consumers are seen as problem solvers that react more passively towards connotations between stimuli. This occurs when a connection is formed between different ideas, which are observed within the consumer's environment. Observational learning is when other people's actions are observed the result of their actions is noted. This observation is stored within the consumer's memory, which could be used in future to direct his or her own actions (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:164).

In understanding these internal processes of perception, motivation and learning influence, it will result in how consumers understand and engross information. This is dependent on some unique consumer characteristics, which include existing consumer's attitudes, the

consumer's personality, the age groups and family life cycle of consumers, as well as their lifestyle.

2.7.2.1d Attitudes

An attitude, as defined by Kotler and Armstrong (2010:160), is a person's relatively consistent evaluation, feeling or tendency toward something. Vellas and Bécherel (1999:70) and Lamb *et al.* (2009:170) refer to an attitude as an influence that causes someone to act in a specific way towards a person or object. Attitudes are formulated towards brands and behaviours. Attitudes consist of three components affect, cognition and behaviour. Affect, the feeling component, is the overall emotional response a person has to a product. This obviously refers to the phrase affection, which is linked to emotion. Therefore this component tends to be predominantly intended for expressive products. Cognition, which is also referred to as the knowing component is, according to Vellas and Bécherel (1999:70), the beliefs or knowledge a person has about a product and its important characteristics. Cognition is seen as the dominant component with complex products such as technology, where beliefs are based on scientific information. Behaviour represents a doing component. The consumer's aim is to do something. The consumer evaluates a product through physically testing it. When an attitude is created towards a product, one of these three components, be it the feeling, knowing or doing component, will have an influence on this obviously depending on the kind of product (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:165).

Vellas and Bécherel (1999:70) identify five factors from which an attitude is formed. These factors are personality, past experience, peer group influence, family influence and stereotyping. Personality is discussed in the next section. However, just a brief explanation of these factors includes the following: A consumer's past experience influences their future choices and behaviour and the consumer's buying choice is definitely influenced by his or her peer group influences, where the product needs to be suitable within the consumer's societal environment. Family has a great impact on a consumer's buying decision. Therefore the marketers need to know who their company's consumers are, for children may buy products which their parents have bought throughout the years or they will visit holiday destinations as adults, for those are the type of holidays they grew up with. Tourism marketers often make use of stereotyping to emphasise consumer's images and attitudes towards different destinations. Stereotyping occurs due to limited experience, where consumers tend to oversimplify and generalise people or objects.

2.7.2.1e Personality

The choice of product is definitely influenced by a consumer's personality. Depending on the tourist's personality type, be it submissive or introvert, they may choose to go on different types of holidays (Vellas & Bécherel, 1999:70). According to Solomon *et al.* (2013:166), personality is defined as the set of unique psychological characteristics that consistently influence the way a consumer responds to situations within the environment. Some consumers tend to seek adventure in trying new products and experiencing something new and unknown, whilst other consumers feel comfortable in using familiar brand and products. Marketing strategies therefore consist of specific personality traits that include innovation, materialism, self-confidence, sociability and need for cognition. Innovation is known as the degree to which a consumer enjoys to try new things or products. These refer to the latest technology or fashion trends. Materialism is seen as the importance placed on owning products. Materialistic consumers buy products merely to own them and show off, rather than needing the specific product. Having the best of everything and status is of importance to these consumers (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:167). Self-confidence is defined as the degree to which a consumer has a positive evaluation of his or her capabilities; including the capability to make good decisions. People with a lot of self-confidence tend to travel alone and are very independent of nature; whereas people with less self-confidence need to be accompanied and are dependent on other people. Another personality trait is that of sociability, which is defined as how much or how little a consumer enjoys social contact. If very sociable, consumers will most likely respond to entertainment-related products such as group outings or quiz nights, which bring people together. The need for cognition as a personality trait is seen as the way consumers like to think about things and process information regarding certain brands. This is about obtaining the most information with regard to a product.

Buying decisions can be heavily influenced by a consumer's self-concept, for it involves the attitude, beliefs and feelings (either positive or negative) towards a product. One needs to create a positive self-concept to ensure a positive reaction within buying decision. The tourism product, which is mostly a service, is intangible. Similar to this is image, for it is largely intangible and therefore substantially controls service benefaction (Lamb *et al.*, 2009:171).

2.7.2.1f Age groups and the family life cycle

Another internal influence on purchase behaviour is the age group of the consumer. Some age groups may feel a connection towards each other because many of their events and experiences are similar. Marketers tend to focus on nostalgia as a marketing strategy to

attract consumers, for the product reminds them of past experiences. Different products appeal to different age groups, therefore teenagers and pensioners may not seek or buy the same products. Teens might use the internet much more for research, social media and e-mailing, whereas older age groups may use the internet for buying products. Change is an ongoing process within every consumer's life. Therefore different stages occur within a person's life cycle. What products consumers purchase depends on the current stage within their life cycle (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:168-169).

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2010:155), numerous life cycle stages are recognised within South Africa. These include home singles, which are under the age of thirty-five, that still live with their parents and have no dependents. Mature singles are individuals within the age group of thirty-five to forty-nine, also unmarried with no children. Single people may buy expensive cars since they do not have any other financial obligations than towards themselves. Young couples are those up to the age of forty-nine years with no children; these couples have satisfactory incomes and buy durable products. New parents are married couples with children under the age of twelve and are often unhappy with their finances and usually buy Children's clothes, food, toys and medicine. Mature parents, those whose children are older than thirteen, have a better financial position and tend to buy luxury items. The golden nests are those that are older than fifty years of age, married, have no dependent children and may go on overseas holidays as part of their retirement. Left alones are usually individuals older than fifty years, unmarried, with no dependents, usually have to buy medical products to help improve their health, or spend their money on leisure activities and entertainment (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:155-156; Lamb *et al.*, 2009:162-163; Lancaster & Reynolds, 2005:60-61; Seaton & Bennett, 1996:36).

2.7.2.1g Lifestyle

The pattern of living that determines how consumers choose to spend their time, money and energy; which reflects their values, tastes and preferences; is known as lifestyle. A certain lifestyle requires certain products, services and activities. Marketers found that consumers can be grouped into different market segments based on lifestyle parallels and therefore they develop marketing strategies to satisfy the wants and needs of these segments. Lifestyles can be identified through demographic characteristics. However two consumers with the same demographic profile may differ completely in which products they prefer to buy. Therefore it is important for marketers to profile consumers according to how they choose to spend their leisure time and what their passion is in life (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:169). To do this, marketers make use of psychographic analyses, where consumers are segmented according to behavioural and psychological comparisons. These include

consumer activities, interests and opinions, also known as AIOs (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:157; Hult *et al.*, 2014:192). These AIOs consist of hobbies, social attitudes, preferred holiday destinations, tastes in fashion and food. In using these psychographic analyses, marketers produce profiles of consumers in terms of similar activities and patterns of product use (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:170). Demographics tend to help marketers discover who their consumers are, but lifestyle tells marketers why consumers buy and reveals the consumers' values and motivations (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:157).

2.7.2.2 Situational influences on consumers' decisions

Not only internal influences have an impact on how consumers make decisions. Situational influences also occur, asking questions such as when, where and how consumers shop. Situational influences refer to the physical environment and time.

2.7.2.2a The physical environment

According to Solomon *et al.* (2013:171) consumers' behaviour and attitudes are powerfully influenced by the physical environment in which they find themselves. Even though advertising influences buying behaviour, the physical environment in which the buying process takes place has a definite influence on what consumers purchase. There are two dimensions that will lead to either a positive or a negative reaction within the shopping environment, these being arousal and pleasure. The environment could therefore either be boring or exciting (arousal); and pleasant or unpleasant. An exciting environment does not always mean that it is a pleasant environment and a boring environment is not always unpleasant. Other aspects within the physical environment which could influence consumer's decisions are those of in-store displays which attract consumers' attention. Place-based media could also target consumers. An example of this type of strategy is standing in a queue in a supermarket waiting for a cashier while a television screen displays adverts or messages.

2.7.2.2b Time

Another situational influence is time. Decision making can be influenced by factors such as the time of day, seasonality and how much time a consumer has available to purchase products. Time is valuable and is said to be a limited resource, therefore referring to sayings such as "time is money". Consumers are pushed for time (time-poverty) and respond well towards marketing messages and services that are time saving (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:172). The internet makes it possible for consumers to book flight tickets online, saving a lot of time and making it easier, without even having to leave home.

2.7.2.3 Social influences on consumers' decisions

The previous two types of influential factors focused on the individual consumer, whereas social influences emphasises how larger groups influence decision making. Therefore social influences include aspects such as culture, subculture, social class, group membership and gender roles. These will be discussed next.

2.7.2.3a Culture

A company that does not understand its market's culture cannot improve and advertise their products successfully (Lancaster & Reynolds, 2005:57). Culture can be seen as the personality of society. As defined by Kotler and Armstrong (2010:148), it is the set of basic values, perceptions, wants and behaviours learnt by a member of society from family and other important institutions. Different cultures exist and they have different beliefs; and what is suitable and acceptable for one culture group is not always suitable and acceptable for another culture group. Thus, culture influences consumer's buying decisions and each culture has its own rituals and values relating to them. These cultural values portray the correct and incorrect ways in which is expected or not expected to live. However, these values can change. Research found that baby-boomer women (born between 1946 and 1964), generation X men (born between 1965 and 1976) and generation Y men (born after 1976) strove towards a more balanced lifestyle, rather than materialism. In knowing the target market's culture, marketers can consequently alter their product so as not to be invasive (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:172).

2.7.2.3b Subculture

A subculture can be defined as a group synchronised with other groups, within a superior culture whose members share a unique set of beliefs or physiognomies. However, it differs from surrounding cultures (Hult *et al.*, 2014:199) This group of people share values based on common life experiences and situations (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:149). Different types of subcultures exist including religious groups, music group fans, leisure activities and ethnic groups. Because consumers have a strong feeling towards their heritage, racial and ethnic groups are seen as the most essential subcultures by marketers. Consumers are therefore swayed by products that appeal to these features within their identities (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:173).

2.7.2.3c Social class

The overall rank that people hold within society is known as social class (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:174). Social class not only determines how much consumers earn, but also how they spend their money (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:151). Consumers that fall in the same social

class usually have the same income levels; similar tastes in where to buy clothes; and participate in the same leisure activities. Their occupations may also be related to each other and they may strive towards attaining the same goals. Differences in social class should be understood by marketers to ensure that the right products are developed for the right social class; and to guarantee appeal towards groups with certain communication strategies. Expensive and luxurious products are seen as status symbols and owning these products makes consumers feel important and of higher social class. The importance of status symbols varies over time and having the best and most expensive car now, may in future differ completely. The trend today is to provide products for the mass-class, which is the millions of consumers who have the power to purchase high-quality products but fail in acquiring expensive items such as tertiary education or housing (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:174).

2.7.2.3d Group membership

It is known that consumers act differently when alone compared to when in a group, therefore marketers should take group behaviour into consideration. Consumers will buy products in the presence of others, which they would not necessarily have bought if they were alone. The reasons for this behaviour may be that an individual is less likely to be singled out for attention, when in a group and an individual's usual limits may be reduced. Reference groups are defined by Solomon *et al.* (2013:175) as a set of individuals whom a consumer wants to mimic or satisfy. Added to this, a reference group influences consumers through their standards of behaviour. In doing so, the consumers' attitudes, opinions and values are affected (Lancaster & Reynolds, 2005:59). The consumer evaluates this reference group's behaviour and looks at their apparel, where they go, which products they buy and so on. This group can also consist of only one individual, such as a famous actress or person, or one's spouse. Everyone wants to be accepted; therefore consumer behaviour often changes so that the individual feels recognised.

When a person changes his or her behaviour due to group pressure, it is known as conformity (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:175). The bandwagon effect could occur because more and more group members "cave in" as pressures to conform tend to escalate. Some individuals are seen as being opinion leaders (Lamb *et al.*, 2009:159) because they influence consumers' buying decisions and are perceived to be experts within a certain product field. Opinion leaders are a great source of information, as they can communicate both the positive and negative aspects of a product and they do not embody the concern of just one company. Opinion leaders are gutsy buyers, for they tend to be the first buyers of new products and are willing to take risks in this regard. This helps consumers that are less courageous to build trust towards that product (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:176).

2.7.2.3e Gender roles

The final social influence on consumer's decision making is that of gender roles. Because of the physiological differences between men and women, a difference in needs occurs (Lamb *et al.*, 2009:161). Due to gender roles, the pressure to conform heightens because society creates certain expectations with regard to attitudes, behaviours and appearances for both men and women (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:151). A good example is that of men, who are conditioned to be tough and not ask for help, therefore men generally tend to avoid going to the doctor when ill and would rather struggle in doing something themselves than ask for help or directions. Society expects men and women to act in certain ways; therefore marketing also has a part in this process. Some products are seen to be feminine and others are seen as masculine, creating the term sex-typed products. These products create a certain picture of women in society's mind and if women do not comply with that image, they are seen as outcasts (Solomon *et al.*, 2013:176-177).

Following the literature review on marketing, tourism marketing and the consumer; the next section provides concluding remarks on the content of the chapter.

2.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter's main focus was to provide an in-depth literature review on marketing, with the focus being on business marketing, however also incorporating tourism marketing. The literature review stresses the importance of marketing globally and within any business; and whether tourism-related or not, if one's marketing is done correctly success should follow. Within this chapter, a clear explanation is provided concerning the concept of marketing. Marketing versus tourism marketing was discussed as well as the evolution of marketing. This chapter confirms that marketing is part of a process and should be implemented appropriately. Consumer behaviour forms a fundamental part within marketing which stresses the influence of consumer buying behaviour and decision making on marketing. Different influences emerge within consumer decisions, which affect consumer's ultimate experience. It is therefore clear that to understand one's consumers' needs and wants, relationship building is important and this could assist marketers with the marketing of products or services (Burrow, 2009:156).

Even though tourism marketing focuses more on an intangible service component and business marketing focuses more on a tangible product component, both experience the same difficulties within the market place and have to implement and follow the same processes to achieve success. Within today's marketing environment everything happens at a faster pace than in earlier years. This brings about many obstacles within marketing and

marketers should adapt the methods of marketing to suit today's consumers, lifestyles and needs.

The next chapter will be an in-depth literature review which will focus on destination image and different image models as well as the cognitive, affective and conative factors that influence image.

CHAPTER 3: ANALYSING DESTINATION IMAGE



Literature can remind us that not all life is already written down: there are still so many stories to be told. – Colum McCann

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism marketing is focused on a dream, since tourism service is intangible and can only be fully understood after travel (Pike, 2008:15). Since the 1970s when the first destination image studies appeared, this topic has become one of the most predominant in the tourism marketing literature. Destination image in the tourism industry is of fundamental importance, as most tourism products are services rather than physical goods, and can often only compete by means of the image they portray. Products can be evaluated by one's senses. However, what tourists experience during a holiday can only be evaluated after the actual visit to the destination (Pike, 2008:201).

It is generally accepted that tourists will consider a variety of destinations when determining a place to go on holiday. The image of that specific destination is a major element in the final decision when selecting the destination. Tourists' knowledge and the images portrayed in the media, opinions of individual(s) and group members are used during the tourists' decision-making process (Iwashita, 2006:59). Both positive and negative images occur, together having a great impact on the travel and tourism industry (Page, 2003:64-65). Because destination image is dynamic and continuously changing, a point of reference could be created by measuring destination image which allows better positioning towards competitive destinations. In the tourism industry, striving towards positive image development and improvement that is perhaps based only on stereotypes, is needed. Minimising negative images, which are based on prejudiced or honest accounts, could lead to a challenging influence on tourist numbers and could determine whether tourists will visit or re-visit a destination (Royo-Vela, 2009:426; Howie, 2003:103). During peak-season, some destinations might even need to do de-marketing which is when a destination needs to be downplayed as over-popular images may exist in the tourists' minds. Destinations therefore

have to create images of their location and what they have to offer to help differentiate them from their competition. Since tourism is a combination of tangible perceptions of place and emotional feelings about locations, it is important to remember that image itself is not just about the tangible elements when re-imagining a destination (Page, 2003:65).

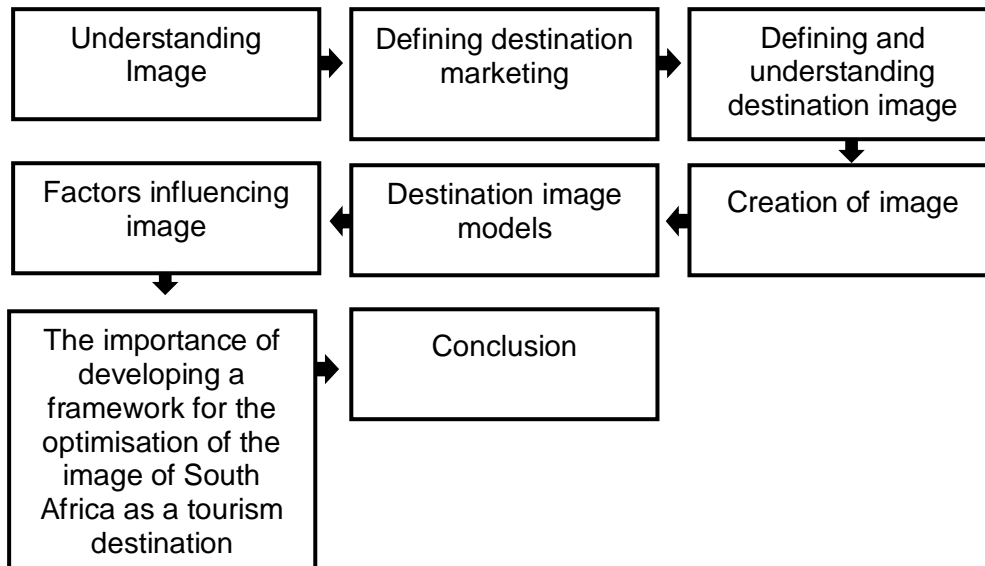


Figure 3.1: Structure of Chapter 3

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 3.1 portrays the layout of this chapter. The purpose of this chapter is to give an in-depth account of the literature available on destination image. To begin with, attention is given to the concept image and its meaning.

3.2 UNDERSTANDING IMAGE

The term 'image' has been defined by various authors and has been applied to various situations. Especially in the tourism industry, various debates evolved over the years concerning the context of this intricate concept. In 1965, Reynolds (1965:69) described image as the development of a mental construct based upon a few impressions chosen from a "flood of information". A few years later Dichter (1985:76) defined it as "an image that is not only individual traits or qualities, but also the total impression an entity makes on the minds of others". Echtner and Ritchie (2003:39) define image as the mental picturing, even though all the senses are utilised, of an object or a destination in a universal way. Thus, image can be directly related to an individual's mental picture and / or perception of a destination or an attraction and its reputation (good or bad) within a consumer / tourist's mind. The image of a destination therefore consists of the individual tourist's interpretation of reality (Bigné *et al.*, 2001:607).

The image of a destination has a direct influence on visitor behaviour and visitor choices, depending on the type of image that is formed within the tourist's mind. However, the type of image determines the tourist's intention to visit the specific destination (Byon & Zhang, 2010:510). Destination image could have an enormous impact on a country's tourism industry and therefore it is important to create and maintain a positive image. A destination's image is dynamic and continuously changing. Therefore, through its measurements, one can create a point of reference that allows better positioning towards competitive destinations and implement strategies that are aimed at positive development and improvement (Royo-Vela, 2009:426). A negative image has a detrimental effect on a destination and could lead to a problematic influence on tourist numbers and whether or not tourists will visit or re-visit a destination.

However, to participate in an actual visit, the potential tourist should be aware that a destination exists. High-profile destinations such as United States, France, China or Australia, seldom experience this problem; though less well known destinations such as Qatar, Namibia and Suriname experience it as a major problem. Once an awareness of a potential destination occurs, it is important that a positive image arises within the potential tourist's mind (Weaver & Lawton, 2010:94). Therefore, even before a tourist visits a destination, a mental image of the destination will already exist in the tourist's mind (Howie, 2003:103). According to Walmsley and Jenkins (1993) as cited by Weaver and Lawton (2010:93) and George (2004:345), images can either be descriptive with an objective perception towards the destination; or evaluative with a subjective perception towards the destination. Images are divided into categories and consist of components which will be discussed next.

3.2.1 Components of image

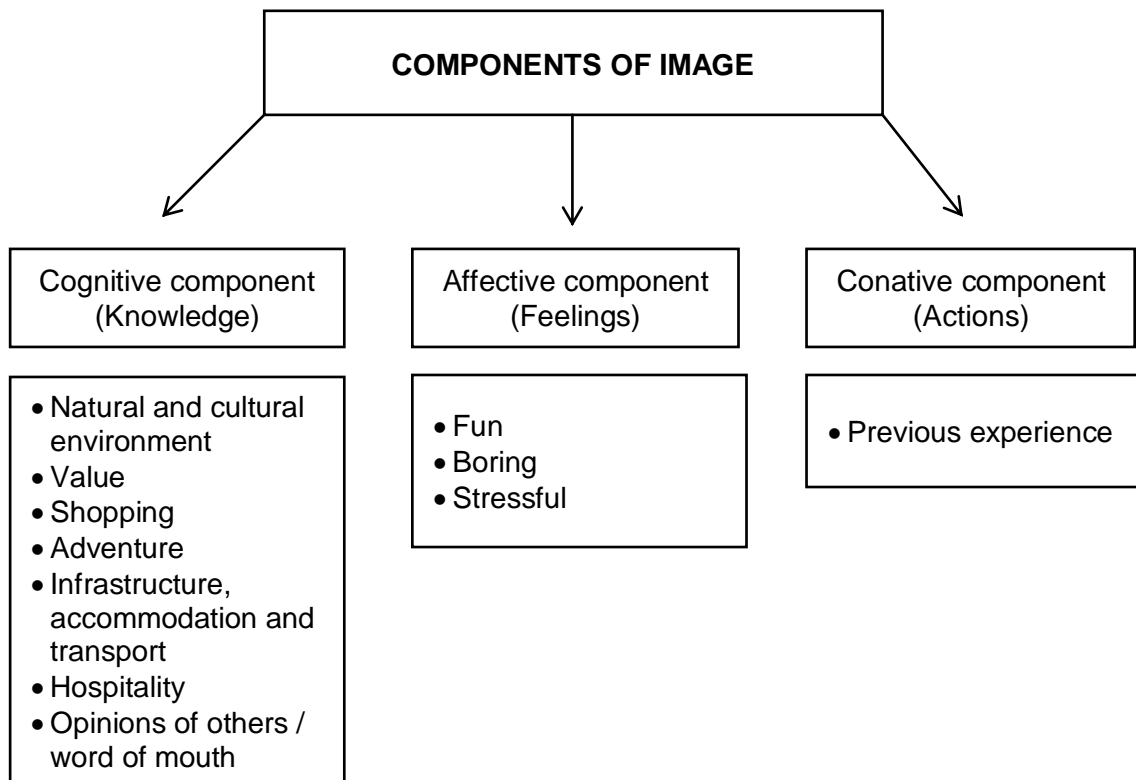


Figure 3.2: Three components of image

Sources: Beerli and Martin (2004a:659); Echtner and Ritchie (1993:6); Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008:554); Fakeye and Crompton (1991:13); Esper and Rateike (2010:350); Kim and Perdue (2011:231) and Mackay and Fesenmaier (1997:554-555)

Image consists of three main components (see Figure 3.2). These are cognitive, affective and conative components (Tasci, Gartner & Cavusgil, 2007:199). These components are described in more detail below:

3.2.1.1 Cognitive component

The cognitive component refers to what one knows about an object (Boulding, 1956 as cited by Tasci *et al.*, 2007:199; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999:870). Fishbein (1967) as cited by Pike and Ryan (2004:334) described the cognitive component as the totality of what is known about a destination. This may be organic or induced. However, destination images can only occur if at least a small amount of knowledge exists. Vellas and Bécherel (1999:70) define the cognitive or knowledge component as belief or disbelief towards something. Consequently it refers to alertness, knowledge or beliefs which might or might not have been derived from a prior visit.

3.2.1.2 Affective component

This component refers to how one feels about what one knows (Boulding, 1956 as cited by Tasci *et al.*, 2007:199; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999:870). Fishbein (1967) as cited by Pike and Ryan (2004:334) described affect to be an individual's feelings towards an object and stated it could be positive, negative or neutral. This component is also known as the emotional component, which represents feelings that are either positive or negative (Vellas & Bécherel, 1999:70).

3.2.1.3 Conative component

The conative component refers to how one acts on this information (Boulding, 1956 as cited by Tasci *et al.*, 2007:199). Pike and Ryan (2004:334) define the conative component as being similar to behaviour, since it is the intent or action component. Howard and Sheth (1969:408) describe intent as the probability of purchasing a brand. Vellas and Bécherel (1999:70) concur with this definition and add that if an opportunity exists, a certain action may emerge and not necessarily a certain behaviour. Thus, conation can be reflected as the probability of visiting a destination within a certain time. Additional to the components of image, different levels at which images occur also exist.

3.2.2 Levels of image

Three levels of image exist; these being organic, induced and complex images.

3.2.2.1 Organic image

An organic image is created through familiar or passive consideration of a destination. This includes magazine articles, television programmes and conversations with friends or family members, internet and education (Howie, 2003:103; George, 2004:346). An organic image is usually formulated in a potential tourist's or non-visitor's mind, for they have not yet visited the destination. Therefore, informative promotion sources (as described above) are the most affective type of promotion, since this provides knowledge of a destination which leads to awareness when making a choice to visit the destination (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:11). These sources are usually not controlled by destination marketers (George, 2004:346). As stated earlier, tourists may have a positive or negative image of a destination. Either way, the decision to visit that destination or not will be affected by this "organic" image (Howie, 2003:103).

3.2.2.2 Induced image

Induced images are more purposefully created images, which results from advertising, which is designed to portray a true version of the destination, and in doing so, creating a

competitive advantage over its opponents (Howie, 2003:103). This type of promotion is also known as persuasive promotion, which is envisioned to persuade potential tourists to buy and focuses mainly on first-time visitors to a destination (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:11). Induced image sources are usually designed by advertising agencies such as National Tourism Organisations, Destination Marketing Organisations as well as Tourism Information Centres and marketers that supply advertising and promotion on behalf of destinations and what they offer tourists (George, 2004:346).

3.2.2.3 Complex image

This type of image is a result of a direct experience after visiting a destination, therefore tourists may change their image from a black and white perception to a more experienced and informed perception (Pool, 1965 as cited by Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:11). The most affective type of promotion to be used with complex image is that of a reminding nature, which focuses on repeat visitors. This promotion is aimed at tourists who have travelled to a destination and it intends to remind the tourists of the destination so as to spread encouraging word of mouth messages and to contemplate repeat visits to the destination (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:11). The next section will focus on understanding the concept of destination image, which is an important component within the tourism industry.

3.3 DEFINING DESTINATION MARKETING

According to Sustainable Tourism Online (2010), destination marketing is the process of communicating with potential visitors to influence their destination and product choices. For destination marketing to be successful, visitors' motivations and preferences with regard to their decision making and travel planning process should be understood, for their travel behaviours may change over time. In promoting and advertising a destination effectively, the visitors' perception and awareness towards a destination would be influenced and this would have an effect on their choice of destination. Consequently, a certain image will be present within the visitors' mind. The following section therefore focuses on the importance of destination image and the creation of image.

3.4 DEFINING AND UNDERSTANDING DESTINATION IMAGE

George (2004:345) indicates that all destinations have images, although these images are based on different aspects. These aspects include its geography, which indicates where the destination is located; its infrastructure, which refers to development, roads, transport and so on; its natural attractions, for instance mountains or oceans; its climate, which includes temperature, seasonality; and its living standards, which refer to individuals' wealth and wellbeing. Further aspects include cleanliness, which is the way it looks and whether it is

hygienic; safety and security, which is the feeling of a safe haven or retreat; and, lastly, cost and history, which includes the expenses towards visiting a destination and the antiquity or past of the destination. These images can either be good or bad or indifferent.

Destination image is defined as an individual's overall perception or total set of impressions of a place (Hunt, 1975:3; Phelps, 1986:169; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:11). This indicates that tourists have different insights, which could lead to them having different expectations of the destination. Crompton (1979:18) defined destination image as the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination. This emphasises the importance of tourists' principles and thoughts which are formulated about the destination. Baloglu and McCleary (1999:870) define destination image as the individual's mental representation of knowledge, feelings and global impressions about a destination. This correlates well with the different components comprising destination image. The individual's depiction of the destination is therefore of importance.

A more recent definition of a destination's image was given by Pike (2008:15), where he describes it as a repertoire of brand associations held in the mind of the consumer. These may be cognitive, affective, conative, or a combination of these. Organic sources such as previous visitation or induced sources such as advertising may have led to the development of these associations. From these given definitions of destination image, the following definition is formulated for the purpose of this study: destination image is seen as potential tourists' and / or tourist associations', perceptions or impressions and knowledge of a specific destination which could be cognitive, affective and conative in nature.

3.4.1 Importance of destination image

Destination images are often a combination of assessments that are related to pull factors such as attractions, accessibility, cultural links, stability, safety and affordability. In flexible forms of tourism, such as recreational vacations where business and social considerations are not the determinants of the destination, these types of images are of great importance. The reason might be that the product, at least for first-time visitors, is an intangible one that cannot be directly experienced prior to the actual visit. Therefore, potential tourists rely on their mental images when deciding to visit one destination over another (Weaver & Lawton, 2010:93). The intangible tourism experience therefore relies greatly on positive images to be portrayed by the media and word of mouth communication. The prospective tourist's perception is usually very narrow-minded, for example many international tourists associate South Africa with "Wild Africa" where animals roam freely in the cities' unpaved streets. Although these images are incorrect, word of mouth, television, pictures and the

destination's promotional publicity greatly influences these impressions (Newsome, Dowling & Moore, 2005:ix). Negative image can easily be created by the media and word of mouth with regard to safety and security (Cavlek, 2002:478). Southern African countries have developed a reputation of political instability and crime (Brown, 2000:199). Therefore a destination's image is formed from many sources of information (George, 2004:346).

A concern in previous tourism research on destination image is that some destination managers manipulate their icons and advertising to promote their market image (Weaver & Lawton, 2010:93). Previous research has also indicated that prospective tourists (those that have not visited a destination before) are equally influenced by their perceptions of a destination and the destination's potential for performance (Kim, 1998:341). Therefore, truthful advertising is needed to ensure the correct image is portrayed within the tourists' minds and that their expectations towards a destination are met.

It is important that products that, in the case of tourism, are destinations, differentiate themselves from competitors and therefore their image should portray the destination's major benefits. Image creation seeks creativity and hard work (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 1999:263). The next section therefore focuses on the creation and persuasion of image.

3.5 CREATION OF IMAGE

Di Marino (2008) states that tourist's perceptions should be taken into consideration since image creation is based on perception. Three types of perception occur including perception "a priori", perception "in situ" and perception "a posteriori". Perception "a priori" is the mental construct an individual has towards a destination without having a physical connection with the destination. Therefore the tourist has not yet physically visited the destination, but has an expected image towards it. Perception "in situ" refers to an important moment which occurs during the tourist's visit to a destination and has an effect on the tourist's experience. Since tourists have an expected image of the destination in their minds before visiting the destination, this image could now either be confirmed or not. Perception "a posteriori" specifies that, after the visit, the tourist's experience does not end since some elements are consumed in their everyday life. These elements may include photographs that allow tourists to capture a specific moment whilst visiting the destination and then re-experience the visit by looking at them. It is important to create a competitive image that portrays the attainments of a tourism destination by bridging the gap between the tourists' expectations / perceptions and reality (Van Wijk, Go & Govers, 2010:159).

With regard to how tourists perceive a destination, four aspects are to be taken into consideration and understood. These include the things that are done and how they are done within the country, the things that are made within the country and how they are made. The way in which others talk about the country and the manner in which the country talks about itself also influence how visitors perceive the country (Morgan, Pritchard & Pride, 2011:24).

According to Saayman (2001:179) characteristics that lead to the creation of a positive image include the efficiency of the destination; tourist orientation; the destination's magic; branding; the destination's effect on the tourist's senses; the destination's history and virtue; and the atmosphere created by the destination. Poor communication could lead to a negative image, but by using the correct advertising methods, it could overcome possible misperceptions regarding the image (Fill, 2005:697). Therefore many information sources lead to the creation of image. However, once a tourist has a negative perception of a destination, it could result in a change of plans regarding their visit to a specific destination which, in turn, influences the tourism industry (George, 2011:492-493).

Destination image, according to Morgan *et al.* (2011:23), is built or created through six channels or regions of activities. These are:

- The destination's tourism promotion activity and the tourist's first-hand experience whilst visiting the country.
- The country's exports and imports of their products and services which represent the origin of the country.
- Policy decisions by a country's government are used to create destination image, be it nationally or internationally. Usually diplomacy is the main communication source towards the outside world, however policy-makers and the international media tend to have a progressive closeness between them.
- Destination image is created through business audiences whereby the country requests inward investment, employs imported ability and expands the country through overseas companies.
- Cultural activities and cultural exchange, such as its national sports team or famous icons and landmarks.
- The country's people contribute towards its image through famous sport stars, prestigious leaders and media. The friendliness of the population and how they behave abroad also has an influence on image formation of a destination.

To determine the exact image of a destination, it is important to do research within this field and be familiar with the type of studies that have been conducted and the models that have been developed within the field of destination image. Therefore the focus of the next section will be on destination image models within tourism.

3.6 DESTINATION IMAGE MODELS

Various destination image models exist and are described and summarised within this section. Two types of models are evident, one being literature based and the other being empirical in nature.

3.6.1 Literature based destination image models

Literature based models usually describe various aspects of destination image, but have not necessarily been tested or empirically proven.

3.6.1.1 The travel image psychological theory model (1951)

Howie (2003:104-107) described the destination image formation process through an earlier psychological theory (Bruner, Postman & Rodrigues, 1951:216-217) which consists of three steps “Hypothesis – Input – Check” when testing the “fit” between anticipation and reality (see Figure 3.3). Potential tourists imagine themselves at that specific destination and contemplate their possible experience when considering a destination.

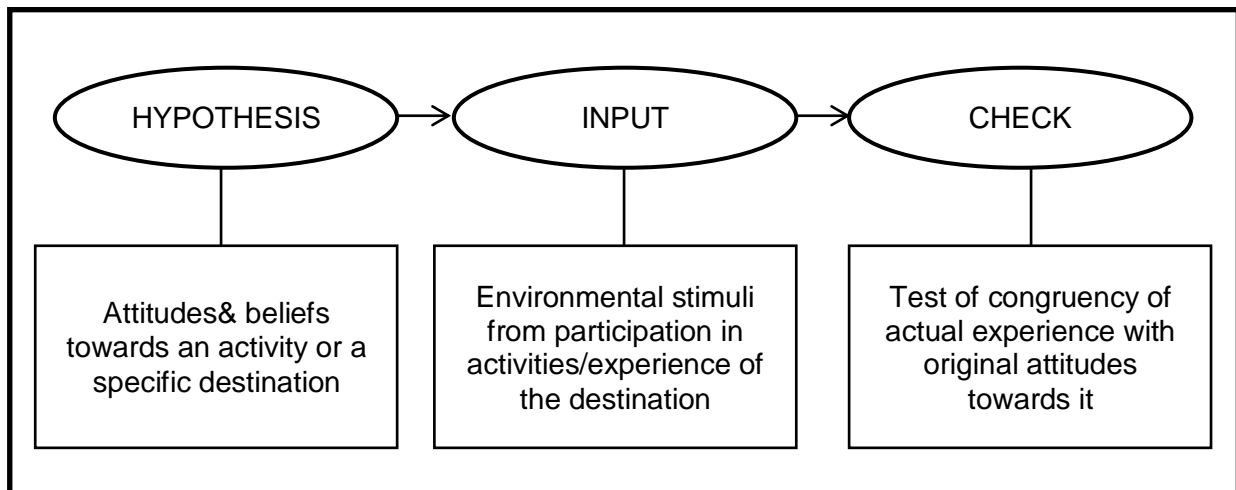


Figure 3.3: Travel image psychology

Source: Howie (2003:106)

Hypothesis stage: During the hypothesis stage, the potential tourists will only consider visiting the destination if a positive experience is imagined in their minds. Through a range of “inputs” potential tourists have definite images of specific destinations. These images can be

evaluated depending on the potential tourist's social context such as education levels, occupation, stage in life cycle and their cultural context. Cultural attitudes change over time, therefore the potential tourist or the hypothesis holder opposes change if the organic image held is a pleasant one. However, these attitudes may change with the maturity of the tourists such as age and experience, which may bring a sense of sympathy and the willingness to compromise. This stage relies only on a single sensory experience, such as a visual experience which includes looking at a photograph of a destination on a brochure or other marketing material (Howie, 2003:105-106).

Input stage: experiencing a destination / viewing an attraction: During the input stage the totality of the sensory experience is formed through kinaesthetic, vestibular and chemical sensations. All five senses are involved (vision, hearing, touch, taste and smell) and important interrelationships exist between the senses, also known as multisensory tourist experiences. Some examples include hiking or mountain climbing which leads to exertion, adrenaline, pain or even exhilaration. A sea view includes the smell of the salt water, feel of the light breeze and the sound of the waves. It is thus important to consider all senses during destination design and management. This is a recognised and fundamental principle in the design of interpretive facilities or for the authenticity of the destination as a whole (Howie, 2003:106).

Check stage: In the course of this stage, input is checked against expectation. Howie (2003:103-107) states that "a heavy responsibility falls on the roles of designers and developers to create attractions that will exceed all expectations". It is important not to create a marketing presentation or image of a destination that may encourage a greater reaction than that produced by the actual destination / reality (Howie, 2003:106-107).

This travel image psychological theory model is a fairly old model, although individuals today still follow the same path in formulating a perception or attitude towards a destination, after which visiting the destination and experiencing it and then comparing the actual experience with the prior perception and then determining whether it was similar or contradictory to the expectation. This model focuses on the actual formulation process of an image and not on factors which influence image. This model's focus is therefore from a psychological point of view and not necessarily towards tourism or destination image.

3.6.1.2 The tourist image formation process model (1991)

Fakeye and Crompton (1991:10-11) developed a model (see Figure 3.4) concerning the tourist's image formation process in 1991. This model consists of various steps and, depending on the finally formulated image, could lead to an influence on future decision-making efforts.

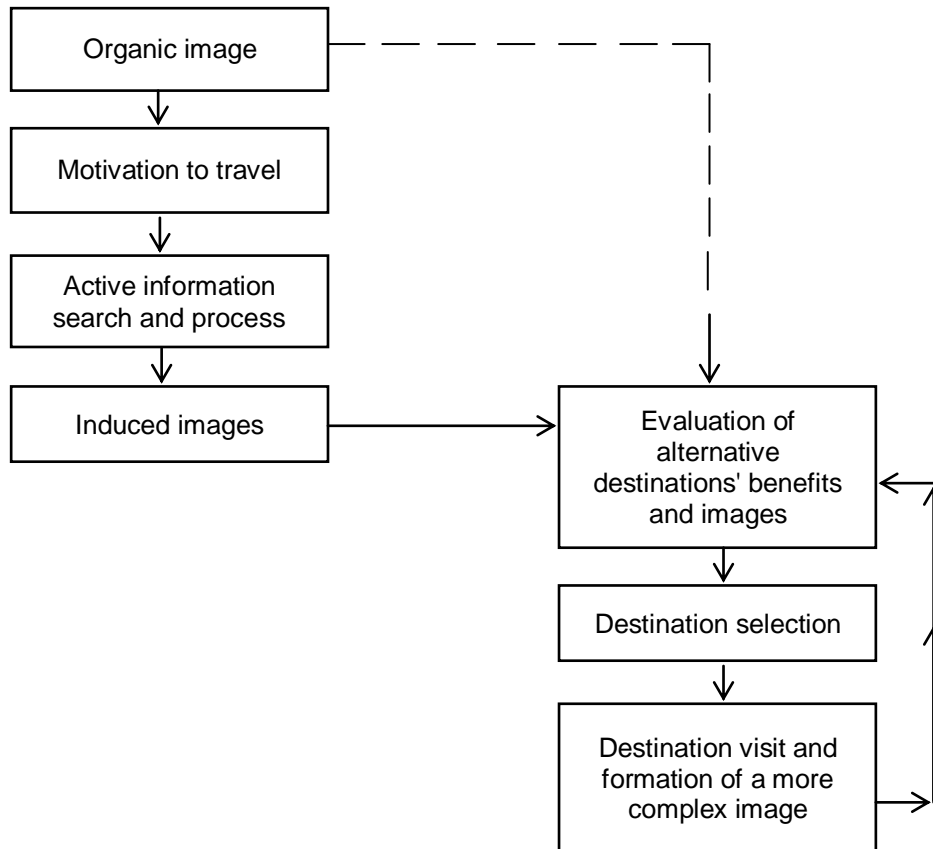


Figure 3.4: A model of a tourist's image formation process

Source: Fakeye and Crompton (1991:11)

The model indicates the relationship between organic, induced and complex images as well as their role in destination selection. According to Fakeye and Crompton (1991:11) an organic image is developed by potential tourists within a reasonably large awareness set of possible destinations. A motivation to travel, or to take a vacation occurs whereafter an active search for information follows which is guided by whatever reasons are driving the desire to travel. Alternative destinations are evaluated against personal organic image, information from personal contacts, as well as benefits and images portrayed by marketers. This results in a more refined induced image of alternative destinations which is formulated by the tourist. The tourist then selects a destination, using either organic or induced image, which would supply the desired benefits. The search for information will vary, from no searches (resulting in organic images being decisive) to widespread searches (induced images that are considerably different from the organic images). A more complex image will

be developed once the selected destination is visited since actual contact with the destination has occurred. Once the next occasion of selecting a destination arises, the experience with a previous destination will influence the choice and evaluation of alternative destinations. This model could be used in studies regarding the actual process of image formation, which comprises the actual actions taken by tourists to gather information, evaluate the information and decide to visit the destination, after which a more complex image is formulated.

3.6.1.3 The three-gap tourism destination image formation model (2007)

Govers, Go and Kumar (2007:16-17) described a three-gap tourism destination image formation model from various literature based models (Figure 3.5). The model portrays those elements that have an active influence on the formulation of the perceived destination image in the mind of the consumer. Firstly, any destination image should be attached to a true destination identity (which is the anchor); and consists of authenticity and history, knowledge, culture / religion and the natural environment (Go, Lee & Russo, 2004; Noordman, 2004; Onians, 1998 as cited by Govers *et al.*, 2007:16). This strategy formulates a tourism product offering (staged or real) which includes attractions, access, amenities and ancillary services. The result being a projected tourism destination image through the procedure of planned marketing and communication or vicarious experiences. Gartner (1993:197-201) refers to these as "induced destination image formation agents" (overt and covert). Therefore, if the tourism destination and the way it is communicated are not in line with the destination's identity, it could produce a tourism development strategy gap.

Prior to visiting a specific destination, promotional images and secondary place interactions are used as the basis in destination image formation. This is facilitated by the person's identity (cultural background, social characteristics, personal characteristics and psychological characteristics); the potential temporal environmental or situational influences also referred to as autonomous agents (political situation, economic conditions, technological advancement and social changes); and the direct or indirect interaction with other consumers (word of mouth) also referred to as solicited or unsolicited organic agents (Gartner, 1993:201-204). Tourist satisfaction or dissatisfaction (second gap: tourist demands specifications) occurs, indicating the level to which the expectations are met or exceeded during the actual tourism experience. When unrealistic demands are set, a gap occurs because the consumer's expectations are based on an idealistic perceived destination image. The third gap (delivery and supply) occurs when the service that is delivered has a tendency to be different from the tourist's expectation, which might have been misleadingly raised by tourism promotion.

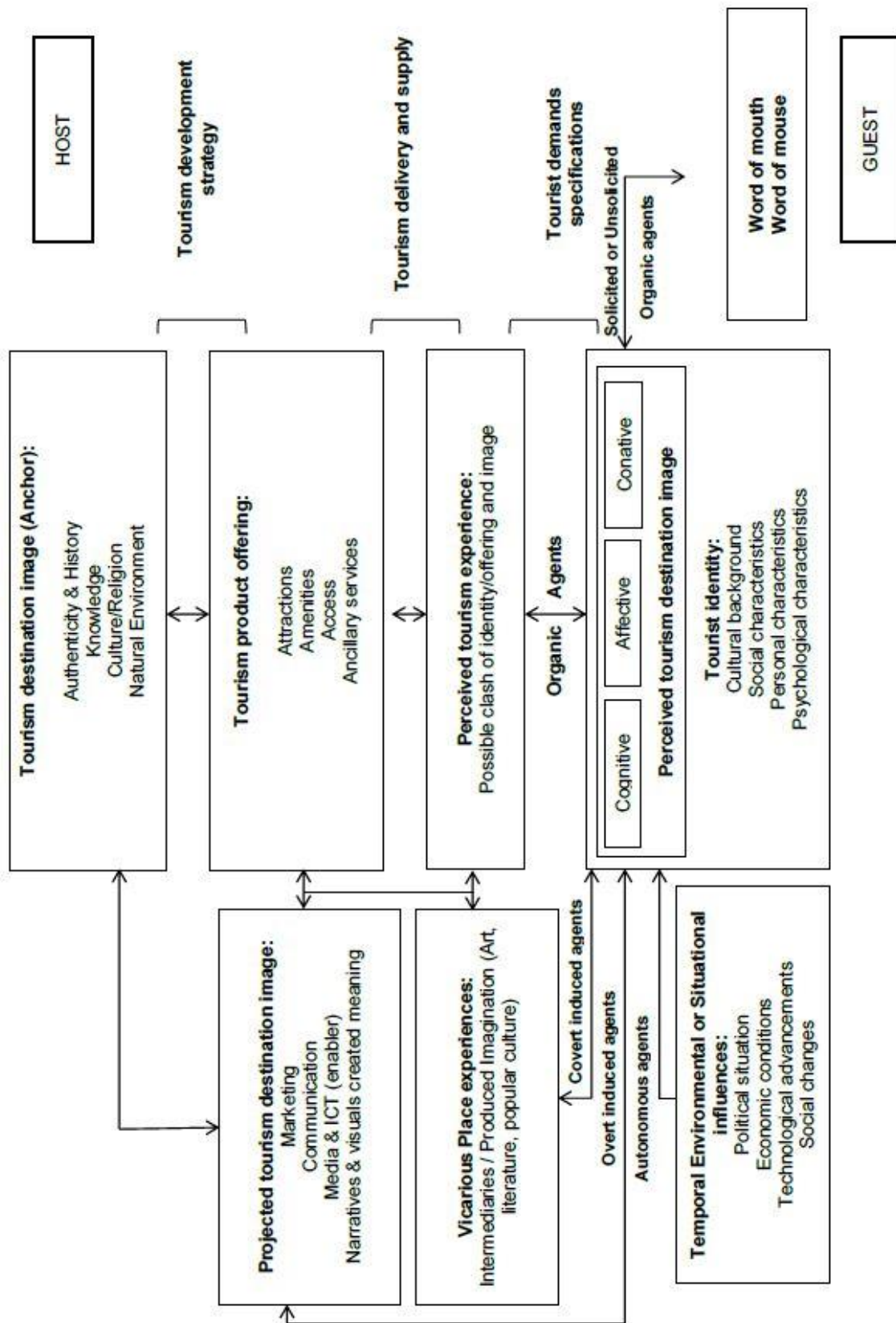


Figure 3.5: The 3-gap tourism destination image formation model

Source: Govers et al. (2007:16)

The model above (Figure 3.5) confirms that cognitive, affective and conative components are important when determining the image of a destination. Although the three gaps are important in terms of what tourists imagine a destination to be, it is not always what they experience. This could influence whether they return to a destination or not. While the model portrays a very complete description of how image is formulated, it could lead to misunderstanding the model and interpreting it differently to what is actually meant by it. It is therefore very complex and has not been tested.

3.6.2 Empirical based destination image models

Numerous empirical based destination models have been formulated and tested in studies and proved to be feasible.

3.6.2.1 A revised estimated model of tourist destination image formation (2010)

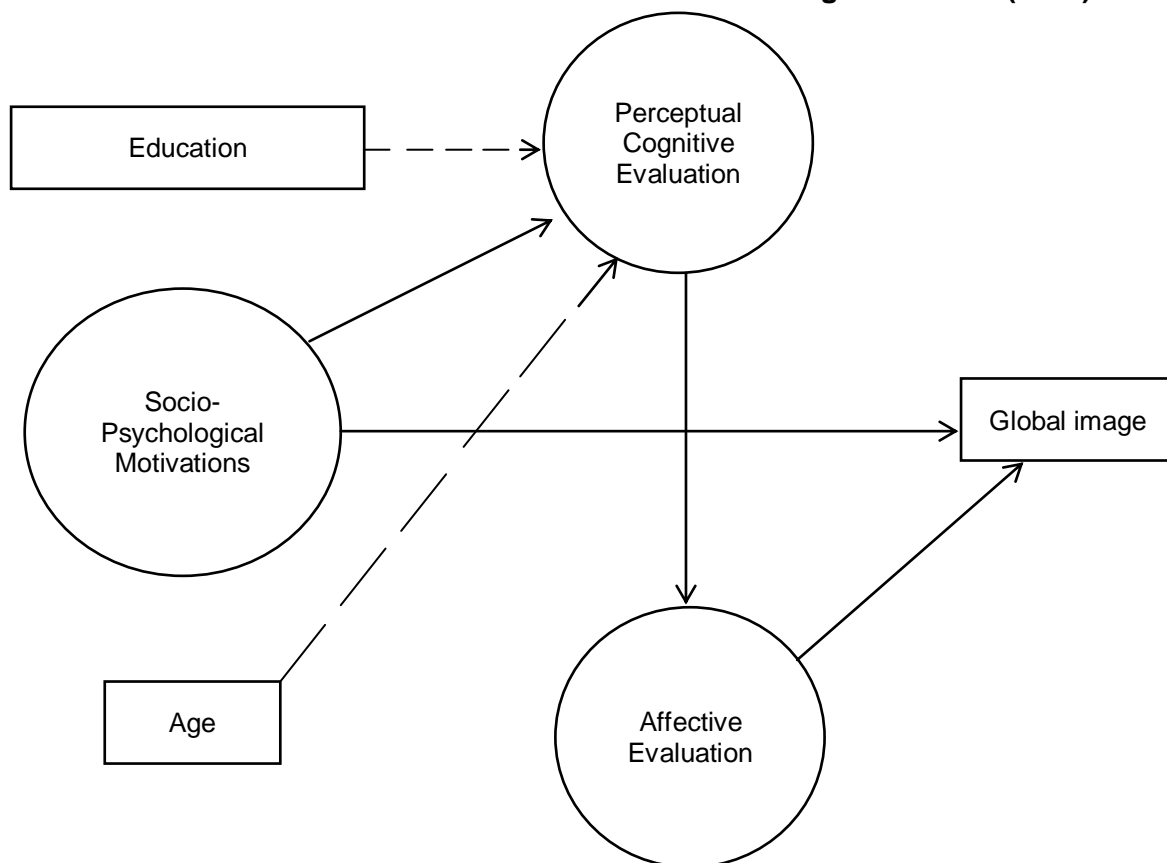


Figure 3.6: Revised estimated model (Tourist destination image formation model)

Source: Esper and Rateike (2010:356)

Esper and Rateike (2010:356-357) revised an existing model and developed a new model that explains the process of destination image formation (see Figure 3.6). The model explains the existing relationship between the cognitive and affective component in the formation of a global image of a destination, as well as the influence of cognitive

components over affective components. The model confirms that tourist motivations have a direct influence on cognitive evaluation and global image, but no direct effect on the affective evaluation. Cognitive evaluation however, is mediated by affective evaluation but has no direct influence on global image. Therefore physical attributes, psychological and emotional elements are all important when developing a more detailed global image. Consequently, a destination should not only count on its infrastructure, but also offer the consumer an eye-catching product that projects a real, coherent image which will lead to a positive perception within the consumer's mind. In the analysis of the results used to develop this model, it is clear that the consumer's valued response (affective image) depends on the consumer's knowledge of the objects (cognitive image). Hence, the emotional component of image could have a superior influence on the tourist's behaviour and decision making, as opposed to elements that form the cognitive component of image. However, it was found that socio-demographic variables such as age and level of education only had a slight degree of relativity to the model.

Within this model, cognitive and affective components as well as demographic variables formed part of its development. These findings were consequently proven by testing the model and therefore considered to be credible.

3.6.2.2 A structural model of destination image and different relationships towards it (2009)

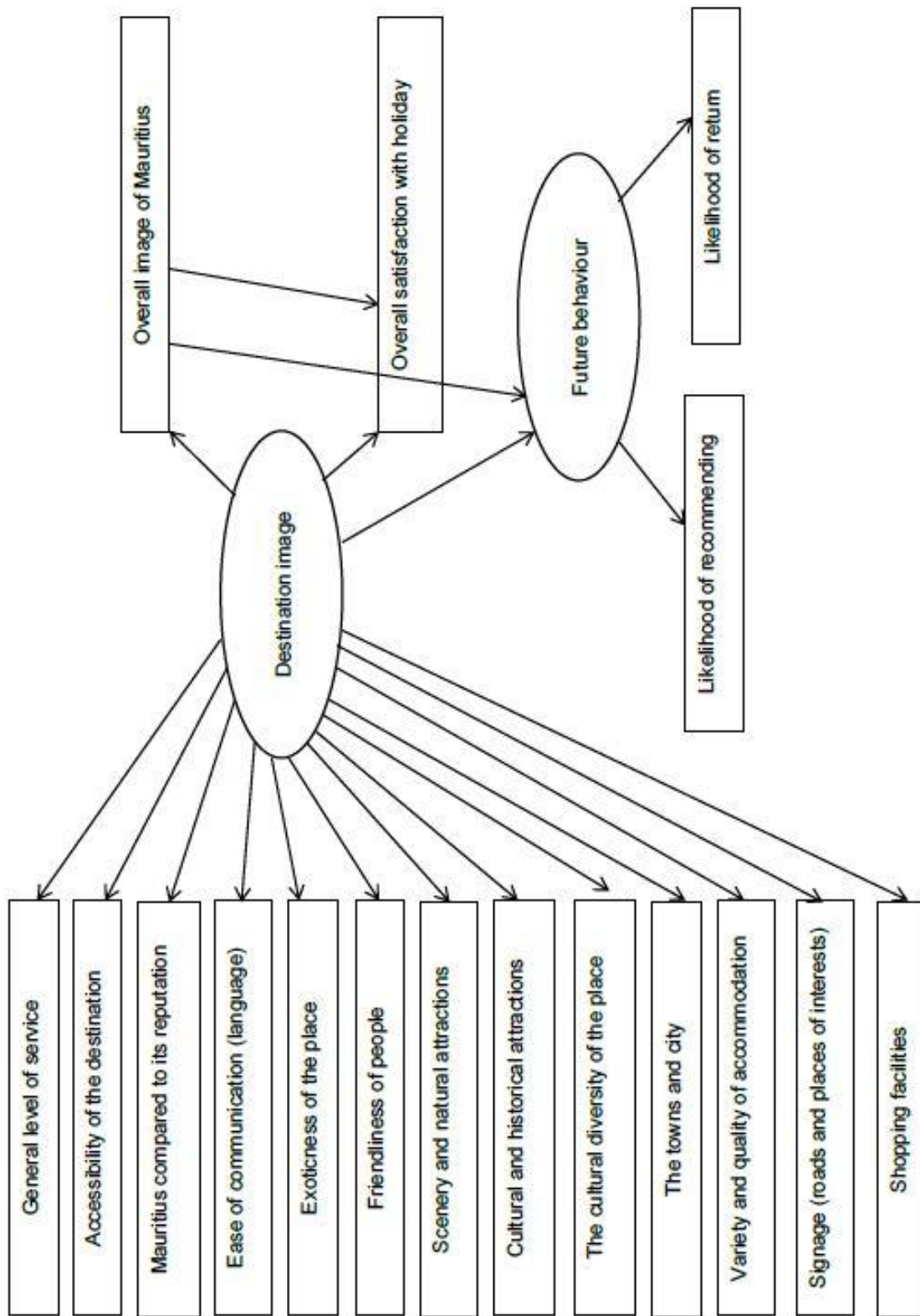


Figure 3.7: A structural model of destination image and different relationships towards it
 Source: Prayag (2009:847)

Four constructs formed part of this model (see Figure 3.7) which included destination image, overall image, overall satisfaction and future behaviour (Prayag, 2009:847). The purpose of this model was to identify whether there are any relationships between these four constructs in the context of an island destination. Various cognitive and affective components formed part of this model, which indicates, once again, its importance in image formation. A shortcoming of this model is that there are only three relationships between the four constructs. This model is nevertheless designed for an island destination and is not necessarily accurate for other destinations. It can also not be considered as encompassing a complete destination image, since only thirteen of the twenty-five aspects were accounted for in the final model.

The above models differ significantly from each other, although their focuses all lead towards image formation. No models were found to be applicable to this study, for these models' focuses werenot specifically towards the context of South Africa's image. Therefore, developing a framework for South Africa as a popular tourism destination could be beneficial to the country as knowledge is gained concerning how tourists perceive the country and how negativity amongst tourists could influence the image they have and their consequent behaviour. These negative aspects should be minimised and controlled effectively to ensure that tourists do not become more negative towards the country. In developing this framework, positive image factors could also be identified which could be optimised and focused on in marketing South Africa as a destination internationally. In addition to this, no models were found concerning iconic aspects that impact image formation.

The next section will focus on factors that influence image, with the focus being on personal and stimulus factors, where after dimensions and attributes that could influence image will be discussed.

3.7 FACTORS INFLUENCING IMAGE

A general framework of destination image formation has been described by Baluglo and McCleary (1999:870), which is illustrated in Figure 3.8. The model shows that destination image is caused by two factors (personal and stimulus factors). A stimulus factor transpires from information to which tourists are exposed before, during and after the visit to a destination. Personal factors include the social and psychological characteristics of tourists. Psychological characteristics refer to values, motivations and personality, whilst social characteristics include age, education and marital status.

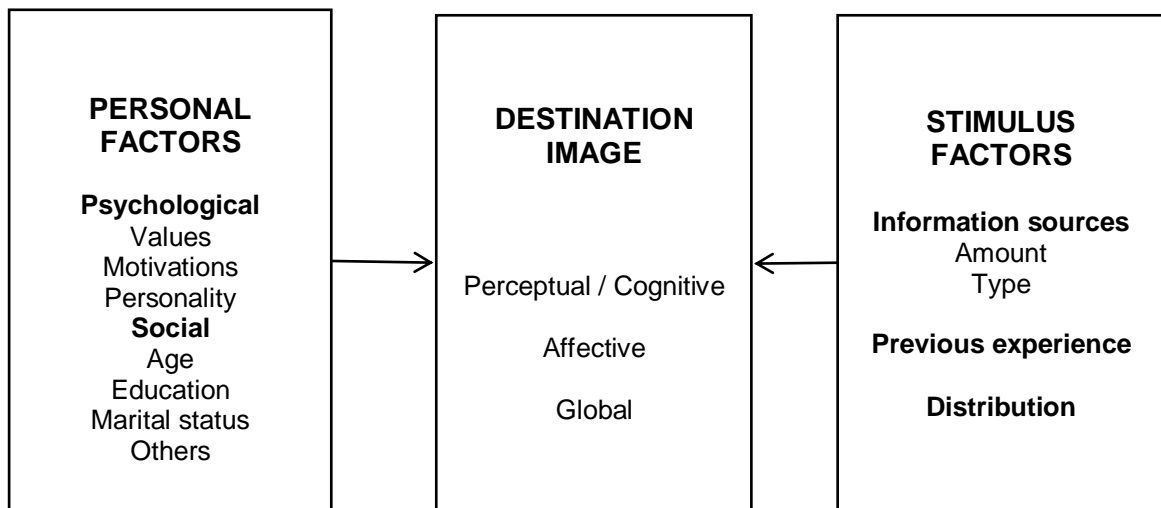


Figure 3.8: A general framework of destination image formation

Source: Baloglu & McCleary (1999:870)

3.7.1 Personal factors

Personal factors refer to the characteristics of the observer (in this case the tourist). These characteristics can be of a social and psychological nature. San Martin and Rodriquez del Bosque (2008:274) conducted an exploratory study which indicated the role played by psychological factors in the formation of image, which included the cognitive-affective nature of destination image. Understanding the tourists' perception of destinations helps in managing both the decision-making and behavioural processes within tourism. They found that image formation is a multi-dimensional facet which consists of both cognitive image (tourists' beliefs) and affective image (feelings towards the destination). The cognitive image includes both functional / tangible (cultural attractions and landscape) and psychological / abstract (atmosphere and hospitality) attributes. Tourists use these dimensions in the process of image formation of destinations. Therefore marketers should not only focus on the physical properties (cognitive), but also on the positioning of the destination. To reinforce the tourists' beliefs about the destination, their affective component, which includes the feelings or emotions within the tourist's mind, should be focused on (San Martin & Rodriquez del Bosque, 2008:274). Contradicting these findings, Hallman, Zehrer and Müller (2013:11) found that the cognitive image component, which is easier to control, is more relevant than the affective image component in image formation.

Personal factors include the socio-demographic characteristics of an individual and refer to aspects such as level of education, age, social class and family life cycle. Psychological characteristics refer to aspects such as motivations, values and personality. According to Beerli and Martin (2004b:635), Williams and Moffitt (1997:250) and Esper and Rateike

(2010:357), these personal factors influence individuals' cognitive evaluation of stimuli which similarly influences perceptions of the environment and the consequential image of a destination. With regard to gender, age, level of education and social class, clear relationships exist between these socio-demographic characteristics and the cognitive and affective image components (Beerli & Martin, 2004b:635).

According to San Martin and Rodriguez del Bosque (2008:273-274) psychological factors have an effect on image formation since individuals whose cultural values and motivations differ from one another will perceive the same tourist destination differently. The tourists' cultural distance with a destination was also found to have had an influence on their pre-visit image of the destination.

3.7.2 Stimulus factors

Information sources, previous experience (Nel & Strydom, 2004:183), distribution and marketing efforts form part of stimulus factors that have an effect on image formation (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999:870). Within the pre-visit formation of destination image, the information sources used by tourists as well as information consulted by them, are the most important influences (Frias, Rodríguez & Castañeda, 2008:165). An important source of information in today's society is that of the Internet, however Frias *et al.* (2008:174) found that tourists using the internet had a worse destination image than those making use of travel agents because of information overload. The experience of tourists on the internet leads to a moderating effect on the original image of a destination. However, Beerli and Martin (2004a:676-677) found that secondary information sources; which included brochures, advertising campaigns, the internet and tour operators, did not have a significant influence on cognitive factors which lead to first-time image. The only induced information source which lead to a positive significant influence, was that of travel agency staff. Therefore a relationship should be developed with this source to ensure that messages communicated concur with the desired image of the destination (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:676-677).

According to Baloglu (1999:81) different types of information sources determine tourists' cognitive or perceptual evaluations and leads to how they feel (affective) towards a destination. Different information sources could have different effects. Word of mouth, for instance, had an effect on tourists' perception regarding the value or the environment; whilst non-promotional sources, which include books, news and movies, had an effect on the destination's attractions itself (Baloglu, 1999:87).

Travel agents and tour operators are important sources of information, especially for international tourist destinations. Therefore their perceptions towards a specific destination may influence their decision for promoting a destination. This consequently influences the client's perceptions and ideas of a destination (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001:7). Image was also found to be a determinant of tourists' intention to visit a destination (Baloglu, 1999:87). According to Beerli and Martin (2004a:663) perceived image of a destination is influenced by personal experience, which is seen as a primary source of information. This obviously depends on the duration of a tourist's visit and the number of visits to a destination. This is why this research was done after tourists have visited and experienced South Africa as a destination; and whether their image was more positive, more negative or unaffected than before visiting the country. Lee, Lee and Lee (2014:247) found that tourists' post-trip image of the destination changed to being more positive than their pre-trip image of the destination.

Marketing efforts and promotions that form part of stimulus factors should be developed to portray a fun, exciting, enjoyable and novel image within potential tourists' minds. Other promotional content should be that of natural and historical attractions and should be communicated effectively in using sources such as brochures, websites, e-mail and radio (Byon & Zhang, 2010:527). It is clear that there is a constant search for information, which could assist the tourists in deciding on a specific destination or on exclusive and trustworthy experiences.

From Figure 3.8 it is clear that both personal and stimulus factors contribute towards image formation, however it indicated that destination image also consists of different components of which cognitive and affective are a part. Thus it is important to identify other dimensions that comprise cognitive, affective and conative components. Therefore an in-depth search of various studies conducted by numerous authors on destination image contributed to the identification of these dimensions and attributes. These will be discussed next.

3.7.3 Dimensions and attributes that could influence destination image

A total of 11 dimensions, which have been divided into cognitive component attributes, affective component attributes and conative component attributes could be identified. In total fifty-one cognitive component attributes could be identified in conducting this search (see Figure 3.9). Eleven affective component attributes (see Figure 3.10) formed part of this search and only one conative component attribute was found to have an influence on image (see Figure 3.11). Each of these attributes will be listed below and discussed accordingly.

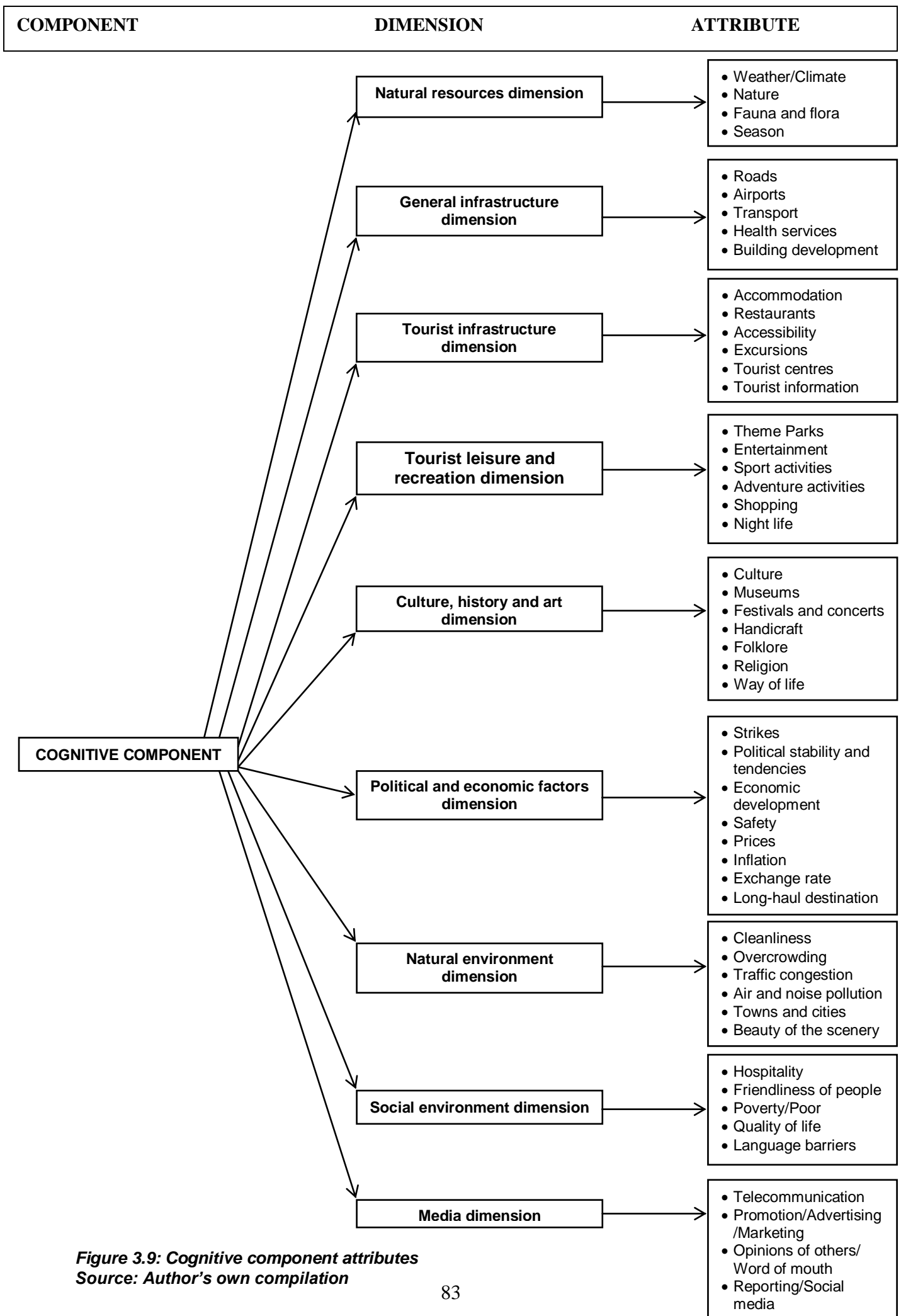


Figure 3.9: Cognitive component attributes
 Source: Author's own compilation

3.7.3.1 Cognitive component attributes

Nine dimensions formed part of the cognitive component. These dimensions include natural resources; general infrastructure; tourist infrastructure, tourist leisure and recreation; culture, history and art; political and economic factors; natural environment; social environment and media. These dimensions indicate what tourists know about an object, which in this case refers to cognitive image.

- **Natural resources dimension**

The attributes that have been identified as part of the natural resource dimension, and that may have an impact on destination image, were weather/climate (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:13; Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín, 2008:562; Prayag, 2009:842); nature (Prayag, 2009:842); fauna and flora (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:13; San Martín & Rodriguez del Bosque, 2008:270) and season (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000:264). From these studies, the following results were discovered: Prayag (2009:845) found that weather and climate were deleted from the factor analysis, for its average variance was below 0.5. Nature, however, had had an average variance above 0.5. Kozak and Rimmington (2000:264) indicated that seasonality could have influenced respondent's perception towards destinations' attractions since the research was conducted during the winter season.

- **General infrastructure dimension**

The general infrastructure dimension, which might have an influence on image, included attributes such as roads (Byon & Zhang, 2010:523); airports (Byon & Zhang, 2010:523); transport (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:13; Prayag, 2009:842); health services (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:659) and building development (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003:45). Byon and Zang (2010:522-523,528) found that infrastructure including roads and airports, had factor loadings ranging between 0.64 and 0.76. Therefore it was retained within the study. Echtner and Ritchie (2003:45) indicated that seven studies were conducted in which building development formed a part and was found to be important in image formation.

- **Tourist infrastructure dimension**

Some authors identified six attributes within the tourist infrastructure dimension that could have an impact on image. These included accommodation (Molina *et al.*, 2010:726-727; Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín, 2008:562; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6; San Martín & Rodriguez del Bosque, 2008:270); restaurants (Royo-Vela, 2009:422; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008:554); accessibility (Bigné Alcaniz, Sánchez García & Sanz Blas, 2009:718); excursions (Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008:554); tourist centres

(Byon & Zhang, 2010:523) and tourist information (Byon & Zhang, 2010:523; Kim & Yoon, 2003:11). Within the tourist infrastructure dimension, San Martin and Rodriguez del Bosque (2008:269-270) found that accommodation had a standardised coefficient of 0.68 and formed part of a factor 'infrastructure' with a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.67; indicating an influence on the formation of the destination's image. Excursions, according to Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008:554), formed part of a factor 'history', which had a Cronbach Alpha value 0.62, indicating that it had an effect on destination image formation. Royo-Vela (2009:424) found that restaurants had high correlations and were significant, though not indicating extremely high, neither extremely low correlations. It had a factor loading of 0.456 which was high enough to form part of a factor having an impact on image formation.

- **Tourist leisure and recreation dimension**

The dimension of tourist leisure and recreation consisted of six attributes, which were theme parks (Lee, O'Leary & Hong, 2002:74); entertainment (Lee *et al.*, 2002:74); sport activities (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6; Choo, Park & Petrick, 2011:208); adventure activities (Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008:554); shopping facilities (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6; San Martin & Rodriguez del Bosque, 2008:270; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008:554) and night life (Prayag, 2009:842; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6). Again, these factors may all have an effect on image. According to Lee *et al.* (2002:74) theme parks had a factor loading of 0.494 and entertainment had a loading of 0.685, both forming part of a factor 'doing and enjoying'. The factor had an eigenvalue of 5.088 and a reliability alpha of 0.857. The factor influenced the tourist's intention to visit America, however it did not significantly discriminate against the intention to visit due to the tourist's perceptive image. Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008:556,559) described adventure activities and shopping facilities. Adventure activities had a factor loading of 0.450 and formed part of an 'adventure factor'. Shopping facilities had a factor loading of 0.576, however was part of factor 'infrastructure'. Shopping facilities were rated negatively. These attributes could be used successfully for a broad range of destinations.

- **Culture, history and art dimension**

The following attributes formed part of the culture, history and art dimension: culture (Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín, 2008:562; Prayag, 2009:842); museums (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6; Choo *et al.*, 2011:208); festivals and concerts (Choo *et al.*, 2011:208; Byon & Zhang, 2010:523); handicraft (Lee, 2009:737; Lee *et al.*, 2002:74); folklore (Royo-Vela, 2009:422); religion (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:659) and way of life (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:659). Museums and festivals formed part of a factor with a Cronbach Alpha larger than 0.7,

suggesting reliability within the study. Respectively, museums had a path coefficient of 0.71 and festivals had one of 0.70 (Choo *et al.*, 2011:208). Folklore had a factor loading of 0.473 and formed part of a factor named 'complementary tourist offer or infrastructure'. It had a correlation of 0.184 and was rated the lowest factor contributing to image (Royo-Vela, 2009:422).

- **Political and economic factors dimension**

A total of eight attributes were identified as part of the political and economic dimension. These were: strikes (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:659; Castelltort & Mäder, 2010:735); political stability and tendencies (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003:45); economic development (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008:554); safety (Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín, 2008:562; San Martín & Rodriguez del Bosque, 2008:270; Prayag, 2009:842); prices and value for money (Byon & Zhang, 2010:523; Sönmez & Sirakaya, 2002:191); inflation (Forsyth & Dwyer, 2009:85); exchange rate (Lee *et al.*, 2002:74) and long-haul destination (Pike, Bianchi, Kerr & Patti, 2010:445-446). San Martin and Rodriguez del Bosque (2008:270) found that safety had a standardised coefficient of 0.57 and was valued important enough to form part of the 'infrastructure and socio-economic environment' factor. It had a Cronbach Alpha of 0.67. This was used as part of a cognitive dimension, which plays a role in image formation. Byon and Zang (2010:523) found that respondents thought prices and value for money to be reasonable and were generally positive towards it.

- **Natural environment dimension**

Within the natural environment dimension, six attributes that could influence image were identified. These six factors were: cleanliness (Royo-Vela, 2009:422; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6; Byon & Zhang, 2010:523); overcrowding (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6); traffic congestion (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:13); air and noise pollution (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:659); towns and cities (Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008:554) and the beauty of the scenery (San Martín & Rodriguez del Bosque, 2008:270; Byon & Zhang, 2010:523). Cleanliness had a factor loading of 0.574 and formed part of a factor 'clean / peaceful atmosphere and feelings generated by its perception'. Towns and cities, with a factor loading of 0.692 formed part of the factor 'traditional tourism', which was the factor with the strongest position regarding image within US travellers' minds (Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008:558). San Martin and Rodriguez del Bosque (2008:270) indicated 'natural environment' as a factor with a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.74, of which beauty of the scenery formed a part and had a standardised coefficient of 0.72. This formed part of the mental representation of destination image.

- **Social environment dimension**

The social environment dimension consisted of hospitality (Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín, 2008:562; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6); friendliness of people (Kwon & Vogt, 2010:432-433; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:13; Prayag, 2009:842; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003:45); poverty/poor (Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008:553-554); quality of life (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:659) and language barriers (Prayag, 2009:842; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000:41), all of which could possibly have an impact on image. Kwon and Voght (2010:432-433) indicated that residents' attitude or friendliness towards tourists could be either antagonistic or excited. Therefore it could influence how tourists perceive the image of a place and residents' attitudes should be taken into account to ensure positive marketing. With regard to poverty / poor, Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008:553) identified poor as part of a stereotypical holistic image. However it was associated with words such as country, accommodation and food choices; which were indicated by more than half of the respondents. It was seen as a beneficial image by tourists when no language barriers were experienced (Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000:43).

- **Media dimension**

The last cognitive component is that of a media dimension. This dimension comprised four attributes, which were: telecommunication (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:659); promotion / advertising / marketing (Molina *et al.*, 2010:726-727; Esper & Rateike, 2010:350); opinions of others / word of mouth (Esper & Rateike, 2010:350) and media reporting / social media (Gren & Gunnarsdóttir, 2008:427; Castelltort & Mäder, 2010:735). In the case of Molina *et al.* (2010:727) it was proved that the use of promotion tools had a strong influence on the formation of tourist destination images. Additionally, the research revealed that the image created by tourist brochures is firmly associated with actual destination image. In their literature review, Esper and Rateike (2010:350) referred to stimulus variables that included external communication variables such as word of mouth, which determines the image of a tourist destination. Gren and Gunnarsdóttir (2008:427) state that the internet, of which social media is a part, has undeniably become a predominantly important provider and creator of images of tourist destinations. Likewise, it seems to be that images in and of tourism now live in a progressively technological mediated milieu.

3.7.3.2 Affective component attributes

As part of the affective component, one dimension has been identified, which is the atmosphere of the place. This dimension is all about how tourists feel about an object which, in this case, is image (see Figure 3.9).

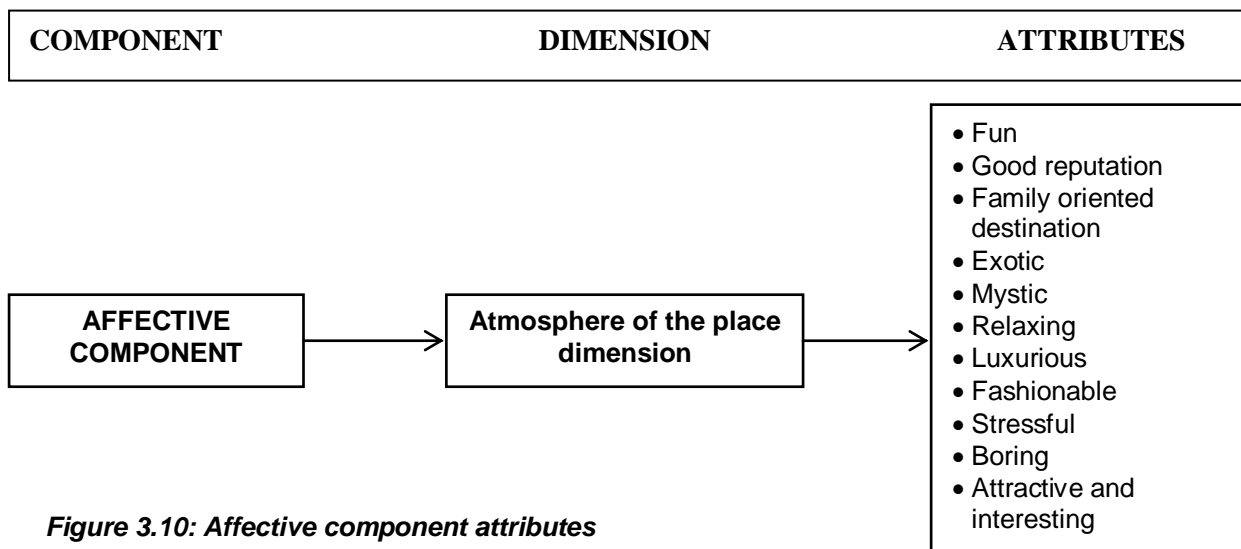


Figure 3.10: Affective component attributes

Source: Author's own compilation

• **Atmosphere of the place dimension**

A total of eleven attributes formed part of this dimension. These were: fun (Kim & Perdue, 2011:231); good reputation (Prayag, 2009:842; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003:45); family oriented destination (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003:45); exotic (Prayag, 2009:842; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993:6); mystic (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:659); relaxing (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991:13; Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín, 2008:562; San Martín & Rodriguez del Bosque, 2008:270); luxurious (Govers, Go & Kumar, 2007:21); fashionable (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:659); stressful (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:659); boring (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997:554-555; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008:554); as well as attractive and interesting (Beerli & Martin, 2004a:659). According to Kim and Perdue (2011:234,236) fun had an influence on the destinations' attractiveness, including image formation. Beerli and Martin (2004a:659) indicated within their literature review that affective attributes such as "mystic, fashionable, stressful, and attractive and interesting", could have an effect on image formation. Govers et al. (2007:21) identified image descriptions for different destinations of which Singapore and Dubai were described as being luxurious destinations. Rodriguez del Bosque and San Martín (2008:562) indicated relaxing as an affective image attribute. However, it was indicated by respondents as atmosphere. According to MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997:554-555), boring formed part of attractiveness of the image as well as activities that could be boring or exciting; although the affective evaluation was linked to experience with the destination.

3.7.3.3 Conative component attributes

Familiarity is the one dimension that has been identified as a conative component. This refers to how tourists react towards information regarding an object which refers to image (see Figure 3.11).

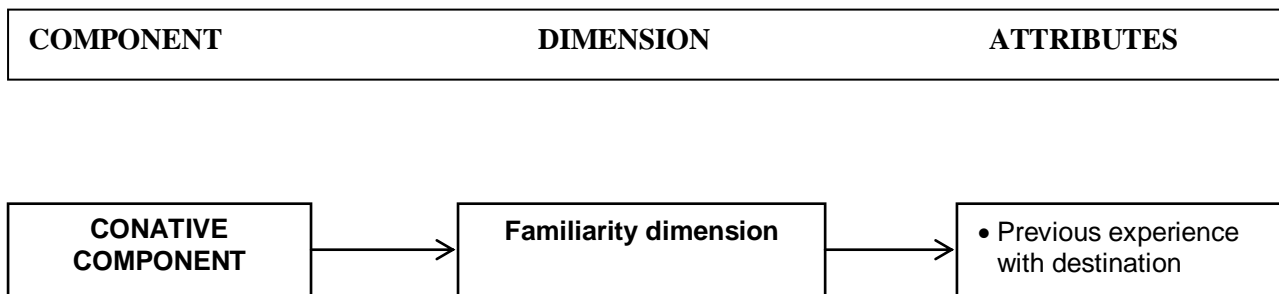


Figure 3.11: Conative component attributes

Source: Author's own compilation

- **Familiarity dimension**

One attribute formed part of the familiarity dimension. This attribute, which could influence image, is previous experience with destination (Esper & Rateike, 2010:350). It was identified as being a factor which determines the image of a tourist destination and was indicated amongst individual's familiarity variables.

It is interesting to note the man-made versus natural attributes that have an influence on image formation for different tourists seeking different attractions. Some may want a vacation within a natural environment, such as a national park; and others may prefer to visit a popular destination such as Cape Town, which includes a lot of different man-made attractions. When visiting a destination, the image will be affected and altered based on first-hand information and experience. Tourist information has been shown to have a significant influence on the choice of holiday destinations (Molina & Esteban, 2006:1036).

After these dimensions and attributes were identified, of the 51 cognitive image attributes, 42 formed part of this study. Even though only 11 affective image attributes were identified in the literature review, these were transformed and improved into 12 being used in the questionnaire. Three conative image attributes were formulated for this study (see Appendix A).

3.8 THE IMPORTANCE OF DEVELOPING A FRAMEWORK FOR THE OPTIMISATION OF THE IMAGE OF SOUTH AFRICA AS A TOURISM DESTINATION

Although a developing country, South Africa is seen as a diverse country with abundant offerings for both international and national tourists. It is considered as one of the ten most beautiful countries in the world, ninth to be exact (Anon, 2014b), offering a great climate, a vast cultural inheritance, historical tourist attractions, picturesque attractions, a profusion of exclusive flora and some of the greatest game-viewing opportunities in Africa. With its

diverse landscapes, many different types of holidays are on offer for tourists who have different needs and wants. The majority of tourists reside within the country itself. However, in recent years, there has been an increase in international tourism (Du Plessis, 2007:2-3). Being such a popular tourism destination, it is important to uphold a positive image amongst tourists. Kale and Weir (1986:2) explain that third world countries may be disadvantaged through having a more negative or a reduced amount of positive image. These countries need to focus on promoting or maximising their positive image attributes; and to strive towards overcoming or minimising their negative image attributes as perceived by potential tourists.

Therefore, it has been decided to determine how international tourists perceive South Africa and which factors influence their perception or image with regard to the country. No such research has been conducted specifically for South Africa, therefore leaving a gap in this critical research area. As this chapter has indicated the importance of destination image in the tourism industry, it is an ideal research opportunity to have explored.

A conceptual image framework (Figure 3.12) was developed according to the information gathered in the literature review. It was clear that opinions differ in terms of image variables and the importance of each. Other aspects, based on expert opinion were also included in this conceptual framework. The framework is tested in this research of which the results are provided in Chapter 5.

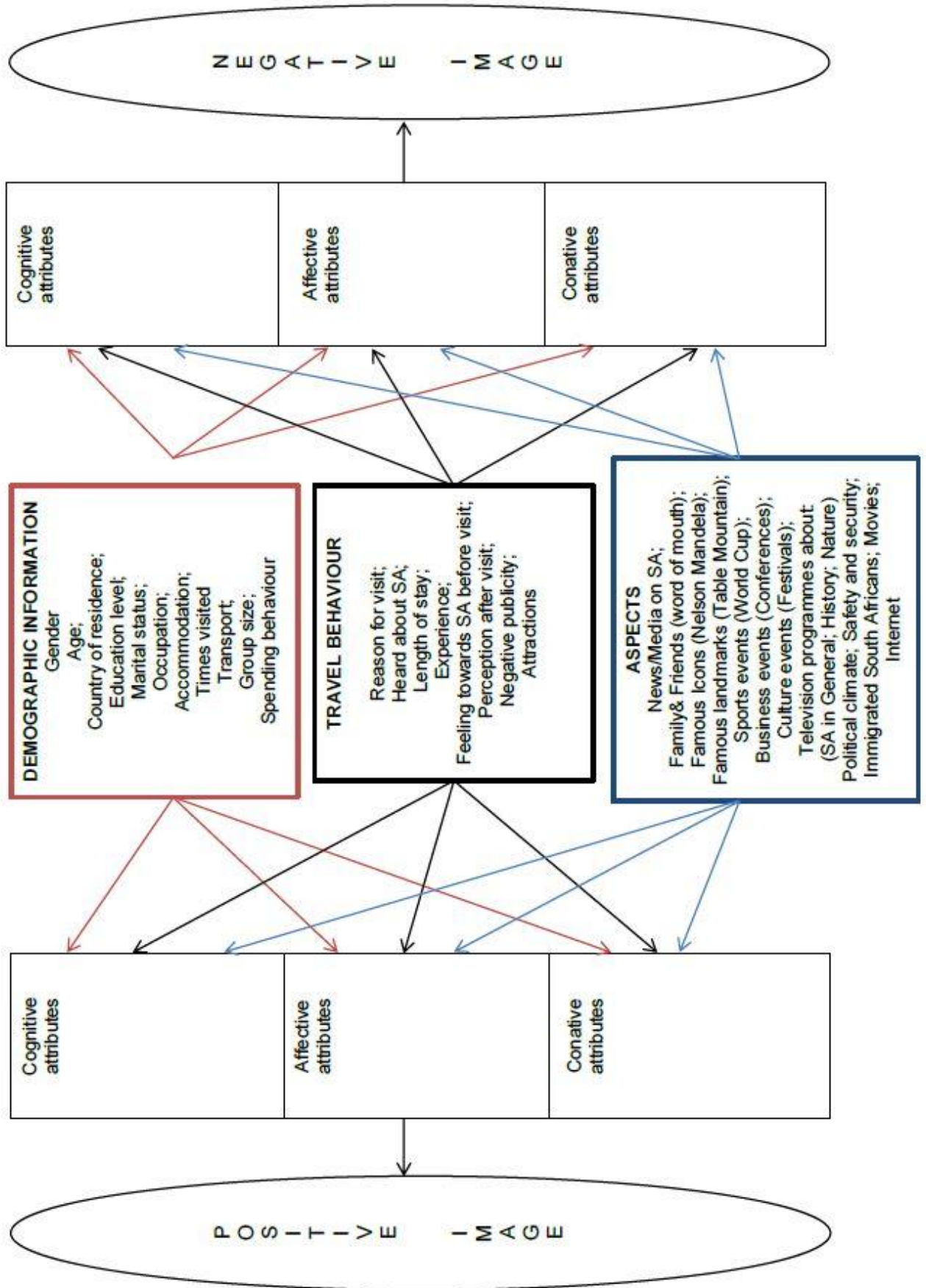


Figure 3.12: Conceptual image framework

3.9 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to assess destination image in a tourism context by means of an in-depth literature-based review. From this chapter it is clear that destination image, which forms part of marketing, also forms an essential segment within tourism. The reason being that tourism products are intangible and can only be measured by the image they portray. Image consists of different components, which include cognitive, affective and conative. The cognitive component refers to one's knowledge about a certain product; the affective component involves the feeling based on what is known; and the conative component consists of how one reacts to this information. These three components tend to have an effect on image formation because individuals react either positively or negatively towards the physical and emotional components of a product or service. Because of a tourism product's intangibility, it depends on aspects such as media to portray a positive image, which could lead to tourists revisiting a destination (George, 2004:346). South Africa is usually seen as a struggling African country, which has difficulty with its politics, crime and security and, as a result, is portrayed negatively through various information sources. Once a negative image is portrayed and tourists' perceptions are influenced negatively, it is difficult to repair or change their feeling towards a destination or product / service.

In destination image, countless literature-based and empirical-based models exist, of which certain relevant models were discussed in this chapter. In the search for models, no image model was found to have been formulated for the measurement of South Africa's image. These models, however, have been of great guidance in helping to develop the framework for this study. In doing an in-depth literature review, it was possible to identify factors that could influence image and some of these were used in doing this research and formulating the questionnaire.

To conclude, in determining South Africa's true image from a tourism perspective, factors could be identified in helping the country to focus on and maintain or maximise its positive attributes and minimise its negative attributes within its marketing efforts.

CHAPTER 4:

METHODOLOGICAL SUMMARY



Research is to see what everybody else has seen and to think what nobody else has thought – Albert Szent-Györgyi

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Because tourism is such a wide research area, there are many ways of researching these topics. It is therefore important to choose a topic which is of self-interest. The most important step in doing research is to identify the problem that creates the necessity of the specific research to be conducted (McQuarrie, 2006:19). After time spent on investigating the topic of destination image, the research question for this study was identified as: What are the factors influencing the image of South Africa as a tourism destination and how could these be managed to boost a positive image(s) and minimise negative image(s)? To determine this, the main goal of this study was to develop a framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination.

In striving to achieve this goal, various objectives were identified. Firstly, to assess destination image by means of an in-depth literature-based review. Secondly, to determine and analyse the current destination image of South Africa based on a cognitive, affective and conative evaluation. Thirdly, to critically analyse the nature and extent of identified factors (such as media, previous visits, political environment) on the image of South Africa as a developing tourism destination. Fourthly, to develop a framework for optimising image formation for South Africa as a developing tourism destination. Lastly, to draw conclusions and make recommendations with regard to image formation and the implementation of the framework.

This thesis consists of six chapters. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the various types of research methodologies that exist and give a detailed summary of the type of methodology that was used to conduct this specific research. An in-depth description concerning the methodology will be referred to, which will include aspects such as the empirical study, the research design, method of collecting data, selection of the sampling

frame, the development of the questionnaire, the layout of the questionnaire, the description of each section within the questionnaire and the data analyses.

Research, is usually associated with activities taking place in laboratories and carried out by scientists. This is partly true since research is the study of problems through the use of scientific methods and principles. However, academics, students and managers do research outside laboratories to produce and distribute knowledge applicable to the business environment. These two groups' research philosophies, approaches and strategies differ and each of these groups' philosophies, approaches and strategies determine how certain research will be conducted and which route to follow (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:69).

Figure 4.1 portrays the aspects of which this chapter consist.

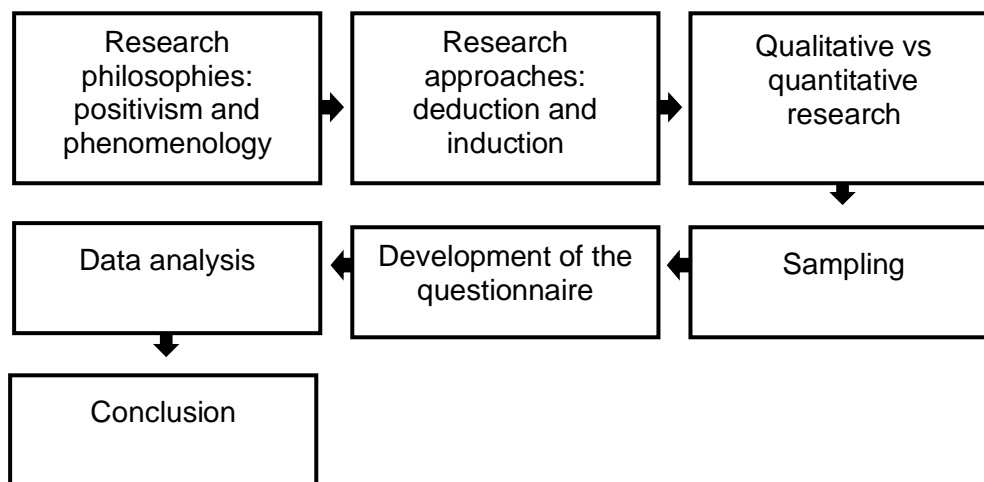


Figure 4.1: Structure of Chapter 4

Source: Author's own compilation

4.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHIES: POSITIVISM AND PHENOMENOLOGY

Two main research philosophies exist: positivism and phenomenology. Positivism encourages a more impartial interpretation of reality, using hard data from surveys and experiments, whereas phenomenology focuses on how people experience the world, therefore examining people and their social behaviour (Gill & Johnson, 2010:241). Positivism is more often associated with scientific research (factual, given and without any doubt) and phenomenology with social sciences (Botterill & Platenkamp, 2012:142 &147). Even though these two philosophies are usually seen as contrasting and differentiated, they are often used in combination with one another throughout the same research project. This study's research philosophy was positivism (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:72). Two research approaches transpire, which include deduction and induction. These two approaches will be discussed next.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACHES: DEDUCTION AND INDUCTION

Deduction is to draw conclusions and make predictions about individual experiences from general statements, hypothesis or theories about regularities in nature or society (Botterill & Platenkamp, 2012:50). Spangler (1986:101) defines it as moving from the known to the unknown. Induction is a process whereby, through sensible singulars, as perceived by the senses, one attains universal concepts and principles held by the intellect (Johnson-Laird & Byrne, 1991:16), meaning that conclusions are drawn by researchers through evidence. Therefore, evidence leads to the conclusion. Usually the positivist philosophy is associated with deduction and quantitative research and the phenomenological philosophy is associated with induction and qualitative research (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:75). The research approach used for this study was that of deduction, which focuses on quantitative research. In the next section, the difference between qualitative and quantitative research methods is discussed.

4.4 QUALITATIVE VERSUS QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS

Two types of research methods occur, qualitative and quantitative. These will be discussed in this section.

- **Qualitative research method**

Understanding the context in which phenomena and behaviours take place is the main aim of qualitative research. It focuses on emotions and experiences, attitudes and beliefs. The qualitative data is usually in text form; however, there are questions about the objectivity of qualitative research. The conclusions of qualitative research cannot be generalised. This type of design is objective in nature, structured, systematic and replicable. The focus of this research design is that of variables and a random participation selection is used (Jennings, 2010:130). Qualitative research techniques include focus groups and in-depth interviews (Bradley, 2010:234).

- **Quantitative research method**

The objective of quantitative research is to determine how one thing (a variable) affects another in a population by quantifying the relationships between variables (what is measured). Statistical methods are used to quantify relationships between these variables. These methods include relative frequencies, differences between means, correlation coefficients and so forth (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:75). With this design, statistical analysis can be portrayed in tables and graphs and can, in many cases, be seen as representative of the population. The researcher's voice is passive or in the third person. Therefore, quantitative research is everything regarding data, numbers and statistics. It does

not only focus on demographic variables, but can portray respondent's attitudes towards different variables (Bradley, 2010:264). A common technique used to gather information in quantitative research is that of a questionnaire (Jennings, 2010:22), which is the same technique used in conducting this research.

The following section focuses on the different types of sampling methods. There are two main types, probability and non-probability sampling.

4.5 SAMPLING

When doing research, it is very important that the data captured is as representative as possible of the group amongst which the research is conducted. Sampling is therefore defined as the process by which researchers select a representative subset, or part of the total population that can be studied for their topic, so that they will be able to draw conclusions regarding the entire population (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:89). To understand sampling better, it is important that certain definitions are clarified. Firstly a *population* (McQuarrie, 2006:94-95) is the total set of people from whom results are obtained by means of a sample and the reflection thereof. Populations can be of any size or level of generality. It is possible for multiple populations to form part of research. The *initial sample* is that limited number of people within the population who are initially contacted to participate in the research. The *obtained sample* are the people within the initial sample that actually completed the research process. A *sample frame* is the device used to access the population in order to draw a sample, for example a mailing list (McQuarrie, 2006:95). Sampling consists of two main categories probability and non-probability sampling (also known as representative sampling) (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:324; Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:91; Smith, 2010:89; McDaniel & Gates, 2010:423; Jennings, 2010:137-139). These are discussed below.

4.5.1 Probability sampling methods

Probability sampling methods ensure that each member of the population has an equal probability of being selected to form part of the research and is also known as a nonzero likelihood of selection (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:423). Therefore, this type of sampling is based on the principle of randomisation or chance. Various ways of selecting a probability sample exist, including simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling (Jennings, 2010:141).

4.5.1.1 Simple random sampling

This sampling method is also known as probability sampling's purest form. Each member of a population has a known equal chance (probability) of being selected to form part of the sample (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:429). Contradicting its name, this method is neither simple nor random, meaning that it is deliberate and systematic (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:91). This method makes use of a list of names, numbers or addresses and so on. Say there are 4 000 names on the list and a sample size of 400 is needed, every tenth person on the list will form part of the sample, which is a representative sample. However, the risk being that some subgroups may be under or over sampled (Smith, 2010:89-90).

4.5.1.2 Systematic random sampling

Systematic random sampling is known for its simplicity. The entire population is numbered, whereafter a skip interval is determined. The skip interval is the population size divided by the sample size. The main difference between simple random sampling and systematic random sampling is that with systematic random sampling a random starting point is used. Again, when using a list of names, a random number is extracted to indicate the page number to start at. Another random number is extracted to indicate the column and the last random number is extracted to indicate the row. From that starting point the skip interval is used until the desired sample size has been reached (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:430). Therefore, after randomly selecting the starting point, every n th member of the population is selected to form part of the sample (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:93).

4.5.1.3 Stratified sampling

Within stratified sampling, the target population is divided into two or more subgroups, for example female and male. Simple random samples are selected from each subgroup independently (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:430). These subgroups are homogeneous groups also known as strata. For example, if a hotel wants to incorporate a new restaurant concept and its guests consist of 40 percent business guests, 20 percent leisure guests, 10 percent tour groups and 30 percent conference guests; and a focus group of 20 guests is to form part of the sample size, the focus group will consist of eight business guests, four leisure guests, two tour group guests and six conference guests. In doing this, each subgroup forms an equal percentage of the sample size (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:93). To implement a stratified sample accurately, it is important to identify prominent demographic or grouping factors for example age, gender or market segment, and so on. This should be followed by determining which parts of the population fall into the different strata or subgroups. Finally, each stratum is individually divided into samples through simple random sampling (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:431-432).

4.5.1.4 Cluster sampling

Cluster sampling is defined by McDaniel and Gates (2010:432) as a probability sample, in which the sampling units are selected from a number of small geographic areas to reduce data collection costs. Again, the population is divided into subgroups and a simple random sample is drawn up within the subgroup. However, if all the members in the subgroup are studied, it is known as one-stage cluster sampling. If only a probability sample of the subgroups is studied, it is called two-stage cluster sampling. It is important that the whole population being studied has an equal opportunity in being selected (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:93). Cluster sampling is generally used when doing telephonic or personal interviews and the population sample is geographically widely spread. An example of cluster sampling could be that when a whole city is to be studied, then the city is divided into neighbourhoods. An appropriate number of neighbourhoods are then selected by using a grid on a map. After selecting the neighbourhoods, one can proceed by randomly sampling different households in each identified neighbourhood (Smith, 2010:91).

4.5.2 Non-probability sampling methods

The difference between probability sampling methods and non-probability sampling methods is that with non-probability sampling the samples are not chosen randomly, but by using other strategies, thus all members of the population do not have the same chance of being selected (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:95). The problem with non-probability sampling methods is that the representativeness of the samples is not always known when the samples are extracted. In developing the questionnaire, one could include demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status, occupation and so on, to indicate how representative the sample is when compared to the larger population. Researchers prefer probability sampling methods, however some situations do not allow probability sampling to be possible or effective. These circumstances include outdoor events which are not gated, tourism firm managers, travel trade show attendees, backpackers or hikers during their trip or hike, cruise ship passengers and tourists waiting in the airport departure lounges. The success of probability sampling is questionable since accessing the individuals and selecting the individuals in a truly random manner is difficult (Smith, 2010:91-92). Various types of non-probability sampling methods exist. These methods are discussed individually and include convenience, judgemental, quota, snowball and self-selection sampling (Jennings, 2010:139).

4.5.2.1 Convenience sampling

Convenience sampling is also known as accidental or haphazard sampling, since members of a population are selected because they are conveniently accessible. Convenience

sampling can include elements of random selection, which increases the potential of the sample to be more representative of the larger population (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:95; Smith, 2010:92; McDaniel & Gates, 2010:435). Convenience sampling should not be used for causal or descriptive research, but rather with exploratory designs where the focus is on gathering ideas and insights (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:327).

4.5.2.2 Judgemental sampling

This sampling method is also known as expert or purposive sampling. This is another form of convenience sampling in that the sample is selected / handpicked from the larger population. This sampling method is suitable when the population under investigation is difficult to locate. Also, when certain members of the population are more suitable, knowledgeable or experienced than others, this method can be used. The sample selection can be very subjective due to the researcher's assumptions of members; and will therefore randomly select those that are representative of the larger population (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:96). McDaniel and Gates (2010:436) define judgemental sampling as non-probability sampling in which the selection criteria are based on the researcher's judgement about representativeness of the population under study.

4.5.2.3 Quota sampling

According to McDaniel and Gates (2010:436) quota sampling is defined as a non-probability sampling method in which quotas, based on demographic or classification factors selected by the researcher, are established for population subgroups. There is confusion between stratified and quota sampling. However, there are two main differences between them. Firstly, quota sampling does not select respondents randomly, as does stratified sampling. Secondly, the classification factors within stratified sampling are selected in the presence of a correlation between the factor and the behaviour of interest, whereas no such requirement exists with quota sampling. With quota sampling, the selection is based on the researcher's judgement. Altinay and Paraskevas (2008:96) state that quota sampling is used to ensure an equal representation of participants within a stratified sampling group. Research therefore takes place in steps. Once the quota for one group has been met, research continues on meeting each of the other group's quotas needed for the sample. Quota sampling does not meet the basic requirement of chance and therefore the sample may be biased. However, this type of sampling helps to be more representative by engaging quotas for different groups of potential respondents. For example, if the total population consists of 55% females and 45% males and a sample size of 500 respondents is needed, to reach its quota a minimum of 275 female and 225 male respondents need to participate (Smith, 2010:98).

4.5.2.4 Snowball sampling

Also known as chain referral sampling, which is a method used to detect potential participants when suitable aspirants for the research are hard to access or find. Snowball sampling forms part of judgemental sampling, which is occasionally used to sample special populations. A preliminary set of respondents, that possess the needed characteristics of the target population, are identified by the researcher. These respondents then identify others with the sought-after characteristics. This causes a snowball effect since the sample keeps on growing as respondents keep on identifying other potential respondents (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:327). Snowball sampling cannot be considered as random sampling because the exact size of the total population is not known (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:97). One starts by identifying a potential respondent that fits the needed profile for the research. After interviewing that respondent, or after administering the questionnaire, the respondent is asked for another referral or someone that fits the same profile for the specific research. The snowball sample therefore starts out small, but grows bigger and bigger as time progresses (Smith, 2010:99). McDaniel and Gates (2010:436) define snowball sampling as a non-probability sample in which additional respondents are selected based on referrals from initial respondents. This type of sampling is used on populations that make up a very small percentage of the larger population.

4.5.2.5 Self-selection sampling

In this sampling method, the respondents indicate their wish to participate in the research. Researchers make use of advertisements, e-mails, journals and so on to publicise their research. The target population should be described thoroughly to ensure that the right target market responds to the advertising. Some advantages of this type of sampling is that the respondents contact the researcher, which saves time in eliminating respondents that are not suitable for the research; and it ensures that the participants are more committed to the research. A disadvantage includes a lack of control because of its voluntary nature. The sample may also be non-representative since the volunteer's choice to partake may be associated with traits that affect the research (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:97-98).

This study's sampling method was that of probability sampling, whereby stratified sampling was used to conduct the research as well as non-probability sampling where convenience sampling was used. Stratified sampling was used in dividing the population into subgroups. This study focused on international tourists who have already visited South Africa. In doing this, national tourists were eliminated as well as tourists that have just arrived in South Africa and have not yet visited the country and its attractions. Screening questions were asked by the fieldworkers, to ensure that a spread over all available continents was selected; to

confirm that the respondents were not South African citizens living abroad and to guarantee that the respondents did actually visit the country and did not just stop-over *en route* to their final destination. The screening questions that were asked included the following: “From which country are you?”, “Are you returning to your country of origin after having visited South Africa?”, “Were you born in South Africa?” and “Have you visited the country or is this only a stop-over?”

Convenience sampling, also known as accidental or haphazard sampling, was used for members of the population (international tourists that have already visited South Africa) because of them being conveniently accessible. Convenience sampling can however include elements of random selection, which increases the potential of the sample to be more representative of the larger population. The respondents that were asked to complete the questionnaires were conveniently available within the departure area of the airport, returning to their home countries after visiting South Africa. After respondents entered the international departure area, every third group was asked to participate in the research. Only one person per group completed the questionnaire. For this study’s data to have been collected successfully, a questionnaire had to be developed. The next section focuses on this important aspect of research.

4.6 DEVELOPMENT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A questionnaire can be defined as a set of questions designed to generate the data necessary to accomplish the objectives of the research project. It is a formalised schedule for collecting information from respondents through questions that the researcher wants answered (Burns & Bush, 2006:300; McDaniel & Gates, 2010:370; McQuarrie, 2006:137). To create a good questionnaire, hard work and a lot of imagination is needed. Even if you have the best fieldworkers, an intricate sampling plan, appropriate statistical analysis techniques and decent coding and editing; if the questionnaire is poorly designed, all of these aspects mean nothing. McDaniel and Gates (2010:371-372) state that when designing the questionnaire, the researcher should take the following into consideration:

- Does the questionnaire provide the much needed decision-making information?
- Are the respondents considered in the development of the questionnaire?
- Are the necessary coding and editing requirements met?

Within tourism research, questionnaires are seen as the most important tool for collecting data. Questionnaires are also known as an interview schedule or a survey instrument (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:370; Smith, 2010:61). The questionnaire should not aggravate the

respondents and the format should allow the researcher to encode the responses in an easy manner (Smith, 2010:61).

Various methods are used in designing a questionnaire (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:375; Smith, 2010:65; Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:121). The main aim of a questionnaire is collecting information with regard to a specific topic. Therefore, in doing this study, the information needed was which factors influence the image of South Africa as a tourism destination; and how could these be managed to boost positive image and limit negative image. This was then broken down into sub-divisions, which formed the basis of the questionnaire (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:121).

4.6.1 Structure of the questionnaire

According to guidelines set by Smith (2010:65-66), the following structure was incorporated in designing the questionnaire. The questionnaire included the purpose of the research, which in this case was assessing the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. The questionnaire consisted of three main sections. Section A included the demographic information of the targeted respondents. These questions are relatively basic questions, which encourages the respondents to complete the questionnaire and see if they take on the form of the targeted respondents. These questions included demographic information such as gender, age, country of residence, marital status, occupation, type of accommodation, number of times visited South Africa, mode of transport, number of people in travel group, number of people paying for, as well as spending and costs of the trip.

Section B formed the core of the questionnaire. Brunt (1997:87) refers to these as the “crux questions”. These questions were the main focus of the research and the respondents had to indicate how these attributes influence their image of South Africa as a tourism destination.

Section C included questions regarding travel behaviour. These questions tend to be non-complicated, non-provocative and not too personal. They were easy and understandable and consisted mainly of questions where answers can be ticked where applicable. These questions included the following: Their main reason for visiting South Africa, how respondents heard about South Africa, how long their visit to South Africa lasted, whether they had any negative experiences whilst visiting South Africa and, if so, to indicate the negative experience. They had to describe South Africa in one word; indicate their feeling towards South Africa before their visit; whether their feeling (either positive or negative) had changed (either positively or negatively) after visiting South Africa; whether any negative

publicity had influenced their image of South Africa and, lastly, which attractions were visited during their stay in South Africa.

Finally, the questionnaire concluded with a brief thank you and, the institution's name for which the research was conducted, should the respondents have any queries or questions afterwards. The questions in the questionnaire were carefully thought through and asked in a logical order ensuring that the respondents weren't bored or bombarded by too many unnecessary questions. The average time it took a respondent to complete the questionnaire was 15-20 minutes (see Appendix A).

4.6.2 The wording, question-format and coding within the questionnaire

According to McQuarrie (2006:145-148), it is important when phrasing the questions to keep it simple, be specific, ask mostly closed-ended questions, minimise demands on memory, match questions to how the market works and to avoid loaded questions. The right wording must be chosen and technical terminology and jargon should be minimised (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:122). It is therefore important to use language that is understood by the target population and that only one question is asked at a time. The respondents' willingness to answer the questions is to be taken into consideration, because if the questions are too embarrassing, sensitive or threatening, the respondents may refuse to answer the questions (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:385-387). There are three prominent types of questions that are used in marketing research. These include open-ended, closed-ended and rating / scaled response questions.

Open-ended questions are questions to which the respondent replies in his or her own words (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:377). An advantage of these types of questions is that the respondents are enabled to give their own reactions to questions. In some cases, open-ended questions are asked after closed-ended questions so the respondents could elaborate more on that specific answer. Open-ended questions could also be pre-coded. Here the respondent can choose any of the answers provided and choose an "Other" option. In pre-coding the questions, it is clear that the researcher is familiar with previous studies of a similar nature to be enabled to predict the respondent's answer. This study's questionnaire consisted of three open-ended questions (question 3, question 19 and question 24). Two questions (question 18b and question 22b) were open-ended questions, which followed a closed-ended question. Pre-coded questions used in the questionnaire included questions 4 to 12 and 15 to 17.

Closed-ended questions are questions that require the respondents to choose an answer from a list of answers (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:381). An advantage of these questions is that many problems associated with open-ended questions are avoided. Two types of closed-ended questions occur. Firstly, dichotomous questions are closed-ended questions that prompt the respondents to choose between two answers. The respondent is therefore limited to two fixed alternatives. A disadvantage of these types of questions is that the respondent cannot indicate any intensity of feeling towards the question. This study's questionnaire consisted of four closed-ended questions. These were questions 1, 18a, 20 and 22a. Secondly, multiple-choice questions (also called multichotomous questions) are closed-ended questions that prompt the respondent to choose from several answers. Question 23 in this study's questionnaire was a multiple-choice type of question.

Rating / scaled response questions are closed-ended questions in which the response choices are designed to capture the intensity of the respondent's feeling (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:383). An advantage of rating or scaled response questions is that it makes provision for measuring the intensity of the respondents' answers. A disadvantage could be that the respondents misinterpret the question and consequently give an "incorrect" answer. Altinay and Paraskevas (2008:126) indicate that there are three aspects to keep in mind when using these questions. Firstly, when using an odd number of points, there is always a middle option in which the respondents either do not know what to answer, or they have a neutral opinion towards the question. Secondly, a scale with a larger number of points, for example 1-7, is to be used when extreme opinions are to be measured. Lastly, if a scale has more than seven points, it usually collapses and is not helpful at all. There were two rating / scaled response questions in this study's questionnaire. Question 13 and 14; and where question 13 was divided into two scales (both 5-point scales). The respondents had to rate the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. The first part of question 13 was that of 42 cognitive attributes and the respondents had to indicate on a 5-point scale (where 1 = extremely poor and 5 = excellent) how they would rate these factors. The second part of question 13 included the 12 affective attributes and 3 conative attributes; and the respondents had to indicate on a 5-point scale (where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree) to which degree they agreed with the questions. Question 14 consisted of 15 questions relating to aspects that influence the respondents' image of South Africa. A 4-point Likert-scale (where 1 = not at all and 4 = to a great extent) was used and the respondents had to indicate to what extent the aspects influenced their image of South Africa.

4.6.3 The final questionnaire

The final questionnaire was assembled and final changes were made. The questionnaire was sent for language editing and was again proofread to make sure the questions were not

changed in such a manner that they could possibly be misunderstood by the respondents. The final questionnaire consisted of 24 questions and a total of four A4 pages which, according to Altinay and Paraskevas (2008:126) is well within the framework of thirty to forty questions over six to eight A4 pages.

Within developing the questionnaire for this study, various literature-based attributes were identified. A total of 63 attributes were identified whereafter these were sifted and grouped into Cognitive, Affective and Conative attributes. After sifting and determining whether all these attributes are applicable for this research, a total of 57 attributes remained important and formed part of the questionnaire. Forty-two attributes were Cognitive, 12 Affective and 3 Conative (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Dimensions and attributes that could influence destination image

Dimension	Attributes (Cognitive/ Affective/ Conative)	Reference
Cognitive		
Natural resources	Weather/Climate	Fakeye & Crompton (1991:13); Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín (2008:562); Prayag (2009:842)
	Nature	Prayag (2009:842)
	Fauna and flora	Fakeye & Crompton (1991:13); San Martín & Rodriguez del Bosque (2008:270)
	Season	Kozak & Rimmington (2000:264)
Cognitive		
General infrastructure	Roads	Byon & Zhang (2010:523)
	Airports	Byon & Zhang (2010:523)
	Transport	Fakeye & Crompton (1991:13); Prayag (2009:842)
	Health services	Beerli & Martin (2004a:659)
	Building development	Echtner & Ritchie (2003:45)
Cognitive		
Tourist infrastructure	Accommodation	Molina <i>et al.</i> (2010:726-727); Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín (2008:562); Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6); San Martín &

		Rodriguez del Bosque (2008:270)
	Restaurants	Royo-Vela (2009:422); Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6)
	Accessibility	Bigné <i>et al.</i> (2009:718)
	Excursions	Stepchenkova & Morrison (2008:554)
	Tourist centres	Byon & Zhang (2010:523)
	Tourist information	Byon & Zhang (2010:523); Kim & Yoon (2003:11)
Cognitive		
Tourist leisure and recreation	Theme parks	Lee <i>et al.</i> (2002:74)
	Entertainment	Lee <i>et al.</i> (2002:74)
	Sport activities	Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6); Choo <i>et al.</i> (2011:208)
	Adventure activities	Stepchenkova & Morrison (2008:554)
	Shopping	Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6); San Martín & Rodriguez del Bosque (2008:270)
	Night life	Prayag (2009:842); Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6)
	Cognitive	
Culture, history and art	Culture	Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín (2008:562); Prayag (2009:842)
	Museums	Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6); Choo <i>et al.</i> (2011:208)
	Festivals and concerts	Choo <i>et al.</i> (2011:208); Byon & Zhang (2010:523)
	Handicraft	Lee (2009:737); Lee <i>et al.</i> (2002:74)
	Folklore	Royo-Vela (2009:422)
	Religion	Beerli & Martin (2004a:659)

	Way of life	Beerli & Martin (2004a:659)
	Cognitive	
Political and economic factors	Strikes	Beerli & Martin (2004a:659); Castelltort & Mäder (2010:735)
	Political stability and tendencies	Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6); Echtner & Ritchie (2003:45)
	Economic development	Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6); Stepchenkova & Morrison (2008:554)
	Safety	Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín (2008:562); San Martín & Rodriguez del Bosque (2008:270); Prayag (2009:842)
	Prices	Byon & Zhang (2010:523); Sönmez & Sirakaya (2002:191)
	Inflation	Forsyth & Dwyer (2009:85)
	Exchange rate	Lee <i>et al.</i> (2002:74)
	Long-haul destination	Pike <i>et al.</i> (2010:445-446)
	Cognitive	
Natural environment	Cleanliness	Royo-Vela (2009:422); Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6); Byon & Zhang (2010:523)
	Overcrowding	Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6)
	Traffic congestion	Fakeye & Crompton (1991:13)
	Air and noise pollution	Beerli & Martin (2004a:659)
	Towns and cities	Stepchenkova & Morrison (2008:554)
	Beauty of the scenery	San Martín & Rodriguez del Bosque (2008:270); Byon & Zhang (2010:523)
	Cognitive	
Social environment	Hospitality	Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín (2008:562); Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6)
	Friendliness of people	Kwon & Vogt (2010:432-433); Fakeye & Crompton (1991:13); Prayag (2009:842); Echtner & Ritchie (2003:45)

	Poverty/Poor	Stepchenkova & Morrison (2008:554)
	Quality of life	Beerli & Martin (2004a:659)
	Language barriers	Prayag (2009:842); Tapachai & Waryszak (2000:41)
Cognitive		
Media	Telecommunication	Beerli & Martin (2004a:659)
	Promotion/Advertising/Marketing	Molina <i>et al.</i> (2010:726-727); Esper & Rateike (2010:350)
	Opinions of others / Word of mouth	Esper & Rateike (2010:350)
	Media reporting / Social media	Gren & Gunnarsdóttir (2008:427); Castelltort & Mäder (2010:735)
Affective		
Atmosphere of the place	Fun	Kim & Perdue (2011:231)
	Good reputation	Prayag (2009:842); Echtner & Ritchie (2003:45)
	Family oriented destination	Echtner & Ritchie (2003:45)
	Exotic	Prayag (2009:842); Echtner & Ritchie (1993:6)
	Mystic	Beerli & Martin (2004a:659)
	Relaxing	Fakeye & Crompton (1991:13); Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martín (2008:562); San Martín & Rodriguez del Bosque (2008:270)
	Luxurious	Govers <i>et al.</i> (2007:21)
	Fashionable	Beerli & Martin (2004a:659)
	Stressful	Beerli & Martin (2004a:659)
	Boring	MacKay & Fesenmaier (1997:554-555); Stepchenkova & Morrison (2008:554)
	Attractive and interesting	Beerli & Martin (2004a:659)
Conative		
Familiarity	Previous experience with destination	Esper & Rateike (2010:350)

4.6.4 Distributing the questionnaire

It was decided that the method for targeting the respondents would be face-to-face contact, whereby the research team would distribute the questionnaires and the respondents complete the questionnaires. Even though the control is less in using this method, the respondents that do complete the questionnaires do it willingly and the researcher is present to answer any questions they may have. This method allows for faster distribution and collection of the completed questionnaires (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:122).

Due to the strict rules and regulations of the airport regarding police clearance and access, the research was conducted by trained field workers from a professional contracted research company, therefore being competent in understanding both the aim of the study and the questionnaire itself. Various meetings took place with these fieldworkers before the survey commenced. An in-depth discussion and explanation of the questionnaire with the fieldworkers took place, ensuring that the research's main aim and each question was understood; and could be explained to the respondents if necessary. During the week of the survey, constant communication between the research team and the coordinator occurred. Some problems that arose were those of language barriers; however this was overcome by selecting respondents that did understand English, yet still fitted the description of the targeted population.

The respondents were briefed beforehand to ensure that they participated willingly and honestly. These respondents, having visited various attractions within South Africa, represent a geographically widespread area; and are thus representative when wanting to gain an overall international tourists' image of the country. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608-609), a total of 384 questionnaires had to be completed for this study. A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed of which 474 questionnaires were completed. Of these 474 questionnaires, 451 questionnaires were usable for this study as 23 questionnaires were incomplete and not usable. The number of questionnaires was therefore representative of the target population. After the questionnaires for this study were gathered, the primary data was personally captured and analysed by the researcher. The different types of data analyses that were used are explained in the next section.

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS

The software that was used for the statistical processing of the data included Microsoft[®] Excel[®] (2010) and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS[™] version 21). Five types of analyses were followed in investigating the results, which included an Exploratory

Factor Analysis (EFA), *t*-tests, One-way Analysis of variance (ANOVA), Spearman rank correlations and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). These are discussed below.

4.7.1 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

An exploratory factor analysis is performed to group the variables. This will show how close an indicator is or correlates with a factor. A factor analysis is therefore a method for classifying groups or clusters of variables. This analysis type is used for three main reasons. Firstly, to understand the assembly of a set of variables; secondly, to develop a questionnaire which measures a fundamental variable and, thirdly, to decrease a data set to a more controllable size while recalling as much of the original data as possible (Field, 2005:619).

Within a factor analysis, either positive or negative loadings occur. A positive loading indicates a positive relationship of the variable with the factor; and a negative loading indicates an inverse relationship of the variable with the factor (Bradley, 2007:336). A confirmatory factor analysis is a complex and sophisticated set of techniques which is used at a later stage in the research process, but will confirm and test certain hypotheses or theories regarding the structure underlying a set of variables (Pallant, 2010:181). Therefore specific hypotheses about the structure of the factor loadings and inter-correlations are tested.

Two factor analyses were drawn up. The first determined which attributes had an effect on the image of South Africa. Thirteen factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Field 2005:633) were generated from the 57 image attributes. The data of question 13 was used for this factor analysis. Due to its low factor loading, one attribute did not form part of the factor analysis, which was "South Africa is a stressful tourism destination". The second factor analysis determined whether different aspects influenced South Africa's image. Three factors loaded with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Two aspects, being that of "immigrated South Africans" and "family and friends (word of mouth)" did not form part of the factors, due to the aspects' low factor loadings. The data used for the performance of the factor analyses as that of questions 13 (Rate the image of South Africa as a tourism destination) and 14 (To what extent do the following aspects influence your image of South Africa).

4.7.2 *t*-tests

Various types of *t*-tests exist, however two types are most often used. Independent-sample *t*-tests, are used when the mean scores of two different groups of people or conditions are compared to each other and the data has been collected on one occasion. Paired-sample *t*-

tests are performed when the mean scores for the same group of people are compared on two different occasions. This study focused on independent-samples *t*-tests, since the data was collected on one occasion and different groups of respondents formed part of the sample (Pallant, 2010:105, 239). The *t*-tests determined whether the different groups indicated whether the factors, which consisted of the image attributes, had an effect on their image formation. The Data used in this analysis was that of questions 1 (gender), 7 (type of accommodation), 9 (type of transport), 15 (main reason for visiting South Africa), 16 (heard about South Africa), 18a (negative experience while visiting South Africa), 20 (feeling towards South Africa before visit), 21 (perception after visiting South Africa), 22a (negative publicity of South Africa) and 23 (attractions visited during stay in South Africa).

4.7.3 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)

ANOVA is used when two or more groups' mean values need to be compared on a continuous variable (Pallant, 2010:105). One independent variable (known as a factor) consists of different levels, which correspond to the different groups or conditions. However, the dependent variable is a continuous variable. Two expectations must be met to conduct a one-way ANOVA. Firstly, each of the groups needs to be a random sample from a normally distributed population and, secondly, the variances of the groups need to be equal (Tustin *et al.*, 2005:627). The variances are compared between the different groups with the variability within each of the groups. In doing so, an F-ratio is calculated. An F-ratio refers to the variance between the groups, divided by the variance within the group. A large F-ratio shows that there is more variability between the groups than there is within each group. The null hypothesis can therefore be rejected if a significant F-test is performed, which indicates that the population means are equal (Pallant, 2010:249).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether respondents had different average scores towards a single quantitative measure and indicated whether the groups differ. The data used in determining this was that of questions 3 (continent of residence), 5 (marital status) and 6 (occupation).

4.7.4 Spearman rank correlations

To describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the 13 factors identified and demographic information / travel behaviour variables, Spearman rank order correlations were used (Pallant, 2010:103). No relationship at all or a weak relationship is indicated by a correlation of 0. A perfect positive correlation is indicated by a value of 1.0 and a perfect negative correlation is indicated by a value of -1.0 (Peck *et al.*, 2001:161). Therefore, the direction (either positive or negative) and the strength of the relationship are

indicated. If a negative correlation exists, it indicates that as one variable increases, the other decreases. Contrary to this, a positive correlation indicates that when a variable increases, the other also increases. The correlations were interpreted according to the guidelines of Cohen (1988) as cited by Ellis and Steyn (2003:52) who suggest that: small $\rho = 0.10-0.29$, medium $\rho = 0.30-0.49$ and large $\rho = 0.50-1.0$.

Spearman rank correlations were used to determine a linear relationship between demographic and / or travel behaviour variables and the 13 factors identified. The data that was used in performing the spearman rank correlations was that of questions 2 (age), 8 (number of times visited South Africa), 10 (number of people in travel group), 11 (number of people paying for) 12 (total spending and spending per person) and 17 (length of visit).

4.7.5 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

This type of analysis is fairly new and permits one to test numerous models regarding the interrelationships amongst a set of variables. Multiple regression and factor analytical techniques are used to assess the position of each of these independent variables in the model; and to test the complete fit of the model to one's data (Pallant, 2010:104-105; Byrne, 2013:3). The variables are stated the way it is believed they are inter-related, by using a path diagram. The implications of the variances and co-variances are determined. A test is conducted to determine whether the variances and co-variances fit the proposed model. The results of the statistical testing are reported. This includes parameter estimates and standard errors for the numerical coefficients in the linear equations. Finally, with the necessary information / results, the proposed model can be altered to fit the data (StatSoft, 2014).

According to Malhotra, Baalbaki and Nasr Bechwati (2013:710), structural equation modelling (also known as SEM) is defined as a procedure for estimating a series of dependence relationships among a set of concepts or constructs represented by multiple measured variables and incorporated into an integrated model. SEM was used in developing the framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. SEM is also referred to as covariance structure analysis, latent variable analysis and causal modelling. However, SEM cannot establish causality by itself, but may assist in the process. SEM is primarily used as a confirmatory technique rather than an exploratory technique. SEM is not used to "find" a suitable model, but to determine whether a specific model is valid (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:710-711). SEM is comparable to mutual quantitative research methods, which includes correlation, multiple regression and ANOVA (Analysis of variance). All these formed part of this study's data analysis (Weston & Gore, 2006:720). When comparing these four statistical procedures, it is evident that all of them are general linear models; and only if specific assumptions are met are they all valid. Causality is not implied

by any of these techniques and researchers can misuse SEM as easily as any other statistical procedure. However, there are various differences between SEM and other methods. A difference, which is also an advantage of SEM, is its ability to approximate and test the relationships among concepts. This is important since it can determine the concepts' validity of factors. Another difference is that when using SEM, the significant differences involve the evaluation of many results. This means that multiple test statistics are to be evaluated and to determine whether the model represents the relationships between the concepts and observed variables accurately (Weston & Gore, 2006:723).

In order to understand SEM, there are various foundations, which include theory, model and path diagram, exogenous versus endogenous constructs, dependence and correlational relationships, model fit and model identification. All of these will be discussed in the next section.

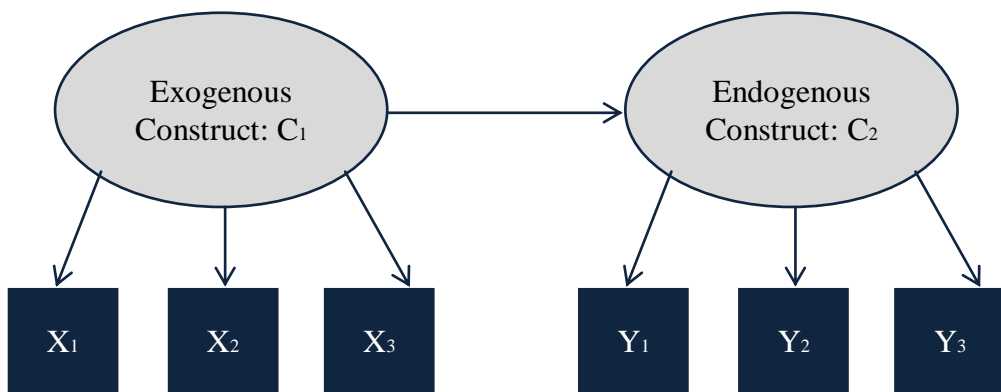
4.7.5.1 Theory, Model and Path Diagram

Theory, as defined by Malhotra *et al.* (2013:712), is a conceptual scheme based on foundational statements or axioms that are assumed to be true. When developing a model, a theory serves as a conceptual foundation. Before an SEM model can be predicted, all relationships need to be specified and therefore the model needs to be built on theory. Two models form part of a SEM model, the measurement model and the structural model.

The measurement model portrays how the observed (measured) variables represent constructs. It embodies the theory that stipulates the observed variables for each construct and allows the assessment of construct validity. These observed variables are also referred to as measured variables, manifest variables or indicators of the construct. Characteristically, observed variables are expected to be dependent upon constructs. Therefore, straight arrows are drawn from a construct to an observed variable, which are indicators of the construct. The measurement model uses confirmatory factor analysis to specify which variables define each construct / factor (Weston & Gore, 2006:724). It seeks to confirm whether the number of factors / constructs and the loadings of observed variables enables it to follow the theory. Consequently, the confirmatory factor analysis is used to validate the factor structure of a set of observed variables. It allows a researcher to test the hypothesis that observed variables and their underlying latent constructs stand in a relationship with each other. Both empirical research and knowledge of the theory is used, whereafter the researcher hypothesises the relationship pattern and then the hypothesis is statistically tested. The researcher has total control over which indicators describe each construct when testing for the measurement model. Conversely, a structural model indicates

how the constructs are interrelated with each other, often with numerous relationships of dependence. It indicates whether or not a relationship exists. If hypothesised by theory, the relationship is indicated by an arrow. If not, no arrow is drawn (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:712-713). A model is described graphically, also known as a path diagram (see Figure 4.2). Norms that are used in drawing up a path diagram for a measurement model, include constructs that are represented by ovals or circles and measured variables that are represented by rectangles or squares. Straight arrows that are one-headed or directional are drawn from constructs to measured variables, which indicate the causes to effects. When indicating a dependent relationship, straight arrows are used; and when representing a correlational relationship, curved arrows are used, which are usually two-headed (Hancock & Mueller, 2010:372-373; Mazocchi, 2008:320).

a) Dependence Relationship



b) Correlational Relationship

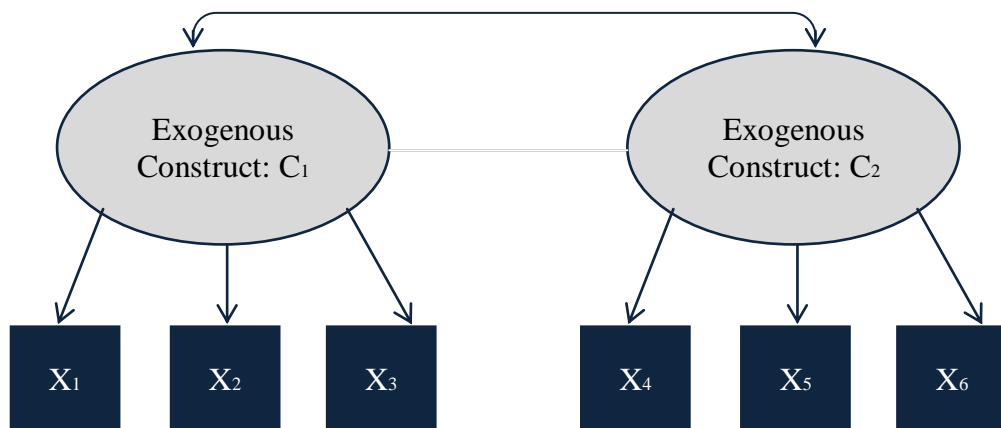


Figure 4.2: Dependence (a) and Correlational Relationships (b) in a simple SEM Model

Source: Malhotra et al. (2013:713)

4.7.5.2 Exogenous versus Endogenous constructs

A construct is described as an unobservable or dormant variable, therefore only definable in conceptual terms and not able to be measured directly. It is important to note that it cannot be measured error-free. Therefore it is measured circuitously or indirectly through the examination of consistency among multiple observed variables (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:713). Two types of constructs concerning SEM exist, exogenous and endogenous constructs. An exogenous construct is defined as the latent, multi-item equivalent of an independent variable, which has no causal inputs in traditional multivariate analysis (Hancock & Mueller, 2010:375). It acts as an independent variable in a model and is represented by multiple observed variables or items. Factors outside the model determine the exogenous construct and no other variable within the model can explain this construct. No single-headed arrows (paths) come into an exogenous construct; they only go out towards other variables within the model (See Figure 4.2). Within a model, the X variables refer to an exogenous construct and these are the indicators or measured variables. In Figure 4.2 the construct C₁ is therefore an exogenous construct.

Contradicting this, an endogenous construct is defined by Malhotra *et al.* (2013:714) and Hancock and Mueller (2010:375) as a latent, multi-item equivalent of a dependent variable and has one or more causal inputs. Variables within the model itself determine an endogenous construct and are therefore dependent on other variables and constructs (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:539). Endogenous constructs have single-headed arrows (paths) coming into them from other endogenous constructs and / or exogenous constructs. In a measurement model, the Y variables (also known as indicators or measured variables) represent the endogenous construct; and in Figure 4.2 it is symbolised by C₂. An endogenous construct can be independent of other endogenous constructs.

4.7.5.3 Dependence and Correlational relationships

In a model, straight arrows represent a dependence relationship, flowing from the antecedent to the subsequent effect measured variable or latent construct. It is also referred to as the flow from independent to dependent variables. Dependence relationships occur between constructs and are therefore indicated by straight arrows. A correlation between exogenous constructs is referred to as a correlational relationship or covariance relationship. When indicating a correlational relationship in a model, it is done by using a two-headed curved arrow. It also suggests that these constructs are correlated, but not necessarily dependent on each other. See Figure 4.2, which indicates that construct C₁ and construct C₂ in this case is exogenous constructs. According to theory, a path diagram includes both

dependence and correlational relationships between exogenous and endogenous constructs (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:714).

4.7.5.4 Model fit

A set of relationships which are characterised by multiple equations is tested by SEM. The model fit (predictive correctness) therefore has to be determined as a whole and not just for a single relationship. In contrast to other multivariate techniques, such as multiple regressions which decompose variance, SEM analyses correlation and covariance. In doing so, the main purpose of SEM is to determine how well the projected model explains the observed correlation or covariance matrix among measured variables. Therefore, SEM is not built on raw data, but rather on a correlation or covariance matrix. When the data is standardised, a correlation matrix is a unique case of the covariance matrix. The approximation of SEM is grounded on covariances, since they provide greater information and are more flexible. There is a possibility of estimating the covariance matrix between the observed variables because it is based on the proposed measurement and structural models. According to Malhotra *et al.* (2013:714), model fit is determined by comparing how closely the estimated covariance matrix $\sum k$ matches the observed (sample) covariance matrix S . Therefore, the model fit statistics are based on $|S - \sum k|$. The differences between the observed and estimated covariance matrices within SEM are referred to as a residual.

4.7.5.5 Model identification

When referring to model identification, it stresses whether there is sufficient information within the covariance matrix to be able to approximate a set of structural equations. For each unique variance or covariance among observed variables, one model parameter can be estimated. A maximum of $(p(p + 1))/2$ parameters can be estimated if there are p observed variables. The sum of all the unique covariances $(p(p - 1)/2)$ and all the variances p is therefore $(p(p + 1))/2 = (p(p - 1)/2) + p$. The model is over identified when the number of estimated parameters $(k) < (p(p + 1))/2$. One has positive degrees of freedom in such case. Contrariwise if $(k) > (p(p + 1))/2$, a unique solution cannot be found if the model is under identified. It is recommended that for each latent construct, a minimum of three observed variables is needed, this will help with model identification, which will result in an over identified model (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:714-715).

4.7.6 Conducting SEM

When conducting SEM, there are six steps involved. Step 1 is to define the individual constructs; step 2 is to develop and specify the measurement model. This is followed by step 3, which is to assess the measurement model validity; and step 4, which is when the

measurement model is valid, to specify the structural model. Step 5 includes the assessment of the structural model validity; and the last step, step 6 is, if the structural model is valid, to draw conclusions and make recommendations. Figure 4.3 indicates the process for structural equation modelling.

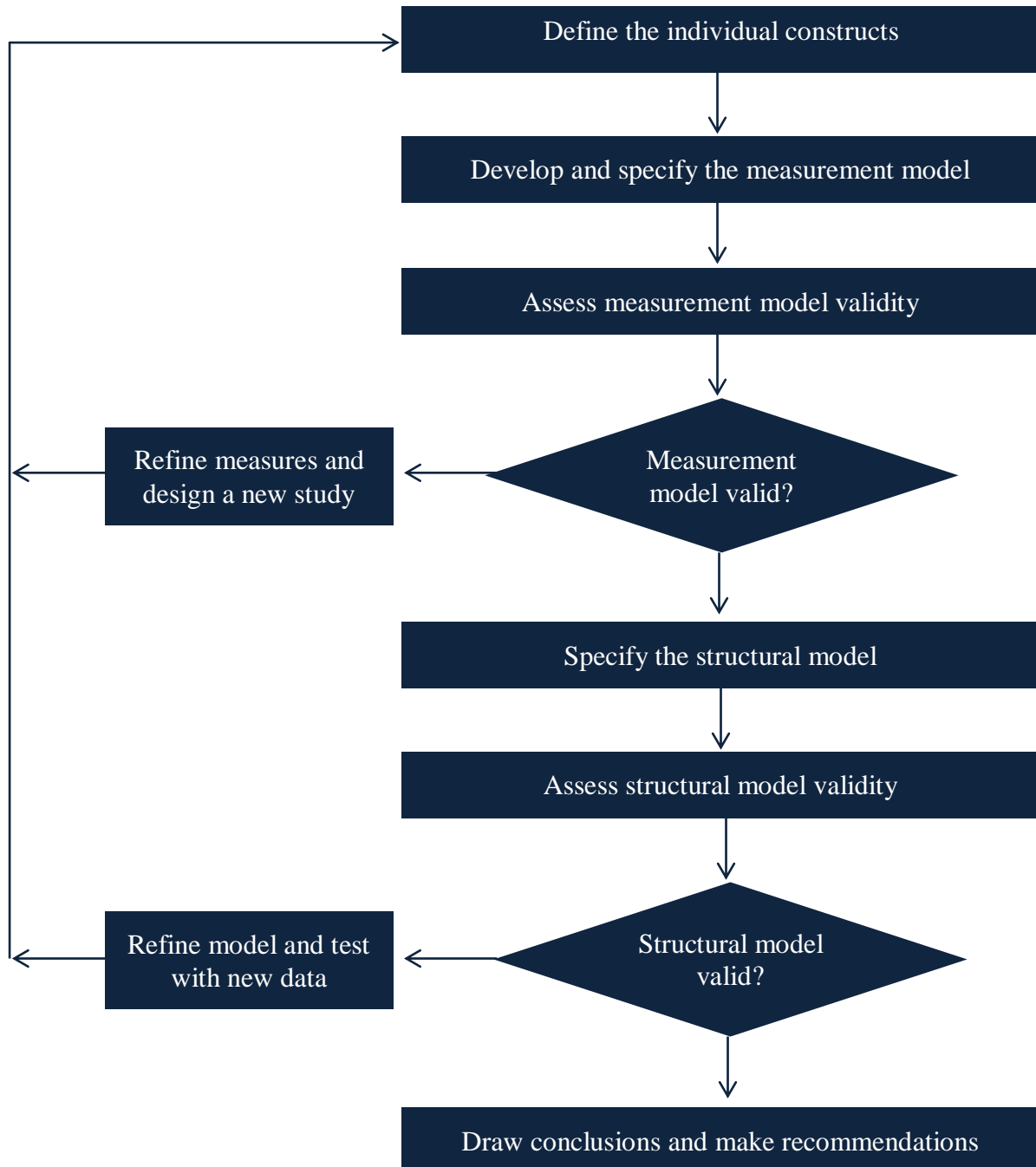


Figure 4.3: The process for Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Source: Malhotra et al. (2013:713)

4.7.6.1 Define the individual constructs

It is vital for SEM analysis to be based on theory. Therefore, all constructs that are to be defined and measured, as well as their interrelationships with each other, are to be grounded

in theory (Lei & Wu, 2007:35). When conducting SEM, both the measurement theory and the structural theory are tested. The difference being that measurement theory stipulates how the constructs are represented and the structural theory suggests the interrelation of these constructs with each other. The structural relationships are then changed to hypotheses, which are tested using SEM. Only if the measurement model (representing the constructs) is valid, the hypotheses are valid too. The operationalising, measuring and scaling of the relevant variables according to theory is to be considered carefully. This process' outcomes are those of scales, which are used to measure the observed variables and indicators (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:715).

4.7.6.2 Develop and specify the measurement model

A measurement model can be specified once the constructs have been defined and their variables have been measured. Each latent construct is then assigned a relevant measured variable. Figure 4.4 portrays a path diagram of a simple measurement model. Within this diagram each construct is represented by three indicator or measured variables. Assigning measured variables to each latent construct, is graphically comparable to the drawing of arrows between each construct and its measured variables, which represent the construct. The variables' loadings represent the relationship between the construct and the measured variable. These loadings are estimated, whereas all other loadings are set to zero. The error term that is added for a measured variable is not always explained flawlessly by a latent factor. Within a measurement model, exogenous and endogenous constructs are seen as equals, since no differentiation is made between them (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:716).

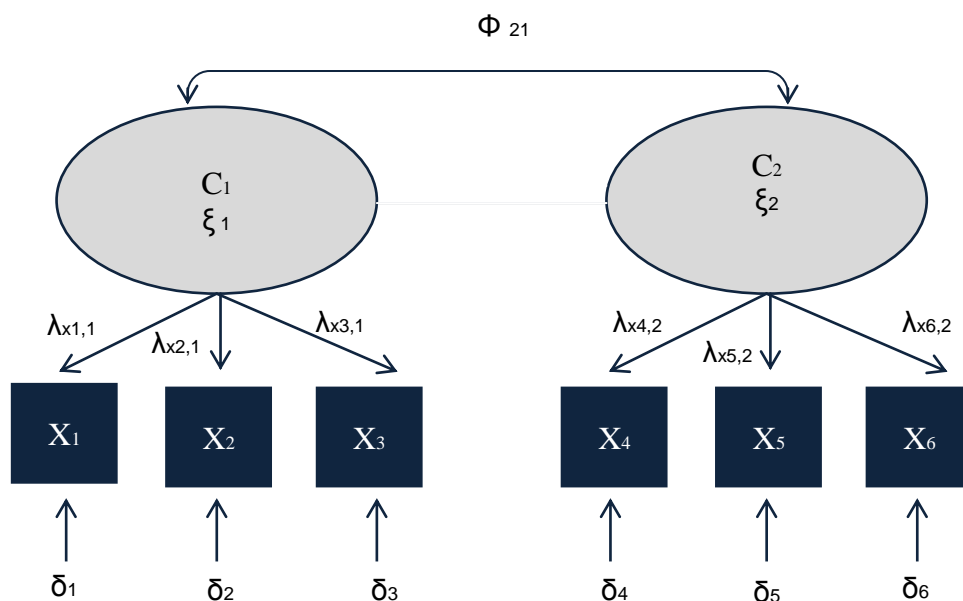


Figure 4.4: Path diagram of a simple measurement model

Source: Malhotra *et al.* (2013:716)

Measured variables are usually represented by alphabets and the constructs are typically characterised by Greek fonts. The common symbolisations used are the following: ξ = latent factors; X = measured variables; λ_x = factor loadings; δ = errors and ϕ = correlation between constructs.

There are two types of parameters. Fixed parameters whose value is set by the researcher and not measured by SEM; and free parameters whose values are estimated with SEM. Each parameter within the model should be indicated as being estimated or not. Usually a fixed parameter's value is set at zero; this indicates that the relationship is not estimated. No metric scale or no range of values is present since the latent construct is not examined. Two options may therefore be used to provide these values. Firstly, a factor loading to the value of one may be fixed and, secondly, a fixed construct variance to the value of one could occur (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:716).

4.7.6.3 Assess measurement model validity

The fit of the model, also known as the goodness-of-fit, should be determined to see how well the data that was obtained is supported by the theoretical model (Schumaker & Lomax, 2010:63; Hoyle, 2012:10; Hancock & Mueller, 2010:379). In other words, how comparable is the estimated covariance of the indicator variables (\sum_k) to the observed covariance in the sample (S)? The closer the two values of the matrices, the better the fit of the model. According to Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010:669) and Hoyle (2012:204-212), different goodness-of-fit (GFI) indices are used to determine a model's fit. Three types of fit measures, as indicated by Malhotra *et al.* (2013:717), exist. These three indices include absolute, incremental and parsimony fit indices (see Figure 4.5). These indices directly measure how well the identified model replicates the experiential or sample data. The desire therefore is high values for these measures. Although different indices exist, not all of them were used within this study and therefore only those that were used within this study will be discussed.

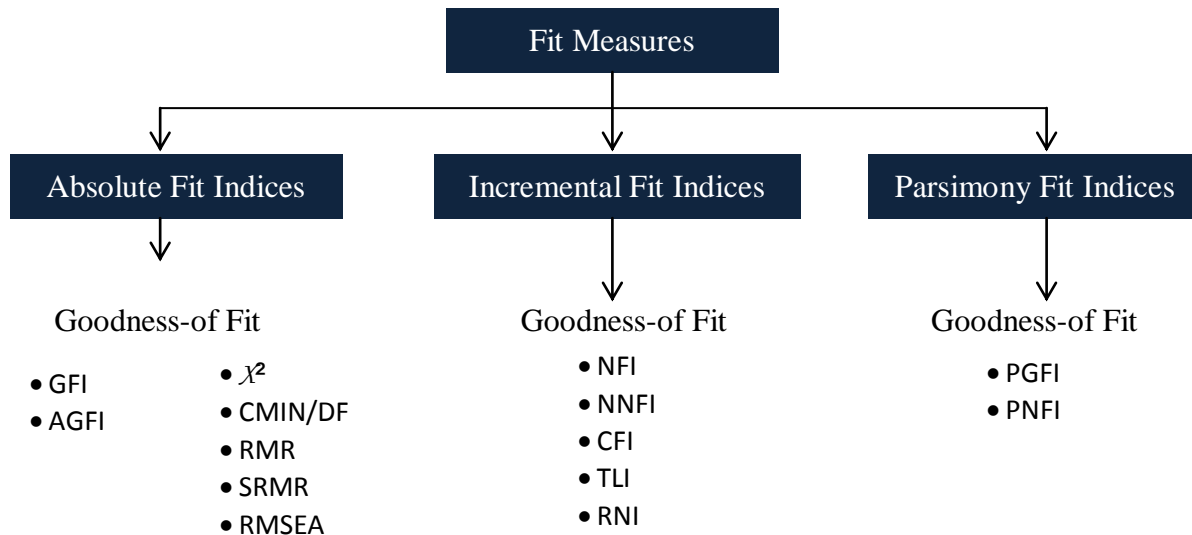


Figure 4.5: A Classification of Fit Measures

Source: Malhotra et al. (2013:717) and Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen (2008:53-56)

4.7.6.3.1 Absolute Fit Indices

Absolute fit indices assess the overall inconsistency between observed and implied covariance matrices (Hancock & Mueller, 2010:379). The most common measures used are the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and the adjusted-goodness-of-fit index (AGFI). The absolute fit indices include chi-square (χ^2), root mean square residual (RMR), standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). For the purposes of this study’s structural equation modelling, the absolute fit indices that were used included chi-square (χ^2), relative / normed chi-square (CMIN/DF), and RMSEA (Malhotra et al., 2013:718; Hooper et al., 53-55). Hooper et al. (2008:53-55) explained these absolute fit indices as follows.

- Chi-square (χ^2) and CMIN/DF

This is a traditional fit measure for assessing overall model fit. According to Hu and Bentler (1999:2), it “assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices”. Acceptable threshold levels are low for χ^2 is relative to degrees of freedom with an insignificant p-value ($p > 0.05$). Although chi-square could have some limitations, researchers have developed another fit index (CMIN/DF), which helps reduce the impact of sample size on the model chi-square. Acceptable threshold levels for CMIN/DF is (3:1) according to Kline (2005), as cited by Hooper et al. (2008:58).

- RMSEA

This fit index is seen as one of the most informative fit indices (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000:85). It indicates how well the model with unidentified, but optimally selected parameter estimates, would fit the populations' covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998 as cited by Hooper *et al.* (2008:54). The RMSEA's acceptable threshold should be values <0.08 (Hooper *et al.*, 2008:54).

4.7.6.3.2 Incremental Fit Indices

Incremental fit indices are also known as comparative or relative fit indices. Contradicting absolute fit indices, incremental fit indices measure how well the identified model fits the sample data comparative to some alternative model that is treated as a baseline model (Hancock & Mueller, 2010:379). The type of baseline model commonly used is the null model, which is valueless and is based on the hypothesis that the experiential variables are uncorrelated. These indices are goodness-of-fit measures and include the normed fit index (NFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI), comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) and the relative non-centrality index (RNI) (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:718). However, the following incremental fit index was applied the structural equation modelling of this study.

- CFI (Comparative fit index)

The comparative fit index assumes that all latent variables are uncorrelated and compares the sample covariance matrix with this null model. Values closer to 1.0 indicates a good fit and this fit measure is least affected by sample size (Hooper *et al.*, 2008:55).

4.7.6.3.3 Parsimony Fit Indices

Parsimony fit indices are beneficial in assessing competing models and are intended to measure fit in relation to model difficulty or complexity (Hancock & Mueller, 2010:379). If models have few parameters, with a relative large degree of freedom, they are usually high in parsimony or simplicity, whereas models with many parameters and few degrees of freedom are lacking in parsimony and seen as being complex (Arbuckle, 2006:532). These indices are goodness-of-fit measures and can be enhanced by an improved fit or by a humbler, less complex, model that approximates fewer parameters. These indices are grounded on the parsimony ratio which is calculated as the ratio of degrees of freedom used by the model to the total degrees of freedom available. The most regularly used parsimony indices are the parsimony goodness-of-fit index (PGFI) and the parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:718). The possibility of obtaining parsimony fit could be in the region of 0.50 (Muleik *et al.*, 1989 as cited by Hooper *et al.*, 208:55). No parsimony fit indices were used in conducting the SEM model for this study.

Different values of fit therefore occur, ranging between one, which indicates a complete fit; and zero, which signifies no fit (Hershberger, Marcoulides & Parramore, 2003:18-19).

4.7.6.4 Specify the structural model

Once the validity of the measurement model has been established, the specification of the structural model can be done. Within this step of SEM, the relationships from one construct are assigned to another as allocated in the recommended theoretical model. Therefore, the relationships between different constructs will be determined as indicated in the proposed hypothesis (Hair *et al.*, 2010:673). The importance of the relationships between latent constructs and the experiential variables shifts towards the nature and magnitude of the relationships between constructs when moving from the measurement model to the structural model. The measurement model is therefore transformed based upon the relationships amongst the latent constructs. Because the model is changed, it will also lead to a change in the covariance matrix, which is based on the set of relationships under investigation. The observed covariance matrix, which is based on the sample data, does not undergo change, since the exact data is used to estimate the structural model (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:722).

When the structural model is specified, the estimation of the factor loadings, the error variances and the structural parameters are needed. Any inconsistencies (differences larger than 0.05) can be identified through comparing the structural models' estimates to those of the measurement model. This allows the use of the measurement model fit as a foundation for evaluating the structural model fit. Another approach could be to use the estimates of error variances and factor loadings, which were obtained in the measurement model as fixed parameters in the structural model. However, this approach is not recommended since the change in fit between the measurement model and the structural model is not necessarily due to problems with the structural theory, but could be due to problems within the measurement theory (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:722).

4.7.6.5 Assess structural model validity

When assessing the structural model's validity, it measures how well the theorised constructs of the researcher relate to reality. According to Thetsane (2010:27) and Whitman and Woszczyński (2004:56), this is completed by determining how well the structural model fits the experiential data to the degree that equilibrium is reached between the empirical covariance matrix and the model-implied covariance matrix. Three steps are involved when the validity of the structural model is assessed. These are assessing the fit, comparing the

suggested structural model with competing models and testing the hypothesised structural relationships. These will be discussed next.

4.7.6.5.1 Assessing fit

A recursive structural model has fewer relationships than a measurement model from which it is imitated. Therefore, moderately smaller numbers of parameters are projected in a structural model. This means that the chi-square (χ^2) value of a recursive structural model cannot be inferior to that in the conforming measurement model. Hence, a recursive structural model cannot have a superior fit to the measurement model. Therefore, the measurement model's fit provides a higher guarantee to the goodness-of-fit of a structural model. Striving towards a better fit of a structural model to a measurement model's fit is the ideal. Again, the same fit indices explained earlier are used in assessing the fit of the structural model to that of the measurement model (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:723).

4.7.6.5.2 Comparison with competing models

Although having a good fit is important, the proposed structural model should show that it has a superior fit to that of competing models, which could be considered as alternatives. Even if the model has a good fit, the covariance matrix (sample data) is not necessarily best explained by the proposed theory or structural model. Malhotra *et al.* (2013:723) explains that the structural model is therefore not always seen as the only true explanation of the data since other models may have a better fit. The proposed model can be compared to competing models by means of the differences in its chi-square (χ^2) values, as well as parsimony and incremental fit indices. If the structural model's fit is considerably inferior to the fit of the measurement model, the validity of the structural theory is dubious. Contradicting this, if the structural model's fit is not significantly lower or inferior to the measurement model's fit, the validity of structural theory is confirmed.

4.7.6.5.3 Testing the hypothesised relationships

Theoretical relationships are usually converted into hypotheses that can be tested experimentally. The validity of the structural theory depends on the degree to which these hypotheses are supported within the SEM analysis. The assessed parameter for a hypothesised relationship ought to be statistically substantial and have the correct sign. Likewise, the endogenous construct's variance explained estimates should be examined. If the nomological legitimacy of a newly established scale is examined by using SEM, the hypotheses are substituted by known relationships that are empirically examined to offer support for nomological validity (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:723).

4.7.6.6 Draw conclusions and make recommendations

Once the assessment of the measurement model and structural model is proved to be valid, conclusions and recommendations can be made. The CFA analysis can be used to help reach conclusions and if the scale has been proven to be reliable and valid, it should be used in additional research. The implications of these relationships, which may be significant and meaningful; and whose assessed structural parameters are supported, should be discussed. Finally, suitable recommendations could be made, which are built on these implications (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:724).

4.8 CONCLUSION

In this methodological summary it is clear that various research methods were implemented. The main objective of this chapter was to summarise the different methodological methods that exist and explain those that formed part of this research's methodology. In doing this in-depth methodological summary, this chapter allows understanding of the exact actions and procedures that were followed in conducting this research; and how the framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination was developed. In doing so, the validity of the developed framework could be measured and examined to know its exact fit to the data. The following chapter contains the empirical results.

CHAPTER 5:

EMPIRICAL RESULTS



What gets measured gets managed. – Peter Drucker

5.1 INTRODUCTION

To contribute to the growth of literature, it is important to conduct research, report the findings and disseminate the information. The purpose of this chapter is to portray this study's research results. This will be done by applying the various techniques which were described in detail in the previous chapter. In this chapter, the findings are portrayed and discussed, which allowed for the systematic development of the framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination.

The questionnaires were distributed at the largest and busiest International Airport in Africa and 451 completed questionnaires were included in the final analyses of the data. The data was captured in Excel and analysed in SPSS. Statistical methods such as factor analyses, ANOVAs, *t*-tests and Structural Equation Modelling were implemented to achieve the empirical goals of this study. This chapter consists of three main sections: the descriptive results, the exploratory results and the inferential results.

Firstly, attention is given to the demographic profile of respondents.

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS

The purpose of the descriptive results is to discuss the findings concerning the demographic profile of respondents, the respondents' travel behaviour whilst visiting South Africa and the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. These results also include aspects influencing the image of South Africa and the respondents' perceptions concerning South Africa. Descriptive statistics indicate the meaning of the data.

5.2.1 Demographic profile of respondents

The demographic information came from of Section A in the questionnaire and included questions 1 to 12. The following results are evident:

Table 5.1: Demographic information frequencies

Demographic Aspects	Percentage	Demographic Aspects	Percentage	Demographic Aspects	Percentage
Gender:		Age:		Continent:	
Male	60%	<19years	4%	Africa	34%
Female	40%	20-24 years	12%	Australia & Oceania	9%
		25-34 years	26%	North-America	29%
		35-49 years	27%	South-America	0%
		50-64 years	20%	Europe	22%
		65+ years	11%	Asia	6%
				Antarctica	0%
Level of education:		Marital status:		Occupation:	
No school	0%	Single	27%	Professional	23%
Matric /Grade 12	10%	In a relationship	12%	Management	12%
Diploma/Degree	46%	Engaged	2%	Self-employed	9%
Post-Graduate	40%	Married	54%	Technical	10%
Other	4%	Divorced	3%	Sales	2%
		Widow/er	2%	Administrative	4%
				Civil service	3%
				Education	8%
				Pensioner	7%
				Student	15%
				Other	7%

5.2.1.1 Gender

Table 5.1 portrays the demographic frequencies derived from the collected data. According to these results, 60% of the respondents were male 40% were female, thus a well-balanced profile in terms of gender.

5.2.1.2 Age

Table 5.1 shows that the largest group of respondents (27%) were between 35 and 49 years of age, followed by the age category of 25-34 years (26%). The age category 50-64 years was next (20%). Twelve percent (12%) of the respondents were between the ages of 20 and 24 and 11% represented the age category of 65 years and older. Only four percent (4%) of the respondents were younger than 19 years of age. The average age of the respondents of this survey who visited South Africa during August 2013 was 40.02 years.

5.2.1.3 Continent of residence

The majority of respondents, (34%), indicated that their continent of residence was Africa, followed by 29% residing in North America and 22% were from European countries. Nine percent (9%) were from Australia and Oceania and a mere 6% were from Asia. None of the respondents' continent of residence was that of South America or Antarctica (see Table 5.1).

5.2.1.4 Level of education

Eighty-six percent (86%) of the respondents were well educated with 46% having a diploma/degree and 40% a post-graduate qualification. Ten percent (10%) of the respondents hold a grade 12 certificate. Four percent (4%) indicated that they had other qualifications, which included having a trade certificate and an International Baccalaureate. None of the respondents selected the option of no schooling (see Table 5.1).

5.2.1.5 Marital status

According to Table 5.1, the majority (54%) of respondents were married, while 27% were single, 12% were in a relationship and 3% were divorced. Two percent (2%) were widowed and /or engaged respectively.

5.2.1.6 Occupation

As portrayed in Table 5.1, 23% of the respondents indicated that they were following a professional occupation, followed by fifteen percent 15% who were students, 12% were in management positions and 10% were in technical occupations. Nine percent (9%) of the respondents indicated that they were self-employed, 8% were educators and 7% were pensioners. The respondents that were in sales 2%, administrative (4%) and civil service (3%) type of occupations accounted for 9%. Other occupations (7%) included chefs, air traffic controllers, farmers, florists, housewives, military, musicians, nurses, pastors, researchers and waitresses.

Therefore respondents were primarily married (54%), men (60%) between the ages of 35-49 years (27%) who reside in Africa (34%) with a tertiary qualification such as a diploma or degree (46%) and in a professional occupation (23%).

5.2.2 Travel behaviour whilst visiting South Africa

Table 5.2: Travel behaviour

Travel behaviour aspects	Percentage	Travel behaviour aspects	Percentage	Travel behaviour aspects	Percentage
Type of accommodation:		Times visited South Africa:		Mode of transport:	
Family & friends	Yes:34% No:66%	First time	39%	Airplane	Yes:99% No:1%
Guesthouse /B&B	Yes:24% No:76%	2-3 Times	20%	Rental car	Yes:77% No:23%
Hotels	Yes:53% No:47%	4-5 Times	8%	Bus	Yes:59% No:41%
Backpackers	Yes:7% No:93%	5 Times +	29%	Train	Yes:30% No:70%
Lodges	Yes:28% No:72%	Other	4%	Other	Yes:17% No: 83%
Other	Yes:9% No:91%				
Number of people in travel group:		Number of people paying for:		Spending behaviour:	
1 Person	43%	No Persons	6%	Airplane tickets	R13 604.73
2 People	29%	1 Person	53%	Accommodation	R8 008.66
3 People	8%	2 People	28%	Activities	R3 551.12
4 People	6%	3 People	6%	Souvenirs	R1 036.42
5 People	2%	4 People	3%	Other transport & travel costs	R2 019.83
6 People	2%	5+ People	4%	Retail shopping	R2 009.98
7 People	1%			Food and drink	R1 786.74
8 People	1%			Other	R661.91
9 People	1%			Total average spend	R32 679.39
10+ People	7%				
Main reason for visiting South Africa:		Heard about South Africa:		Length of stay:	
Holiday/Leisure	Yes:49% No:51%	Television	Yes:28% No:72%	Less than a week	22%
Business	Yes:30% No:70%	Radio	Yes:9% No:91%	1-2 Weeks	39%
				3-4 Weeks	21%

Visit friends & family	Yes:26%	Internet website	Yes:25%	More than a month	15%
	No:74%		No:75%		
Sport	Yes:2%	Newspapers	Yes:12%	Other	3%
	No:98%		No:88%		
Shopping	Yes:6%	Word of mouth	Yes:53%		
	No:94%		No:47%		
Adventure	Yes:10%	Social media sites	Yes:6%		
	No:90%		No:94%		
Culture/Historic	Yes:3%	Travel agent	Yes:15%		
	No:97%		No:85%		
Medical	Yes:2%	Travel guide	Yes:14%		
	No:98%		No:86%		
Other	Yes:13%	Other	Yes:18%		
	No: 87%		No:82%		

5.2.2.1 Type of accommodation

Table 5.2 indicates that the types of accommodation used in South Africa by the majority of respondents (53%) were hotels, followed by 34% staying with family and friends, 28% staying in lodges and 24% made use of the guesthouse or bed and breakfast options. Nine percent (9%) indicated that they made use of other types of accommodation which included camping, hostels, sanctuaries and /or national parks, rented accommodation and villages.

5.2.2.2 Number of previous visits to South Africa

Thirty-nine percent (39%) of the respondents were first-time visitors to South Africa, while 20% had visited the country between two and three times before. Twenty nine percent (29%) have visited South Africa more than five times and 8% have visited South Africa between four and five times. Only four percent (4%) indicated that they visited South Africa more than the above-mentioned options, ranging between 10 and 50 times. On average, the respondents visited South Africa 2-3 times (see Table 5.2).

5.2.2.3 Mode of transport to and in South Africa

The largest group of respondents made use of air transport (99%) to reach South Africa, although the survey was amongst international visitors to South Africa and the majority of respondents had made use of air transport. One percent (1%) indicated that they had not made use of air transport, possibly an indication that they came from neighbouring countries and accessed South Africa by road. During their stay, 77% chose to travel by rental car, followed bus transport 59% and then by railway transport 30%. Seventeen percent (17%) chose other modes of transport and these included company car, private transport, which

included vehicles belonging to family or friends, shuttle services, motorcycles, taxis and water transport/boat (see Table 5.2).

5.2.2.4 Number of people in travel group

Table 5.2 also indicates the number of people that formed part of the respondents' travel group. Forty-three percent (43%) of the respondents travelled alone, whilst 29% travelled with a partner. Eight percent (8%) travelled in a group of three people and 6% had four people in their travel group. Fourteen percent (14%) travelled in groups of five and more people. The average for the travel group size was 3.65 per travel group, which is possibly indicative of some travel groups consisting of a very large number of people.

5.2.2.5 Number of people paying for

The majority of respondents (53%) paid for themselves, followed by those who paid for two people 28%. Six percent (6%) of the respondents each paid for three and no persons, respectively. Three percent (3%) paid for four persons and only 4% paid for more than 5 people. The average number of people paid for was 1.74 (see Table 5.2).

5.2.2.6 Spending behaviour

The respondents' average spending is portrayed in Table 5.2. The average spending comprised the following aspects. Airplane tickets (R13 604.73); accommodation (R8 008.66); activities (R3 551.12); souvenirs (R1 036.42); other transport and travel related costs (R2 019.83); retail shopping that excluded food and drink (R2 009.98); food and drink (R1 786.74); and other expenses (R661.91). Other expenses identified by the respondents included medical expenses, hunting costs, cellphone and airtime costs, tips and donations. The total average spending is therefore R32 679.39 per travel group and the average per person spending was R18 781.25.

5.2.2.7 Main reason for visiting South Africa

The main reason respondents visited South Africa was for holiday and leisure (49%), followed by travelling for business (30%) and visiting friends and family (26%). Ten percent (10%) of the respondents visited South Africa for adventure reasons, 6% for shopping and 3% indicated that they had visited the country for cultural and historic reasons. Two percent (2%) respectively had medical and sport reasons for visiting. Thirteen percent (13%) of the respondents indicated that they had visited South Africa for other reasons, which included hunting, religious reasons, adoption, internships, photography and research (see Table 5.2).

5.2.2.8 Heard about South Africa

From Table 5.2, it is clear that the best marketing tool for South Africa is word of mouth through friends and family (53%), followed by television (28%). Other marketing tools included internet websites (25%), travel agents (15%) and travel guides (14%). Ninety-four percent (94%) of the respondents indicated that they had not heard about South Africa via social media, 91% had not heard about the country on the radio, while 88% had not heard about South Africa through newspapers. Eighteen percent (18%) of the respondents indicated that they heard about South Africa through other means, which included previous visits, born in South Africa, missionary work, books and university.

5.2.2.9 Length of stay

As reflected in Table 5.2, the single largest group (39%) of respondents indicated that they stayed for one to two weeks, followed by those who stayed for less than a week (22%) and those staying for three to four weeks (21%). Fifteen percent (15%) of the respondents indicated that their stay was for longer than a month; and 3% indicated that their stay was between six months and two years.

Therefore respondents were mostly first-time visitors (39%) that arrived by means of air transport (99%), who rented a car (77%) as mode of transport and chose to stay in hotels (53%) during their visit. The respondents mainly travelled alone (43%) and paid for one person (53%). Their spending per person was R18 781.25 and their total average spending per group was R32 679.39. The main reason that respondents visited South Africa was for holiday and /or leisure purposes (49%); they heard about South Africa through word of mouth (53%) and visited the country for 1-2 weeks (39%).

5.2.3 The image of South Africa as tourism destination

These results were formulated from Section B in the questionnaire and consisted of questions 13 and 14.

5.2.3.1 Cognitive image attributes

Table 5.3 indicates the cognitive image attributes of South Africa as a tourism destination. These were rated by respondents on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1= extremely poor, 2= below average, 3= average, 4= above average and 5= excellent.

Table 5.3: Cognitive image attributes

Cognitive image attributes	Extremely poor	Below average	Average	Above average	Excellent
1. The weather or climate of South Africa	0%	3%	25%	43%	29%
2. South Africa's nature	0%	1%	11%	35%	53%
3. The fauna and flora of South Africa	0%	3%	16%	34%	47%
4. The season in which I visited South Africa	1%	6%	27%	40%	26%
5. Roads and roadworks in South Africa	1%	14%	31%	30%	24%
6. Airports within South Africa	0%	2%	25%	40%	33%
7. Transport within South Africa	2%	12%	37%	35%	14%
8. Health services supplied by South Africa	2%	10%	39%	35%	14%
9. Development within South Africa	1%	13%	33%	38%	15%
10. Accommodation facilities of South Africa	1%	2%	22%	53%	22%
11. Restaurants in South Africa	0%	2%	23%	50%	25%
12. Accessibility to and in South Africa	1%	3%	32%	44%	20%
13. Excursions within South Africa	0%	2%	19%	51%	28%
14. Tourist centres	1%	4%	32%	43%	20%
15. Tourist information	0%	5%	31%	41%	23%
16. Attractions within South Africa	1%	1%	14%	45%	39%
17. Entertainment within South Africa	1%	4%	33%	36%	26%
18. Sports events in South Africa	1%	3%	35%	37%	24%
19. Adventure activities in South Africa	0%	2%	18%	42%	38%
20. Shopping facilities	1%	4%	25%	41%	29%
21. Night life of South Africa	4%	9%	40%	32%	15%
22. Cultural attractions in South Africa	1%	4%	27%	43%	25%
23. Historical attractions within South Africa	1%	5%	30%	38%	26%
24. Arts and cultural events in South Africa	1%	3%	34%	40%	22%
25. South African souvenirs	1%	3%	33%	42%	21%
26. South Africans' quality of life	3%	16%	44%	29%	8%
27. Political stability of South Africa	4%	22%	44%	23%	7%
28. Economic development of South Africa	4%	16%	40%	30%	10%
29. Safety in South Africa	14%	38%	32%	11%	5%
30. Affordability of South Africa as a	2%	7%	36%	39%	16%

tourism destination					
31. The South African exchange rate	2%	8%	35%	34%	21%
32. The travelling distance to South Africa	6%	16%	37%	29%	12%
Africa					
33. Cleanliness of South Africa	4%	17%	38%	30%	11%
34. Flow of traffic within South Africa	3%	18%	43%	27%	9%
35. Air and noise pollution within South Africa	3%	15%	49%	25%	8%
Africa					
36. The significance of certain towns and cities in South Africa	1%	4%	43%	38%	14%
Africa					
37. The scenery within South Africa	0%	1%	18%	43%	38%
38. Service levels of South Africa	1%	8%	39%	38%	14%
39. Telecommunication within South Africa	4%	11%	37%	33%	15%
Africa					
40. Promotion/ Advertising/ Marketing of South Africa	2%	6%	41%	35%	16%
Africa					
41. Media reporting of South Africa	2%	11%	47%	28%	12%
42. Social media on South Africa	1%	11%	47%	30%	11%

The following cognitive image attributes were rated as above average to excellent, with percentages higher than 70%. These are portrayed from highest to lowest percentages. It is evident that nature-related cognitive image attributes were highly rated by the respondents which correlate with South Africa's main attraction being nature and wildlife.

- South Africa's nature 88%
- Attractions within South Africa 84%
- The fauna and flora of South Africa 81%
- The scenery within South Africa 81%
- Adventure activities in South Africa 80%
- Excursions within South Africa 79%
- Accommodation facilities of South Africa 75%
- Restaurants in South Africa 75%
- Airports within South Africa 73%
- The weather or climate of South Africa 72%
- Shopping facilities 70%

Only one cognitive image attribute was rated below average to extremely poor:

- Safety in South Africa 52%

Safety therefore remains a problem in South Africa and a concern for tourists travelling to and in South Africa. This could influence the image of South Africa negatively.

Respondents evaluated the following cognitive image attributes as average and therefore not poor or excellent. These include:

- Air and noise pollution within South Africa is... 49%
- Media reporting of South Africa is... 47%
- Social media on South Africa is... 47%
- South Africans' quality of life is... 44%
- Political stability of South Africa is... 44%
- Flow of traffic within South Africa is... 43%
- Economic development of South Africa is... 40%

These results clearly indicate where more development and awareness is needed in the eyes of the respondents. It is interesting to note the poor ratings of media reporting and social media which can therefore be improved. These are aspects that can be managed according to a specific message and purpose.

5.2.3.2 Affective image attributes

In Table 5.4 the affective image attributes related to the image of South Africa as a tourism destination are reflected. The respondents had to indicate, again on a 5-point Likert scale, to what degree they agreed or disagreed with the attributes, where 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= agree to some extent, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree.

Table 5.4: Affective image attributes

Affective image attributes	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree to some extent	Agree	Strongly agree
1. South Africans are friendly people	3%	5%	22%	41%	29%
2. Communicating with South Africans is easy	1%	8%	28%	45%	18%
3. There are many opportunities for fun in South Africa	1%	2%	20%	48%	29%
4. South Africa as a tourism destination has a good reputation	2%	4%	29%	43%	22%
5. South Africa offers opportunities for family holidays	1%	2%	27%	46%	24%

6. South Africa offers opportunities for relaxation	1%	2%	20%	49%	28%
7. South Africa offers opportunities for luxurious experiences	1%	2%	15%	46%	36%
8. South Africa is a must visit tourism destination	0%	4%	21%	40%	35%
9. South Africa is a stressful tourism destination	13%	32%	30%	16%	9%
10. South Africa has a lot to offer	1%	2%	16%	45%	36%
11. South Africa is an attractive and interesting destination	0%	1%	15%	42%	42%
12. I enjoyed visiting South Africa	1%	1%	9%	38%	51%

Respondents indicated that they agreed to some extent or strongly agreed, with the entire affective image attributes. These attributes all have percentages higher than 50% and are indicated from highest to lowest percentages:

- South Africa is an attractive and interesting destination 99%
- I enjoyed visiting South Africa 98%
- South Africa has a lot to offer 97%
- South Africa offers opportunities for luxurious experiences 97%
- South Africa offers opportunities for relaxation 97%
- South Africa offers opportunities for family holidays 97%
- There are many opportunities for fun in South Africa 97%
- South Africa is a must visit tourism destination 96%
- South Africa as a tourism destination has a good reputation 94%
- South Africans are friendly people 92%
- Communicating with South Africans is easy 91%

A total of 95.9% of the respondents agreed on positive affective image attributes.

- South Africa is a stressful tourism destination 55%

The only negative affective image attribute evident in Table 5.4 was that of South Africa being a stressful tourism destination, where more than half of the respondents (55%) agreed with it. This also correlates with the perceptions of South Africa as an unsafe tourism destination.

5.2.3.3 Conative image attributes

In Table 5.5, the conative attributes related to the image of South Africa as a tourism destination are reflected. The respondents had to indicate, again on a 5-point Likert scale, to what degree they agreed or disagreed with the attributes, where 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= agree to some extent, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree.

Table 5.5: Conative image attributes

Conative image attributes	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree to some extent	Agree	Strongly agree
I will return to South Africa	2%	3%	12%	35%	48%
I will invest in South Africa	14%	23%	27%	21%	15%
I will recommend South Africa to my friends and family	1%	2%	13%	35%	49%

Respondents indicated that they agree to some extent or strongly agree, with the following conative image attributes:

- I will recommend South Africa to my friends and family... 97%
- I will return to South Africa... 95%

Respondents are not that eager to invest in South Africa, with 63% who agreed to some extent or strongly agree with this statement. However, their willingness to recommend (97%) and return to South Africa (95%) is very positive.

Interestingly, the positive affective and conative image attributes were all rated with percentages above the positive cognitive image attributes, which shows that the respondents' feelings and reactions toward South Africa played a more important role in their image formation than the positive cognitive image attributes.

5.2.4 Aspects influencing the image of South Africa

On a 4-point Likert scale, the respondents were asked to rate whether the aspects in Table 5.6 had an influence on the image they have of South Africa, where 1= not at all, 2= very little, 3= somewhat and 4= to a great extent.

Table 5.6: Aspects influencing the image of South Africa

Aspects influencing	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	To a great extent
News /Media on South Africa	8%	17%	51%	24%
Family and friends (Word of mouth)	5%	11%	38%	46%
Famous icons (example Nelson Mandela)	9%	16%	31%	44%
Famous landmarks (example Table mountain /Robben Island)	7%	14%	35%	44%
Sport events within South Africa (example World Cup)	20%	21%	29%	30%
Business events within South Africa (example Conferences)	26%	28%	27%	19%
Culture events within South Africa (example Festivals)	22%	30%	33%	15%
Television programmes about South Africa in general	16%	25%	38%	21%
Television programmes about the history of South Africa	16%	23%	41%	20%
Nature programmes about South Africa	8%	12%	38%	42%
Political climate	15%	23%	40%	22%
Safety and Security	14%	20%	36%	30%
Immigrated South Africans	27%	24%	32%	17%
Movies	23%	31%	32%	14%
Internet	16%	25%	35%	24%

The aspects that were identified by the respondents as having somewhat or a great extent of influence on the image of South Africa were the following. All of these percentages were higher than 70% and are listed from highest to lowest percentages below:

- Family and friends (Word of mouth) 84%
- Nature programmes about South Africa 80%
- Famous landmarks (example Table mountain /Robben Island) 79%
- Famous icons (example Nelson Mandela) 75%
- News /Media on South Africa 75%

The aspects that were rated as having very little or no influence at all on the respondents' image of South Africa were the following. All of these percentages were more than 50%, which represents more than half of the respondents.

- Business events within South Africa (example Conferences) 54%
- Culture events within South Africa (example Festivals) 52%
- Immigrated South Africans 51%
- Movies 54%

The influence of personal messages in spreading the word about South Africa is evident, which has a direct influence on how visitors to this country are treated whilst visiting.

5.2.5 Perceptions of South Africa

The perception aspects which could have an influence on the respondents' image formation toward South Africa is portrayed in Table 5.7 and discussed next.

Table 5.7: Perceptions of South Africa

Perception Aspects	Percentage	Perception Aspects	Percentage	Perception aspects	Percentage
Negative experiences:		Feeling towards South Africa before visit:		Negative publicity:	
Yes	21%	Positive	88%	Yes	24%
No	79%	Negative	12%	No	76%
Perception after visit:		Attractions visited during stay:		Describe South Africa in One Word:	
Yes, Changed to be more:		National Parks	Yes:59%	Beautiful	10%
- Positive	48%		No:41%	Amazing	5%
- Negative	5%	Garden Route	Yes:18%	Wonderful	4%
No, Still positive	46%		No:82%	Diverse	4%
No, Still negative	1%	Cape Town V&A		Interesting	4%
		Waterfront	Yes:40%	Great	2%
			No:60%	Good	2%
		Johannesburg	Yes:64%	Other words	73%
			No:36%		

Robben Island	Yes:12%
	No:88%
The Winelands	Yes:20%
	No:80%
Soweto	Yes:19%
	No:81%
Cradle of Humankind	Yes:8%
	No:92%
Table Mountain	Yes:30%
	No:70%
Durban beachfront	Yes:17%
	No:83%
Sun City	Yes:20%
	No:80%
Cultural Villages	Yes:19%
	No:81%

5.2.5.1 Negative experiences in South Africa

Twenty-one percent (21%) of respondents indicated that they had a negative experience while visiting South Africa, whilst 79% did not. This correlates well with research done by the South African Tourism Strategic Research Unit, who found that the majority of tourists (88.1%) that visited South Africa during the last quarter of 2013 did not have any bad experiences during their visit to South Africa (South African Tourism Index, 2013:28). Some of these negative experiences included theft and violence, impolite attitudes towards them, harassment and corruption of police officers, poor service, strike at airport, poor infrastructure, racism, credit card fraud, beggars, unsafe driving (especially taxis) and language barriers (see Table 5.7).

5.2.5.2 Feelings towards South Africa before visiting

According to Table 5.7, 88% of the respondents had a positive feeling regarding South Africa before their visit and 12% had a negative feeling towards the country prior to their visit. Based on these results, it is evident that South Africa has a good reputation despite various negative events happening in the country.

5.2.5.3 Perceptions of South Africa after visiting

One of this study's aims was to determine how tourists perceived South Africa after visiting the country and whether their perception had changed after their visit. Forty-eight percent

(48%) of the respondents' perception had been changed to being more positive after visiting South Africa, whereas only 5% had changed to be more negative. Forty-six percent (46%) indicated that they still had a positive perception and 1% still had a negative perception.

Therefore, after the respondents had visited the country, 94%, which is an increase of 6% from before their visit, returned to their countries with a positive perception; and only 6% returned being negative, which indicates a decrease of 6%. Therefore 6% of the respondents, that had a negative perception before visiting South Africa, had a positive change in perception on their return and thus a visit to the country makes a difference in perceptions.

5.2.5.4 Negative publicity

The respondents were asked whether recent negative publicity had an effect on their image of the country. A total of twenty four percent (24%) of the respondents indicated that it did have an effect, whereas the majority of 76% stated that it had not affected their image of South Africa (see Table 5.7). This shows that publicity does impact image formation, but not as much as it is thought to have. Some negative publicity which had an effect during the time of the survey included the Oscar Pistorius case; rioting and strikes in the mining industry; the Marikana massacre; the police incident where a man was dragged behind their vehicle, resulting in his death; political news and corruption; farm killings; the Mandela family feud over funeral issues whilst he was still in hospital; xenophobia; rapes; and murders.

5.2.5.5 Attractions visited during stay

According to the results (see Table 5.7), the most popular attractions visited by the respondents included: Johannesburg (60%), National Parks (59%), Cape Town V&A Waterfront (40%), Table Mountain (30%), The Winelands (20%) and Sun City (20%). Attractions that were not visited by the respondents were the Cradle of Humankind (92%), Robben Island (88%), Durban beachfront (83%), the Garden Route (82%), Soweto (81%) and Cultural Villages (81%).

5.2.5.6 South Africa in one word

The respondents were asked to describe South Africa in one word and the words most used to describe the country were beautiful (10%), amazing (5%), wonderful (4%), diverse (4%), interesting (4%), great (2%) and good (2%). All other words that described South Africa had less than 1% representation per word, but some of these words included excellent, nice, nature, wild, unique, wildlife, potential, cool, majestic, lovely and fun. An overwhelming response in terms of positive words was evident. This correlates well with how the

respondents perceive South Africa. The only negative words used were: unsafe, problematic, political, dangerous and poor. Most of the describing words therefore had a positive connotation.

With regard to the respondents' perceptions of South Africa, the majority of the respondents did not have any negative experiences during their visit to South Africa (79%), neither did any recent negative publicity influence their perception (76%). Before visiting South Africa, most (88%) respondents had a positive feeling towards the country. After visiting South Africa, a 6% increase occurred amongst respondents, since 94% of the respondents returned with a positive perception. The main attraction visited by the respondents was Johannesburg and most respondents described South Africa with words that had a positive connotation.

Now that the descriptive results are better portrayed, the next section will focus on the exploratory results.

5.3 EXPLORATORY RESULTS

In this section, further analysis of the data will be discussed, which includes the comparisons of image factors with demographic and travel behaviour variables, the comparison of image factors with perceptions of South Africa, as well as the factors influencing the image of South Africa. Factors are divided into three groups: Cognitive (Cog); Affective (Aff) and Conative (Con).

5.3.1 Image of South Africa: Factor analysis

Table 5.8a: Principal axis factor analysis with Oblimin rotation for image factors

Image aspects	Factor loadings						
	Factor label	Cog: Tourism aspects	Cog: Quality of life (QOL)	Cog: People of South Africa	Cog: Seasonality	Cog: Culture and History	Con: Intention to react
<i>Cog: Tourism Aspects</i>							
Tourist information	0.704						
Tourist centres	0.618						
Excursions within South Africa	0.474						
Attractions within South Africa	0.471						
<i>Cog: Quality of life (QOL)</i>							
Political stability of South Africa		0.631					
Economic development of South Africa		0.629					
Safety in South Africa		0.524					
South Africans' quality of life		0.442					
Development within South Africa		0.421					
<i>Cog: People of South Africa</i>							
South Africans are friendly people			0.682				
Communicating with South Africans is easy			0.565				
<i>Cog: Seasonality</i>							
The season in which I visited South Africa				0.705			
The weather or climate of South Africa				0.686			
<i>Cog: Culture and History</i>							
Cultural attractions in South Africa					0.787		
Historical attractions in South Africa					0.734		
Arts and cultural events in South Africa					0.681		
South African souvenirs					0.261		

<i>Con: Intention to react</i>							
I enjoyed visiting South Africa							0.623
I will return to South Africa							0.608
I will recommend South Africa to my friends and family							0.593
I will invest in South Africa							0.508
South Africa is an attractive and interesting destination							0.378
<i>Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness</i>							
Flow of traffic within South Africa							-0.854
Air and noise pollution within South Africa							-0.695
Cleanliness of South Africa							-0.449
The significance of certain towns and cities in South Africa							-0.417
Cronbach's α reliability coefficient	0.83	0.82	0.70	0.71	0.83	0.78	0.80
Inter-item correlations	0.55	0.48	0.54	0.55	0.55	0.46	0.49
Mean value (standard deviation)	3.98 (\pm 0.66)	3.12 (\pm 0.75)	3.80 (\pm 0.82)	3.92 (\pm 0.77)	3.82 (\pm 0.69)	4.06 (\pm 0.68)	3.32 (\pm 0.73)

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Table 5.8b: Principal axis factor analysis with Oblimin rotation for image factors (continued)

Image aspects	Factor loadings						
	Factor label	<i>Cog: Marketing</i>	<i>Cog: Economic value</i>	<i>Aff: Feelings</i>	<i>Cog: Nature and scenery</i>	<i>Cog: Infrastructure and services</i>	<i>Cog: Excitement</i>
<i>Cog: Marketing</i>							
Media reporting of South Africa		0.752					
Social media on South Africa		0.749					
Promotion/Advertising/Marketing of South Africa		0.516					
Telecommunication within South Africa		0.343					
<i>Cog: Economic value</i>							
Affordability of South Africa as a tourism destination			0.722				
The South African exchange rate			0.597				
<i>Aff: Feelings</i>							
South Africa offers opportunities for family holidays				0.777			
South Africa offers opportunities for relaxation				0.760			
South Africa offers opportunities for luxurious				0.683			

experiences						
South Africa as a tourism destination has a good reputation			0.592			
There are many opportunities for fun in South Africa			0.382			
South Africa is a must visit tourism destination			0.305			
<i>Cog: Nature and scenery</i>						
The fauna and flora of South Africa			0.461			
South Africa's nature			0.409			
The scenery within South Africa			0.338			
The travelling distance to South Africa			0.284			
South Africa has a lot to offer			0.266			
Adventure activities in South Africa			0.227			
<i>Cog: Infrastructure and services</i>						
Restaurants in South Africa					-0.618	
Accommodation facilities of South Africa					-0.586	
Shopping facilities					-0.505	
Accessibility to and in South Africa					-0.488	
Roads and roadworks in South Africa					-0.390	
Airports within South Africa					-0.385	
Transport within South Africa					-0.345	
Health services supplied by South Africa					-0.329	
<i>Cog: Excitement</i>						
Sports events in South Africa						0.422
Entertainment in South Africa						0.400
Night life of South Africa						0.345
Cronbach's α reliability coefficient	0.86	0.67	0.88	0.71	0.84	0.69
Inter-item correlations	0.60	0.50	0.56	0.32	0.39	0.43
Mean value (standard deviation)	3.43 (\pm 0.78)	3.64 (\pm 0.81)	3.97 (\pm 0.69)	4.06 (\pm 0.57)	3.76 (\pm 0.60)	3.71 (\pm 0.79)

Table 5.9: Factor correlation matrix for image factors

Factor	Tourism aspects	QOL	People of South Africa	Seasonality	Culture and History	Intention to react	Effectiveness and cleanliness	Marketing	Economic value	Feelings	Nature and scenery	Infrastructure and services	Excitement
Tourism aspects	1.000	.078	.205	.296	.333	.259	-.253	.236	.297	.351	.211	-.271	.167
QOL	.078	1.000	.032	.023	.101	.067	-.367	.319	.066	.069	-.222	-.295	.158
People of South Africa	.205	.032	1.000	.216	.076	.252	-.007	-.058	.261	.266	.144	.066	.028
Seasonality	.296	.023	.216	1.000	.218	.294	-.219	.070	.288	.223	.169	-.220	.063
Culture and History	.333	.101	.076	.218	1.000	.311	-.226	.219	.296	.411	.137	-.265	.240
Intention to react	.259	.067	.252	.294	.311	1.000	-.186	.181	.350	.461	.087	-.231	.090
Effectiveness and cleanliness	-.253	-.367	-.007	-.219	-.226	-.186	1.000	-.448	-.184	-.200	.085	.448	-.094
Marketing	.236	.319	-.058	.070	.219	.181	-.448	1.000	.084	.225	-.126	-.408	.224
Economic value	.297	.066	.261	.288	.296	.350	-.184	.084	1.000	.396	.207	-.220	.003
Feelings	.351	.069	.266	.223	.411	.461	-.200	.225	.396	1.000	.197	-.267	.134
Nature and scenery	.211	-.222	.144	.169	.137	.087	.085	-.126	.207	.197	1.000	.005	-.067
Infrastructure and services	-.271	-.295	.066	-.220	-.265	-.231	.448	-.408	-.220	-.267	.005	1.000	-.115
Excitement	.167	.158	.028	.063	.240	.090	-.094	.224	.003	.134	-.067	-.115	1.000

A principal axis factor analysis with oblique rotation (direct Oblimin with Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Normalisation) was undertaken to examine the factors underlying the image factors scales (see Table 5.8a and Table 5.8b). The data used to perform the factor analysis was that of question 13 (both sections) in the questionnaire. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.916, which is highly acceptable (Field, 2005:633) with the Bartlett Test of Sphericity ($p < 0.000$) being significant. Thirteen factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Field, 2005:633) were generated from 57 image attributes. Sixty-six percent (66%) of the variance was explained by these factors. With regard to the factor correlation matrix (see Table 5.9) mostly small correlations were indicated; and this reflects independence amongst the factors.

The factors were labelled as follows:

- **Factor 1 = Cog: *Tourism aspects***

Factor 1 consists of four attributes including “Tourist information” with a factor loading of 0.704; “Tourist centres” with a factor loading of 0.618; “Excursions within South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.474 and “Attractions within South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.471. The Cronbach Alpha for this factor is 0.83, with an inter-item correlation of 0.55 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.98 (± 0.66).

- **Factor 2 = Cog: *Quality of life (QOL)***

Five attributes form part of factor 2 which is “Political stability of South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.631; “Economic development of South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.629; “Safety in South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.524; “South African’s quality of life” with a factor loading of 0.442 and “Development within South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.421. The factor’s Cronbach Alpha is 0.82, with an inter-item correlation of 0.48 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.12 (± 0.75).

- **Factor 3 = Cog: *People of South Africa***

Factor 3 includes two attributes which are “South Africans are friendly people” with a factor loading of 0.682 and “Communicating with South Africans is easy” which has a factor loading of 0.565. The factor’s Cronbach Alpha is 0.70 and it has an inter-item correlation of 0.54 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.80 (± 0.82).

- **Factor 4 = Cog: *Seasonality***

Two attributes form part of factor 4. These are “The season in which I visited South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.705 and “The weather or climate of South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.686. The factor’s Cronbach Alpha is 0.71 and has an inter-item correlation of 0.55 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.92 (± 0.77).

- **Factor 5= Cog: *Cultural and history***

With a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.83, an inter-item correlation of 0.55 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.82 (\pm 0.69), factor 5 consists of four attributes. These attributes include “Cultural attractions within South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.787; “Historical attractions within South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.734; “Arts and cultural events in South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.681 and “South African souvenirs” with a factor loading of 0.261.

- **Factor 6= Con: *Intention to react***

Factor 6, which is named Conative: Intention to return, consists of 5 attributes. These include “I enjoyed visiting South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.623; “I will return to South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.608; “I will recommend South Africa to my friends and family” with a factor loading of 0.593; “I will invest in South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.508 and “South Africa is an attractive and interesting destination” with a factor loading of 0.378. The factor has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.78, an inter-item correlation of 0.46 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 4.06 (\pm 0.68). This factor, together with factor 11 (nature and scenery) has the highest mean value, which is an important finding concerning the image of South Africa. The fact that respondents indicated such a positive and high mean value concerning these attributes, could have a great influence on the tourism industry of South Africa. This is because the respondents indicated that they will return to, recommend and invest in the country, as well as them enjoying visiting South Africa and finding the destination attractive and interesting.

- **Factor 7= Cog: *Effectiveness and cleanliness***

Factor 7 has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.80, an inter-item correlation of 0.49 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.32 (\pm 0.73) and consists of four attributes which include “Flow of traffic within South Africa” with a factor loading of -0.854; “Air and noise pollution within South Africa” with a factor loading of -0.695; “Cleanliness of South Africa” with a factor loading of -0.449 and “The significance of certain towns and cities in South Africa” with a factor loading of -0.417.

- **Factor 8= Cog: *Marketing***

Four attributes form part of factor 8. These attributes are “Media reporting of South Africa” which has a factor loading of 0.752; “Social media on South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.749; “Promotion/ Advertising/ Marketing of South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.516; and “Telecommunication within South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.343. Factor 8 has a

Cronbach Alpha of 0.86, an inter-item correlation of 0.60 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.43 (\pm 0.78).

- **Factor 9= Cog: *Economic value***

Factor 9 consists of two attributes and has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.67, an inter-item correlation of 0.50 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.64 (\pm 0.81). The two attributes include “Affordability of South Africa as a tourism destination” which has a factor loading of 0.722; and “The South African exchange rate” with a factor loading of 0.597.

- **Factor 10= Aff: *Feelings***

A total of six attributes form factor 10 and these are: “South Africa offers opportunities for family holidays” with a factor loading of 0.777; “South Africa offers opportunities for relaxation” which has a factor loading of 0.760; “South Africa offers opportunities for luxurious experiences” with a factor loading of 0.683; “South Africa as a tourism destination has a good reputation” with a factor loading of 0.592; “There are many opportunities for fun in South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.382 and “South Africa is a must visit tourism destination” which has a factor loading of 0.305. This factor has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.88, an inter-item correlation of 0.56 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.97 (\pm 0.69).

- **Factor 11= Cog: *Nature and scenery***

Factor 11 consists of six attributes, which include “The fauna and flora of South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.461; “South Africa’s nature” which has a factor loading of 0.409; “The scenery within South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.338; “The travelling distance to South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.284; “South Africa has a lot to offer” with a factor loading of 0.266 and “Adventure activities in South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.227. Factor 11 has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.71, an inter-item correlation of 0.32 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 4.06 (\pm 0.57). As in the case of factor 6: Con: intention to react, this factor also had the highest mean value, therefore respondents were very positive towards South Africa’s fauna and flora, scenery, nature, adventure activities, travelling distance to the country and what the country offers. Even though adventure activities had a low factor loading, it contributes significantly to this factor and its Cronbach Alpha value.

- **Factor 12= Cog: *Infrastructure and services***

The nine attributes comprising factor 12 are “Restaurants in South Africa” which has a factor loading of -0.618; “Accommodation facilities in South Africa” with a factor loading of -0.586; “Shopping facilities” with a factor loading of -0.505; “Accessibility to and in South Africa” with a factor loading of -0.488; “Roads and roadworks in South Africa” with a factor loading of -0.390; “Airports within South Africa” with a factor loading of -0.385; “Transport within South

Africa” with a factor loading of -0.345; “Health services supplied by South Africa” with a factor loading of -0.329. The factor’s Cronbach Alpha is 0.84, its inter-item correlation is 0.39 and its mean value (standard deviation) is 3.76 (\pm 0.60).

- **Factor 13= Cog: Excitement**

Factor 13 has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.69, an inter-item correlation of 0.43 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.71 (\pm 0.79). It consists of three attributes, which are “Sports events in South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.422; “Entertainment within South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.400; and “Night life of South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.345.

Two image attributes, “South Africa is a stressful tourism destination” with a factor loading of 0.235 and “Service levels of South Africa” with a factor loading of -0.222 was too small to form part of the factor analysis and was thus not included in the factors.

- The cognitive image factors consist of factors 1-5: *Tourism aspects; Quality of life; People of South Africa; Seasonality; Cultural and history*, factors 7-9: *Effectiveness and cleanliness; Marketing; Economic value* and factors 11-13: *Nature and scenery; Infrastructure and services and Excitement*.
- The affective image factors consist of one factor, factor 10, which is *Feelings*.
- The conative image factor consists of one factor, factor 6, which is *Intention to react*.

The following section focuses on the comparison of these image factors with the respondent’s demographic variables to determine which demographic variables influence respondents’ image perceptions of South Africa.

5.3.2 Comparison of image factors with demographic variables

This section analysed the differences in the importance of image factors for various demographic variables. ANOVAs (One-way analysis of variance) were conducted where more than two categories formed part of the question. *t*-tests were conducted to compare the image factors with questions consisting of only two categories. Spearman rank correlations were conducted to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between selected variables. No relationship at all is indicated by a correlation of 0.0, a perfect positive correlation is indicated by a value of 1.0 and a perfect negative correlation is indicated by a value of -1.0. These correlations were interpreted according to the guidelines of Cohen (1988) as cited by Ellis and Steyn (2003:52) that suggest: small rho= 0.10-0.29, medium rho= 0.30-0.49 and large rho= 0.50-1.0.

5.3.2.1 Comparison by gender

Independent sample *t*-tests were conducted by comparing the image factors with the gender of the respondents. Table 5.10 shows statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for male respondents and female respondents. No statistically significant differences or practical significant differences were indicated between affective or conative image factors. However, concerning one cognitive image factor, effectiveness and cleanliness, a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.012$) and a practical significant difference (0.25; small effect) occurred. Therefore men ($\bar{x} = 3.34$, $SD = 0.73$) rated effectiveness and cleanliness higher than woman ($\bar{x} = 3.21$, $SD = 0.70$).

Table 5.10: *t*-test for comparison of image factors and gender

Image factors	Male (N=270)	Female (N=176)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.96 (±.69)	4.01 (±.62)	1.661	.388	0.08
Cog: QOL	3.18 (±.79)	3.04 (±.69)	3.052	.068	0.17
Cog: People of South Africa	3.77 (±.82)	3.86 (±.82)	.226	.259	0.11
Cog: Seasonality	3.90 (±.77)	3.93 (±.79)	.118	.747	0.03
Cog: Culture & History	3.77 (±.71)	3.89 (±.66)	.224	.098	0.16
Con: Intention to react	4.03 (±.73)	4.10 (±.61)	3.858	.393	0.08
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	3.34 (±.73)	3.21 (±.70)	.558	.012	0.25
Cog: Marketing	3.46 (±.80)	3.40 (±.72)	.791	.393	0.08
Cog: Economic value	3.64 (±.82)	3.65 (±.79)	.010	.873	0.02
Aff: Feelings	3.93 (±.72)	4.03 (±.58)	7.933	.139	0.14
Cog: Nature & scenery	4.02 (±.60)	4.12 (±.52)	1.374	.054	0.18
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.80 (±.64)	3.70 (±.53)	4.281	.072	0.17
Cog: Excitement	3.65 (±.82)	3.80 (±.73)	.448	.063	0.19

5.3.2.2 Comparison by age

Spearman rank correlations were conducted to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between selected variables.

Table 5.11: Spearman rank order correlations between image factors and age

Image factors	Age	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Cog: Tourism aspects	-.043	.383
Cog: QOL	-.027	.592
Cog: People of South Africa	.134**	.006
Cog: Seasonality	.044	.363
Cog: Culture & History	-.139**	.006
Con: Intention to react	-.062	.208
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	.006	.896
Cog: Marketing	-.068	.182
Cog: Economic value	.033	.507
Aff: Feelings	-.024	.623
Cog: Nature & scenery	.013	.790
Cog: Infrastructure & services	.054	.267
Cog: Excitement	-.094	.070

As portrayed in Table 5.11, two correlations ($p < 0.05$) occur between cognitive image factors and age. No correlations are indicated between affective or conative image factors and age. The older the respondents were, the more positive they rated the friendliness and ease of communication with South African (People of South Africa) ($\rho = 0.134$; small correlation), however they rated culture and history more negatively with reference to attractions, souvenirs and events ($\rho = -0.139$; small correlation).

5.3.2.3 Comparison by continent of residence

Table 5.12 shows statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for continent of residence and the different image factors. Post-hoc Tukey tests were drawn which indicated the practical significant differences as well as the effect sizes concerning these differences. Eight statistically significant differences occurred between the cognitive image factors and the different continents where the respondents resided. Interestingly, no statistically significant differences occurred between conative or affective image factors.

The respondents residing in Asia ($\bar{x} = 3.65$, $SD = 0.79$) rated quality of life higher than those from North America ($\bar{x} = 2.82$, $SD = 0.72$) with an effect size (1.21; large effect); Australia and

Oceania (\bar{x} = 2.86, SD= 0.49) with an effect size (1.16; large effect) and Europe (\bar{x} = 2.84, SD=0.72) with an effect size (1.18; large effect). Africans also rated quality of life higher (\bar{x} =3.50, SD= 0.65) than the respondents from North America (\bar{x} = 2.82, SD= .72) with an effect size (0.99; large effect); Australia and Oceania (\bar{x} = 2.86, SD= 0.49) with an effect size (0.93; large effect) and Europe (\bar{x} = 2.84, SD= 0.72) with an effect size (0.96; large effect).

Africans rated people of South Africa the lowest (\bar{x} = 3.39, SD=0.86) and Asians rated it the highest (\bar{x} = 4.13, SD= 0.65) with an effect size (0.96; large effect). Europeans (\bar{x} = 4.05, SD= 0.69) with an effect size (0.87; large effect); Australia and Oceania (\bar{x} = 4.00, SD= 0.60) with an effect size (0.80; large effect) and North America (\bar{x} = 3.96, SD= 0.75) with an effect size (0.74; medium effect) rated people of South Africa higher than Africans, but lower than Asia.

Seasonality was rated the highest amongst Asia (\bar{x} = 4.18, SD= 0.66) and the lowest amongst Africans (\bar{x} = 3.70, SD= 0.87) with medium effect size (0.64; medium effect). Effectiveness and cleanliness was again rated the highest by Asia (\bar{x} = 3.93, SD= 0.84) and Europeans (\bar{x} = 3.10, SD= 0.67) with an effect size (1.20; large effect) rated it the lowest. Asians also rated it higher than respondents from Australia and Oceania (\bar{x} = 3.12, SD= 0.63) with an effect size (1.17; large effect); North America (\bar{x} = 3.13, SD= 0.70) with an effect size (1.17; large effect) and Europe (\bar{x} = 3.10, SD= 0.67) with an effect size (1.20; large effect). Effectiveness and cleanliness was also rated higher by Africans (\bar{x} = 3.56, SD= 0.67) than respondents of Australia and Oceania (\bar{x} = 3.12, SD= 0.63) with an effect size (0.63; medium effect); North America (\bar{x} = 3.13, SD= 0.70) with an effect size (0.63; medium effect) and Europe (\bar{x} = 3.10, SD= 0.67) with an effect size (0.66; medium effect).

Africans rated marketing the highest (\bar{x} = 3.85, SD= 0.68) and visitors from Australia and Oceania rated it the lowest (\bar{x} = 3.12, SD= 0.59) with a large effect size (1.03; large effect). Marketing differences also occurred between Africans and respondents from North America (\bar{x} = 3.17, SD= 0.76) with an effect size (1.00; large effect) and Europe (\bar{x} = 3.14, SD= 0.67) with an effect size (0.95; large effect). Respondents from Asia also rated marketing higher than those of Australia and Oceania (\bar{x} = 3.12, SD= 0.59) with an effect size (0.65; medium effect); North America (\bar{x} = 3.17, SD= 0.76) with an effect size (0.62; medium effect) and Europe (\bar{x} = 3.14, SD= 0.67) with an effect size (0.57; medium effect).

North America indicated that Economic value was the highest and Africa rated it the lowest (\bar{x} = 3.45, SD= 0.76). This makes sense since North America is a developed country and the Rand-Dollar exchange rates are affordable for Americans and not for Africans. Nature and scenery was rated the highest by North America (\bar{x} = 4.18, SD= 0.62) and the

lowest by Africa (\bar{x} = 3.93, SD= 0.56). Infrastructure and services were rated the lowest by Europe (\bar{x} = 3.48, SD= 0.56) and the highest by Africa (\bar{x} = 4.04, SD= 0.54) with an effect size (0.98; large effect). Differences between Africans (\bar{x} = 4.04, SD= 0.54) and respondents of Australia and Oceania (\bar{x} = 3.68, SD= 0.50) with an effect size (0.64; medium effect) and North America (\bar{x} = 3.59, SD= 0.62) with an effect size (0.79) occurred. An effect size (0.55; medium effect) was present between Asians (\bar{x} = 3.79, SD= 0.69) and European (\bar{x} = 3.48, SD= 0.56) respondents towards infrastructure and services.

This is a logical finding since most African countries are third world countries with poor infrastructure and services, South Africa being one of the better developed African countries. However, European countries are mostly first world countries and thus developed with excellent infrastructure and services. This table clearly confirms that respondents from different continents rate the factors differently and that there are statistical and practical significant differences.

Table 5.12: ANOVA for comparison of image factors by continent of residence

Image Factors	Africa (N=143)	Australia & Oceania (N=39)	North America (N=120)	Europe (N=92)	Asia (N=26)	F-value	P-value
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.93 (±.62)	3.98 (±.56)	4.09 (±.69)	3.95 (±.71)	3.85 (±.81)	1.207	.307
Cog: QOL	3.50 (±.65)	2.86 (±.49)	2.82 (±.72)	2.84 (±.72)	3.65 (±.79)	24.387	.000
Cog: People of South Africa	3.39 (±.86)	4.00 (±.60)	3.96 (±.75)	4.05 (±.69)	4.13 (±.65)	15.292	.000
Cog: Seasonality	3.70 (±.87)	3.86 (±.72)	4.05 (±.77)	3.99 (±.61)	4.18 (±.66)	4.841	.001
Cog: Culture and History	3.81 (±.72)	3.72 (±.72)	3.96 (±.71)	3.73 (±.66)	3.79 (±.67)	1.575	.180
Con: Intention to react	4.02 (±.66)	3.88 (±.67)	4.15 (±.72)	4.05 (±.67)	4.14(±.71)	1.393	.236
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.56 (±.67)	3.12 (±.63)	3.13 (±.70)	3.10 (±.67)	3.93 (±.84)	13.911	.000
Cog: Marketing	3.85 (±.68)	3.12 (±.59)	3.17 (±.76)	3.14 (±.67)	3.58 (±.92)	20.369	.000
Cog: Economic value	3.45 (±.76)	3.70 (±.78)	3.88 (±.80)	3.66 (±.84)	3.77 (±.92)	4.602	.001
Aff: Feelings	3.93 (±.63)	3.89 (±.70)	4.11 (±.67)	3.93 (±.61)	3.82 (±.80)	1.981	.097

Cog: Nature and scenery	3.93 (±.56)	4.10 (±.43)	4.18 (±.62)	4.06 (±.55)	4.05 (±.67)	3.273	.012
Cog: Infrastructure and services	4.04 (±.54)	3.68 (±.50)	3.59 (±.62)	3.48 (±.56)	3.79 (±.69)	16.513	.000
Cog: Excitement	3.81 (±.85)	3.61 (±.74)	3.74 (±.71)	3.54 (±.77)	3.77 (±.86)	1.620	.169

* *South America and Antarctica did not form part of these continents due to their N-values being less than 3*

5.3.2.4 Comparison by highest level of education

Spearman's rank correlation was used to test the association between the image factors and level of education.

Table 5.13: Spearman rank order correlations between image factors and level of education

Image factors	Age	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Cog: Tourism aspects	-.019	.701
Cog: QOL	-.012	.804
Cog: People of South Africa	.049	.310
Cog: Seasonality	.069	.147
Cog: Culture & History	.001	.979
Con: Intention to react	-.089	.069
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	.017	.727
Cog: Marketing	-.061	.227
Cog: Economic value	-.044	.371
Aff: Feelings	-.031	.521
Cog: Nature & scenery	-.011	.814
Cog: Infrastructure & services	-.024	.622
Cog: Excitement	-.084	.103

According to Tables 5.13, no significant correlations ($p < 0.05$) exist between level of education and cognitive, affective or conative image factors. Therefore level of education did not have an effect on image formation amongst the respondents.

5.3.2.5 Comparison by marital status

An ANOVA was conducted to compare the image factors with the marital status of the respondents and whether different marital states perceived the factors differently. Post-hoc Tukey tests indicated where the differences occurred as well as the effect sizes of these differences. No practical significant differences were indicated in these tests. However, according to Table 5.14 two cognitive image factors showed statistically significant differences when in association with marital status. These are quality of life and seasonality. Married respondents (\bar{x} = 3.19, SD= 0.75) rated quality of life higher than respondents in relationships or engaged (\bar{x} = 2.84, SD= 0.70). Seasonality was rated higher by divorcees and widows /widowers (\bar{x} = 4.15, SD= 0.68) as opposed to single respondents (\bar{x} = 3.76, SD= 0.78).

Table 5.14: ANOVA for comparison of image factors by marital status

Image Factors	Single	In a relationship or engaged	Married	Divorced or Widow/er	F-value	P-value
	(N=122)	(N=60)	(N=244)	(N=23)		
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.01 (±.74)	3.98 (±.64)	3.95 (±.63)	4.13 (±.61)	.596	.618
Cog: QOL	3.16 (±.77)	2.84 (±.70)	3.19 (±.75)	3.04 (±.76)	3.605	.014
Cog: People of South Africa	3.69 (±.80)	3.79 (±.84)	3.83 (±.84)	4.20 (±.55)	2.434	.064
Cog: Seasonality	3.76 (±.78)	3.97 (±.81)	3.96 (±.76)	4.15 (±.68)	2.671	.047
Cognitive: Culture and History	3.87 (±.78)	3.82 (±.75)	3.80 (±.64)	3.80 (±.59)	.285	.837
Con: Intention to react	4.07 (±.72)	4.07 (±.65)	4.04 (±.67)	4.06 (±.74)	.046	.987
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.31 (±.68)	3.21 (±.81)	3.36 (±.74)	3.35 (±.68)	.613	.607
Cog: Marketing	3.38 (±.74)	3.31 (±.89)	3.51(±.76)	3.25 (±.71)	1.791	.148
Cog: Economic value	3.63 (±.86)	3.69 (±.92)	3.61 (±.76)	3.90 (±.68)	.865	.459
Aff: Feelings	3.92 (±.72)	4.09 (±.66)	3.96 (±.65)	4.06(±.57)	.959	.412
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.02 (±.59)	4.12 (±.53)	4.04 (±.57)	4.28 (±.45)	1.670	.173

Cog:	3.67 (\pm .56)	3.67 (\pm .65)	3.82 (\pm .61)	3.89 (\pm .49)	2.574	.053
Infrastructure and services						
Cog: Excitement	3.67 (\pm .83)	3.80 (\pm .74)	3.70 (\pm .78)	3.78 (\pm .84)	.349	.790

5.3.2.6 Comparison by occupation

An ANOVA was performed to compare the image factors with the different occupations of the respondents and how the different occupations perceived these factors. Table 5.15 shows statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for occupation and the different image factors. Post-hoc Tukey tests were done, which indicated the practical significant differences as well as the effect sizes concerning these differences. No practical significant differences were indicated between any of the factors.

However, three statistically significant differences were identified with cognitive image factors and no statistically significant differences were identified for affective or conative image factors. The cognitive image factors were those of quality of life; infrastructure and services; and excitement. Self-employed respondents rated quality of life higher ($\bar{x} = 3.35$, $SD = 0.82$) than pensioners ($\bar{x} = 2.86$, $SD = 0.60$). With regard to infrastructure and services, self-employed respondents once again rated it higher ($\bar{x} = 3.93$, $SD = 0.66$) than students ($\bar{x} = 3.56$, $SD = 0.53$). Students however rated excitement higher ($\bar{x} = 3.86$, $SD = 0.67$) than respondents in technical occupations ($\bar{x} = 3.34$, $SD = 0.82$).

Table 5.15: ANOVA for comparison of image factors by occupation

Image Factors	Professional (N=102)	Management (N=54)	Self- employed (N=42)	Technical (N=43)	Education (N=35)	Pensioner (N=31)	Student (N=69)	Other (N=72)	F-value	P-value
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.00 (±.68)	3.86 (±.59)	4.11 (±.70)	3.90 (±.71)	4.10 (±.65)	3.96 (±.48)	4.00 (±.66)	3.95 (±.73)	.736	.641
Cog: QOL	3.20 (±.82)	3.19 (±.66)	3.35 (±.82)	3.23 (±.75)	3.12 (±.86)	2.86 (±.60)	2.89 (±.67)	3.14 (±.73)	2.217	.032
Cog: People of South Africa	3.90 (±.82)	3.78 (±.97)	3.86 (±.86)	3.78 (±.59)	3.73 (±.84)	4.12 (±.58)	3.68 (±.81)	3.66 (±.88)	1.369	.217
Cog: Seasonality	3.94 (±.82)	3.93 (±.79)	3.89 (±.76)	3.90 (±.78)	3.91 (±.70)	3.97 (±.69)	3.81 (±.75)	3.96 (±.82)	.252	.972
Cog: Culture and History	3.87 (±.68)	3.65 (±.62)	3.81 (±.81)	3.68 (±.67)	3.86 (±.75)	3.59 (±.63)	4.00 (±.71)	3.83 (±.65)	1.759	.094
Con: Intention to react	4.10 (±.65)	4.07 (±.68)	4.06 (±.70)	4.06 (±.67)	4.03 (±.70)	3.83 (±.66)	4.20 (±.65)	3.97 (±.77)	1.037	.404
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.41 (±.73)	3.45 (±.66)	3.37 (±.88)	3.26 (±.67)	3.40 (±.70)	3.24 (±.60)	3.08 (±.67)	3.34 (±.77)	1.692	.109
Cog: Marketing	3.47 (±.85)	3.42 (±.76)	3.52 (±.91)	3.34 (±.72)	3.53 (±.70)	3.16 (±.66)	3.35 (±.68)	3.50 (±.76)	.821	.570
Cog: Economic value	3.68 (±.79)	3.60 (±.73)	3.71 (±.85)	3.53 (±.74)	3.56 (±.70)	3.91 (±.67)	3.63 (±.90)	3.60 (±.91)	.691	.680
Aff: Feelings	4.01 (±.69)	3.88 (±.74)	4.01 (±.67)	3.92 (±.65)	4.05 (±.72)	4.01 (±.62)	4.06 (±.56)	3.87 (±.70)	.697	.675
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.09 (±.53)	4.02 (±.55)	4.08 (±.59)	3.89 (±.67)	4.00 (±.60)	4.22 (±.44)	4.09 (±.51)	4.04 (±.65)	1.093	.366
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.85 (±.63)	3.78 (±.64)	3.93 (±.66)	3.69 (±.59)	3.81 (±.62)	3.64 (±.46)	3.56 (±.53)	3.77 (±.58)	2.192	.034
Cog: Excitement	3.81 (±.79)	3.59 (±.69)	3.85 (±.81)	3.34 (±.82)	3.70 (±1.0)	3.44 (±.69)	3.86 (±.67)	3.74 (±.79)	2.257	.029

5.3.3 Comparison of image factors with travel behaviour variables

5.3.3.1 Comparison by type of accommodation

Independent-sample *t*-tests were conducted to compare the image factors with the type of accommodation that respondents made use of during their stay in South Africa.

a. Staying with family and friends and not staying with family and friends

Table 5.16 shows statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents staying with family and friends and those not staying with family and friends. Statistically significant differences were found for cognitive and conative image factors, but none were found for affective image factors. The cognitive image factor 'excitement', with a statistically significant difference (< 0.012) and a practical significant difference (0.26; small effect), was rated higher by respondents staying with family/friends ($\bar{x} = 3.84$, $SD = 0.79$) than respondents not staying with family/friends ($\bar{x} = 3.63$, $SD = 0.77$). The conative image factor 'intention to react', revealed a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.004$) and a practical significant difference (0.29; small effect). Respondents staying with friends and family rated the intention to react ($\bar{x} = 4.18$, $SD = 0.64$) higher than those not staying with friends and family ($\bar{x} = 3.98$, $SD = 0.70$). Thus, this will have an influence on their future response, which would be positive for South Africa's tourism industry since they have a positive attitude towards returning to, investing in or recommending the country. They therefore enjoyed visiting the country and found it to be attractive and interesting.

Table 5.16: *t*-test for comparison of image factors by type of accommodation: (staying with family and friends and not staying with family and friends)

Image factors	Stayed with friends and family (N=148)	Did not stay with friends and family (N=291)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.06 (±.66)	3.94 (±.66)	.407	.061	0.19
Cog: QOL	3.08 (±.80)	3.13 (±.72)	1.158	.492	0.07
Cog: People of South Africa	3.83 (±.83)	3.80 (±.81)	.038	.746	0.03
Cog: Seasonality	3.95 (±.77)	3.90 (±.77)	.069	.574	0.06
Cog: Culture & History	3.88 (±.70)	3.78 (±.68)	1.577	.156	0.15
Con: Intention to react	4.18 (±.64)	3.98 (±.70)	.371	.004	0.29

Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	3.27 (±.80)	3.35 (±.67)	4.442	.305	0.09
Cog: Marketing	3.47 (±.76)	3.40 (±.78)	.002	.403	0.09
Cog: Economic value	3.70 (±.80)	3.61 (±.81)	.323	.316	0.10
Aff: Feelings	4.04 (±.63)	3.93 (±.69)	.512	.137	0.15
Cog: Nature & scenery	4.06 (±.57)	4.06 (±.57)	.275	.996	0.00
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.77 (±.58)	3.75 (±.60)	.072	.795	0.03
Cog: Excitement	3.84 (±.79)	3.63 (±.77)	.430	.012	0.26

b. Staying in guesthouses and B&B's and not staying in guesthouses and B&B's

Table 5.17 shows the *t*-test for image factors by type of accommodation: staying in guesthouses and B&B's and not staying in guesthouses and B&B's ($p < 0.05$). No statistically significant difference was found between respondents staying in guesthouses and those not staying in guesthouses and the cognitive, affective or conative image factors.

Table 5.17: *t*-test for comparison of image factors by type of accommodation (staying in guesthouses and B&B's and not staying in guesthouses and B&B's)

Image factors	Stayed in guesthouses and B&B's (N=105)	Did not stay in guesthouses and B&B's (N=334)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.94 (±.63)	3.99 (±.67)	.162	.501	0.08
Cog: QOL	3.07 (±.62)	3.13 (±.78)	6.372	.494	0.07
Cog: People of South Africa	3.91 (±.64)	3.78 (±.87)	16.407	.163	0.15
Cog: Seasonality	4.01 (±.72)	3.89 (±.78)	2.536	.139	0.16
Cog: Culture and History	3.81 (±.60)	3.82 (±.72)	5.153	.898	0.01
Con: Intention to react	4.12 (±.60)	4.03 (±.71)	.973	.276	0.12
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.22 (±.73)	3.35 (±.71)	.029	.101	0.19
Cog: Marketing	3.31 (±.76)	3.46 (±.77)	.201	.093	0.20
Cog: Economic value	3.78 (±.83)	3.60 (±.79)	.165	.053	0.22
Aff: Feelings	3.97 (±.62)	3.97 (±.68)	.286	.988	0.00
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.10 (±.47)	4.05 (±.59)	2.609	.442	0.08

Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.69 (±.50)	3.78 (±.62)	5.705	.222	0.13
Cog: Excitement	3.64 (±.75)	3.73 (±.79)	.758	.346	0.11

c. Staying in hotels and not staying in hotels

Table 5.18: t-test for comparison of image factors by type of accommodation (staying in hotels and not staying in hotels)

Image factors	Stayed in Hotels (N=234)	Did not stay in Hotels (N=205)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.01 (±.65)	3.94 (±.67)	.879	.337	0.09
Cog: QOL	3.15 (±.71)	3.07 (±.78)	1.534	.297	0.10
Cog: People of South Africa	3.78 (±.83)	3.85 (±.81)	.242	.382	0.08
Cog: Seasonality	3.90 (±.77)	3.93 (±.78)	.470	.723	0.03
Cog: Culture and History	3.81 (±.68)	3.82 (±.70)	.533	.810	0.02
Con: Intention to react	3.98 (±.69)	4.13 (±.67)	.000	.033	0.21
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.33 (±.67)	3.31 (±.77)	3.647	.704	0.03
Cog: Marketing	3.45 (±.73)	3.39 (±.81)	1.809	.424	0.08
Cog: Economic value	3.67 (±.81)	3.61 (±.80)	.104	.500	0.07
Aff: Feelings	3.97 (±.66)	3.97 (±.68)	1.437	.952	0.01
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.05 (±.61)	4.07 (±.51)	2.279	.800	0.02
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.77 (±.62)	3.74 (±.57)	.473	.505	0.06
Cog: Excitement	3.69 (±.78)	3.73 (±.79)	.173	.643	0.05

Table 5.18 portrays the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents staying in hotels and those not staying in hotels. No statistically significant differences were indicated regarding the cognitive or affective image factors. However, regarding conative image factors: intention to react, a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.033$) and a practical significant difference (0.21; small effect) was evident. Therefore respondents staying in hotels ($\bar{x} = 3.98$, $SD = 0.69$) rated the conative image factor: intention to react lower than those not staying in hotels ($\bar{x} = 4.13$, $SD = 0.67$). Thus they would not

necessarily react positively towards South Africa, be it to invest in, return to, or recommend South Africa to others. They might not have enjoyed their visit to South Africa or did not find it to be as attractive or interesting.

d. Staying in backpackers and not staying in backpackers

Table 5.19: t-test for comparison of image factors by type of accommodation (staying in backpackers and not staying in backpackers)

Image factors	Stayed in Backpackers (N=30)	Did not stay in Backpackers (N=409)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.09 (±.59)	3.97 (±.66)	.351	.385	0.17
Cog: QOL	2.59 (±.64)	3.15 (±.74)	.797	.000	0.75
Cog: People of South Africa	3.88 (±.86)	3.81 (±.82)	.324	.663	0.08
Cog: Seasonality	3.69 (±.74)	3.93 (±.77)	.041	.100	0.32
Cog: Culture and History	3.96 (±.54)	3.80 (±.70)	2.018	.233	0.23
Con: Intention to react	4.26 (±.53)	4.04 (±.69)	2.179	.103	0.32
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.11 (±.66)	3.34 (±.72)	.304	.104	0.32
Cog: Marketing	3.23 (±.68)	3.44 (±.77)	1.385	.163	0.27
Cog: Economic value	3.95 (±.76)	3.62 (±.80)	.899	.034	0.41
Aff: Feelings	4.13 (±.54)	3.96 (±.67)	.508	.196	0.25
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.09 (±.57)	4.06 (±.57)	.717	.740	0.06
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.44 (±.54)	3.78 (±.59)	.139	.003	0.57
Cog: Excitement	3.83 (±.82)	3.70 (±.78)	.623	.399	0.16

Table 5.19 indicates the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents staying in backpackers and those not staying in backpackers. Statistically significant differences occurred regarding cognitive image factors, but not between affective and conative image factors. The cognitive image factors with statistically significant differences include quality of life ($p < 0.000$) with a practical significant difference (0.75; medium effect); economic value ($p < 0.034$) with a practical significant difference (0.41; small effect); and infrastructure ($p < 0.003$) with a practical significant difference (0.57; medium effect). Respondents staying in backpackers rated quality of life ($\bar{x} = 2.59$, $SD = 0.64$) lower

than those not staying in backpackers (\bar{x} = 3.15, SD= 0.74). Economic value was rated higher by those staying in backpackers (\bar{x} = 3.95, SD= 0.76) than those not staying in backpackers (\bar{x} = 3.62, SD= 0.80). This implies that respondents staying in backpackers perceive the affordability of South Africa and the exchange rate of the country favourable. However, infrastructure and services were rated lower by those staying in backpackers (\bar{x} =3.44, SD= 0.54) than those not staying in backpackers (\bar{x} = 3.78, SD= 0.59). This is expected since backpacker accommodation units are usually cheaper accommodation and people staying in backpackers are usually satisfied with basic quality and services.

e. Staying in lodges and not staying in lodges

Table 5.20: t-test for comparison of image factors by type of accommodation (staying in lodges and not staying in lodges)

Image factors	Stayed in Lodges (N=124)	Did not stay in Lodges (N=315)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.10 (±.59)	3.93 (±.68)	2.808	.020	0.25
Cog: QOL	3.04 (±.65)	3.14 (±.78)	3.998	.200	0.13
Cog: People of South Africa	4.03 (±.67)	3.72 (±.86)	9.099	.000	0.36
Cog: Seasonality	4.07 (±.66)	3.85 (±.80)	9.208	.008	0.27
Cog: Culture and History	3.85 (±.65)	3.80 (±.70)	.762	.524	0.07
Con: Intention to react	4.10 (±.68)	4.03 (±.68)	.082	.397	0.09
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.27 (±.67)	3.34 (±.74)	.898	.336	0.10
Cog: Marketing	3.28 (±.73)	3.48 (±.78)	.749	.024	0.25
Cog: Economic value	3.86 (±.81)	3.56 (±.79)	.140	.001	0.37
Aff: Feelings	4.14 (±.56)	3.90 (±.69)	2.870	.001	0.34
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.24 (±.48)	3.99 (±.58)	2.359	.000	0.44
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.67 (±.57)	3.79 (±.60)	.245	.054	0.20
Cog: Excitement	3.67 (±.69)	3.72 (±.81)	1.877	.581	0.06

The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents staying in lodges and those not staying in lodges is indicated in Table 5.20. Statistically significant differences occurred regarding cognitive image factors and affective image factors, but not

conative image factors. The cognitive image factors with statistically significant differences include tourism aspects ($p < 0.020$) with a practical significant difference (0.25; small effect); people of South Africa ($p < 0.000$) with a practical significant difference (0.36; small effect); seasonality ($p < 0.008$) with a practical significant difference (0.27; small effect); marketing ($p < 0.024$) with a practical significant difference (0.25; small effect); economic value ($p < 0.001$) with a practical significant difference (0.37; small effect); and nature and scenery ($p < 0.000$) with a practical significant difference (0.44; small effect). The affective image factor 'feelings' had a statistically significant difference of ($p < 0.001$) and a practical significant difference (0.34; small effect).

Respondents staying in lodges rated tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 4.10$, $SD = 0.59$) higher than those not staying in lodges ($\bar{x} = 3.93$, $SD = 0.68$). Therefore, respondents staying in lodges rated attributes such as tourist information; tourist centres; and excursions and attractions in South Africa; to be central in how they perceive the image of South Africa. People of South Africa was rated higher by those staying in lodges ($\bar{x} = 4.03$, $SD = 0.67$) than those not staying in lodges ($\bar{x} = 3.72$, $SD = 0.86$). Seasonality was also rated higher by those staying in lodges ($\bar{x} = 4.07$, $SD = 0.66$) than those not staying in lodges ($\bar{x} = 3.85$, $SD = 0.80$). Marketing was however rated lower by respondents staying in lodges ($\bar{x} = 3.28$, $SD = 0.73$) than those not staying in lodges ($\bar{x} = 3.48$, $SD = 0.78$) and economic value was again rated higher by those staying in lodges ($\bar{x} = 3.86$, $SD = 0.81$) than those not staying in lodges ($\bar{x} = 3.56$, $SD = 0.79$). The cognitive image factor 'nature and scenery' ($\bar{x} = 4.24$, $SD = 0.48$) and the affective image factor 'feelings' ($\bar{x} = 4.14$, $SD = 0.56$) were also rated higher by respondents staying in lodges than those not staying in lodges (nature and scenery: $\bar{x} = 3.99$, $SD = 0.58$; feelings: $\bar{x} = 3.90$, $SD = 0.69$).

5.3.3.2 Comparison by number of visits to South Africa

Spearman's rank correlation was used to test the association between the image factors and the number of visits to South Africa. Six correlations were present between times visited South Africa and cognitive image factors, all of which were small correlations. No correlations occurred between conative or affective image factors. The following cognitive image factors indicated a significant ($p < 0.05$) positive correlation with the number of times respondents had visited South Africa. The more times respondents visited South Africa, the higher they rated quality of life ($\rho = 0.187$; small correlation); marketing ($\rho = 0.242$; small to medium correlation); infrastructure and services ($\rho = 0.223$; small to medium correlation); and excitement factors ($\rho = 0.145$; small correlation). Contradicting this, respondents that visited South Africa on a more regular basis rated people of South Africa ($\rho = -0.148$; small correlation) and economic value ($\rho = -0.163$; small correlation) lower (see Table 5.21).

Table 5.21: Spearman rank order correlations between image factors and age

Image factors	Number of visits to South Africa	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Cog: Tourism aspects	-.065	.189
Cog: QOL	.187**	.000
Cog: People of South Africa	-.148**	.002
Cog: Seasonality	.010	.833
Cog: Culture & History	.008	.870
Con: Intention to react	.016	.743
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	.059	.232
Cog: Marketing	.242**	.000
Cog: Economic value	-.163**	.001
Aff: Feelings	-.002	.964
Cog: Nature & scenery	-.070	.144
Cog: Infrastructure & services	.223**	.000
Cog: Excitement	.145**	.005

5.3.3.3 Comparison by mode of transport

a. Made use of airplane and did not make use of airplane

Table 5.22: t-test for comparison of image factors by mode of transport (made use airplane of and did not make use of airplane)

Image factors	Made use of airplane (N=410)	Did not make use of airplane (N=5)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.00 (±.66)	3.70 (±.78)	.486	.309	0.39
Cog: QOL	3.15 (±.75)	2.36 (±.74)	.000	.021	1.05
Cog: People of South Africa	3.83 (±.81)	3.40 (±.89)	.170	.232	0.49
Cog: Seasonality	3.93 (±.77)	4.10 (±.55)	1.376	.624	0.22
Cog: Culture and History	3.85 (±.68)	3.00 (±.61)	.721	.006	1.25

Con: Intention to react	4.09 (±.67)	3.44 (±.38)	2.226	.033	0.96
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.35 (±.71)	2.55 (±.78)	.138	.014	1.02
Cog: Marketing	3.46 (±.77)	2.50 (±.68)	.263	.006	1.24
Cog: Economic value	3.65 (±.80)	3.60 (±.65)	.844	.890	0.06
Aff: Feelings	4.02 (±.64)	3.17 (±1.20)	4.184	.004	0.71
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.08 (±.55)	4.22 (±.22)	3.216	.574	0.25
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.77 (±.59)	3.69 (±.49)	.665	.757	0.14
Cog: Excitement	3.75 (±.78)	3.20 (±1.02)	.525	.124	0.54

Table 5.22 shows statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who made use of airplanes during their visit to South Africa as a mode of transport; as opposed to those not making use of airplanes. Statistically significant differences were found regarding cognitive, affective and conative image factors. Four cognitive image factors revealed statistically significant differences, including quality of life ($p < 0.021$) with a practical significant difference (1.05; large effect); culture and history ($p < 0.006$) with a practical significant difference of (1.25; large effect); effectiveness and cleanliness ($p < 0.014$) with a practical significant difference of (1.02; large effect); and marketing ($p < 0.006$) with a practical significant difference of (1.24; large effect). The affective image factor 'feelings' has a statistically significant difference of ($p < 0.004$) with a practical significant difference of (0.71; medium effect); and the conative image factor 'intention to react' has a statistically significant difference of ($p < 0.033$) and a practical significant difference of (0.96; large effect).

Respondents making use of airplanes rated the cognitive image factors: quality of life ($\bar{x} = 3.15$, $SD = 0.75$); culture and history ($\bar{x} = 3.85$, $SD = 0.68$); effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 3.35$, $SD = 0.71$); and marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.46$, $SD = 0.77$) higher than those not making use of airplanes (quality of life: $\bar{x} = 2.36$, $SD = 0.74$; culture and history: $\bar{x} = 3.00$, $SD = 0.61$; effectiveness and cleanliness: $\bar{x} = 2.55$, $SD = 0.78$ and marketing: $\bar{x} = 2.50$, $SD = 0.68$). The affective image factor 'feelings' was rated higher by those making use of airplanes ($\bar{x} = 4.02$, $SD = 0.64$) than those not making use of airplanes ($\bar{x} = 3.17$, $SD = 1.20$). Respondents making use of airplanes ($\bar{x} = 4.09$, $SD = 0.67$) also rated the conative image factor 'intention to react' higher than those not travelling by airplane ($\bar{x} = 3.44$, $SD = 0.38$). Although excitement did not have a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$), it did have a practical significant difference (0.54; medium effect). Even though the N-values are very high in terms of having made use of airplanes as a transport method, it should be interpreted with caution, since these results

may not portray the truthful perception of respondents that do not make use of airplanes as transport methods. These findings are specifically valid on this study, which focuses on South Africa and this should therefore be taken into consideration when doing further research in this specific area (image) and method of transport.

b. Made use of rental car and did not make use of rental car

Table 5.23: t-test for comparison of image factors by mode of transport (made use of rental car and did not make use of rental car)

Image factors	Made use of rental car (N=114)	Did not make use of rental car (N=35)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.96 (±.62)	3.95 (±.71)	.423	.943	0.01
Cog: QOL	2.96 (±.70)	2.86 (±.57)	.350	.461	0.14
Cog: People of South Africa	3.92 (±.81)	3.76 (±.65)	1.265	.295	0.20
Cog: Seasonality	3.88 (±.73)	4.05 (±.73)	.045	.260	0.22
Cog: Culture and History	3.71 (±.67)	3.76 (±.67)	.100	.704	0.08
Con: Intention to react	4.05 (±.68)	4.12 (±.77)	.085	.589	0.10
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.31 (±.74)	2.85 (±.59)	2.503	.002	0.62
Cog: Marketing	3.28 (±.80)	3.17 (±.70)	.729	.478	0.15
Cog: Economic value	3.75 (±.83)	3.44 (±.87)	.399	.064	0.36
Aff: Feelings	3.97 (±.71)	4.10 (±.66)	.207	.360	0.18
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.10 (±.57)	4.04 (±.59)	.112	.604	0.10
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.63 (±.55)	3.46 (±.51)	.806	.129	0.30
Cog: Excitement	3.53 (±.87)	3.67 (±.67)	.324	.437	0.16

The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who made use of rental cars during their visit to South Africa as a mode of transport and those not making use of rental cars, is portrayed in Table 5.23. Regarding cognitive image factors, and more specifically effectiveness and cleanliness, a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.002$) and a practical significant difference (0.62; medium effect) occurred. No statistically significant differences were found for affective or conative image factors respectively. Respondents making use of rental cars rated the effectiveness and cleanliness

of this cognitive image factor, which consists of attributes such as flow of traffic; air and noise pollution; cleanliness of South Africa; and the significance of certain towns and cities in South Africa (\bar{x} = 3.31, SD= 0.74) higher than those not making use of rental cars (\bar{x} = 2.85, SD= 0.59).

c. Made use of bus and did not make use of bus

Table 5.24: t-test for comparison of image factors by mode of transport (made use of bus and did not make use of bus)

Image factors	Made use of Bus (N=75)	Did not make use of Bus (N=53)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.01 (±.62)	3.97 (±.58)	.074	.735	0.06
Cog: QOL	3.06 (±.66)	2.82 (±.60)	.187	.045	0.36
Cog: People of South Africa	3.80 (±.79)	3.98 (±.61)	6.948	.180	0.23
Cog: Seasonality	3.92 (±.69)	4.07 (±.64)	.242	.244	0.21
Cog: Culture and History	3.87 (±.60)	3.70 (±.69)	.654	.173	0.24
Con: Intention to react	4.00 (±.65)	4.15 (±.60)	.159	.216	0.22
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.30 (±.69)	3.04 (±.68)	.367	.051	0.36
Cog: Marketing	3.49 (±.76)	3.07 (±.74)	.686	.005	0.54
Cog: Economic value	3.70 (±.82)	3.71 (±.82)	.008	.948	0.01
Aff: Feelings	4.08 (±.59)	3.93 (±.71)	3.333	.222	0.20
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.16 (±.55)	4.14 (±.50)	.528	.802	0.04
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.76 (±.59)	3.48 (±.45)	5.124	.005	0.47
Cog: Excitement	3.68 (±.66)	3.58 (±.79)	4.283	.500	0.12

The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents using bus transport and those not using bus transport is indicated in Table 5.24. Statistically significant differences occurred regarding cognitive image factors, specifically quality of life ($p < 0.045$) with a practical significant difference (0.36; small effect); marketing ($p < 0.005$) with a practical significant difference (0.54; medium effect); and infrastructure and services

($p < 0.005$) with a practical significant difference (0.47; small effect). No statistically significant differences occurred regarding affective image factors or conative image factors. Respondents that made use of bus transport rated quality of life ($\bar{x} = 3.06$, $SD = 0.66$); marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.49$, $SD = 0.76$) and infrastructure and services ($\bar{x} = 3.76$, $SD = 0.59$) higher than respondents who did not make use of bus transport: quality of life ($\bar{x} = 2.82$, $SD = 0.60$); marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.07$, $SD = 0.74$) and infrastructure and services ($\bar{x} = 3.48$, $SD = 0.45$).

d. Made use of train and did not make use of train

Table 5.25: t-test for comparison of image factors by mode of transport (made use of train and did not make use of train)

Image factors	Made use of Train (N=26)	Did not make use of Train (N=60)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.22 (±.60)	3.92 (±.63)	.105	.051	0.48
Cog: QOL	2.99 (±.65)	2.82 (±.54)	.435	.252	0.25
Cog: People of South Africa	3.76 (±.65)	3.96 (±.63)	1.197	.199	0.30
Cog: Seasonality	3.96 (±.79)	3.95 (±.64)	.473	.947	0.01
Cog: Culture and History	3.68 (±.76)	3.73 (±.65)	.089	.751	0.07
Con: Intention to react	4.10 (±.51)	4.09 (±.69)	1.712	.945	0.02
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.31 (±.67)	2.99 (±.64)	.639	.044	0.48
Cog: Marketing	3.44 (±.83)	3.08 (±.70)	.663	.053	0.44
Cog: Economic value	3.74 (±.66)	3.63 (±.87)	3.286	.581	0.12
Aff: Feelings	4.01 (±.63)	3.97 (±.66)	1.357	.771	0.07
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.03 (±.55)	4.07 (±.58)	.263	.776	0.07
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.77 (±.56)	3.44 (±.46)	3.066	.006	0.60
Cog: Excitement	3.53 (±.84)	3.60 (±.74)	.112	.738	0.08

Table 5.25 portrays the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents that made use of trains as a method of transport and those that did not make use of trains as a method of transport during their stay in South Africa. Statistically significant differences were indicated in terms of cognitive image factors, specifically effectiveness and cleanliness ($p < 0.044$) with a practical significant difference of (0.48; small effect); and

infrastructure and services ($p < 0.006$) with a practical significant difference of (0.60; medium effect). No statistically significant differences occur in terms of affective or conative image factors. Both of the cognitive image factors were rated higher by the respondents making use of trains as a method of transport: effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 3.31$, $SD = 0.67$) and infrastructure and services ($\bar{x} = 3.77$, $SD = 0.56$) than those that did not make use of trains as a method of transport: effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 2.99$, $SD = 0.64$) and infrastructure and services ($\bar{x} = 3.44$, $SD = 0.46$).

5.3.3.4 Comparison by number of people in travel group

Spearman's rank correlation was used to test the association between the image factors and the number of people in a travel group.

Table 5.26: Spearman rank order correlations between image factors and number of people in travel group

Image factors	Number of visits to South Africa	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Cog: Tourism aspects	.063	.208
Cog: QOL	.025	.614
Cog: People of South Africa	.002	.973
Cog: Seasonality	-.018	.710
Cog: Culture & History	.007	.885
Con: Intention to react	-.017	.727
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	.033	.508
Cog: Marketing	.001	.984
Cog: Economic value	.051	.305
Aff: Feelings	.060	.228
Cog: Nature & scenery	.124**	.010
Cog: Infrastructure & services	.054	.264
Cog: Excitement	.028	.588

Table 5.26 indicates that one significant ($p < 0.05$) positive correlation exists between the number of people in the travel group and the cognitive image factor: nature and scenery. No significant correlations occur in terms of the affective or conative image factors. Therefore, the higher the number of people in the travel group, the more positive they rated the nature and scenery of South Africa ($\rho = 0.124$; small correlation).

5.3.3.5 Comparison by number of people paying for

Spearman's rank correlation was used to test the association between the image factors and the number of people that were paid for.

Table 5.27: Spearman rank order correlations between image factors and number of people paying for

Image factors	Number of people paying for	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Cog: Tourism aspects	-.051	.320
Cog: QOL	.009	.854
Cog: People of South Africa	.075	.136
Cog: Seasonality	.073	.139
Cog: Culture & History	-.067	.191
Con: Intention to react	.036	.470
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	-.020	.698
Cog: Marketing	-.042	.421
Cog: Economic value	.062	.220
Aff: Feelings	.035	.482
Cog: Nature & scenery	-.023	.640
Cog: Infrastructure & services	-.006	.909
Cog: Excitement	-.089	.093

No significant correlations ($p < 0.05$) occurred between any of the cognitive, affective or conative image factors and the number of people paid for (see Table 5.27). Therefore the number of people paid for had no effect on image formation amongst the respondents taking part in the survey.

5.3.3.6 Comparison by total average spending

Again, Spearman rank correlations were used to test the association between the image factors and average spending.

Table 5.28: Spearman rank order correlations between image factors and total average spending

Image factors	Total spending	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Cog: Tourism aspects	.057	.280
Cog: QOL	-.153**	.003
Cog: People of South Africa	.184**	.000
Cog: Seasonality	.105*	.040
Cog: Culture & History	-.104*	.050
Con: Intention to react	.026	.619
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	-.078	.138
Cog: Marketing	-.241**	.000
Cog: Economic value	.130*	.013
Aff: Feelings	.056	.287
Cog: Nature & scenery	.111*	.031
Cog: Infrastructure & services	-.147**	.004
Cog: Excitement	-.120*	.029

According to Table 5.28, nine significant ($p < 0.05$) correlations between total average spending and cognitive image factors occurred. No correlations are present between total spending and affective or conative image factors. Respondents whose total average spending was higher, rated the people of South Africa ($\rho = 0.184$; small correlation), seasonality ($\rho = 0.105$; small correlation); economic value ($\rho = 0.130$; small correlation), nature and scenery ($\rho = 0.111$; small correlation) more positively. Quality of life ($\rho = -0.153$; small correlation); culture and history ($\rho = -0.104$; small correlation); marketing ($\rho = -0.241$; small to medium correlation); infrastructure and services ($\rho = -0.147$; small correlation); and excitement ($\rho = -0.120$; small correlation) were rated more negatively by the respondents with a higher average spending.

5.3.3.7 Comparison by spending per person

Spearman's rank correlation was used to test the association between the image factors and spending per person.

Table 5.29: Spearman rank order correlations between image factors and spending per person

Image factors	Spending per person	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Cog: Tourism aspects	.101	.071
Cog: QOL	-.122*	.028
Cog: People of South Africa	.141**	.010
Cog: Seasonality	.084	.121
Cog: Culture & History	-.064	.254
Con: Intention to react	.026	.642
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	-.011	.837
Cog: Marketing	-.234**	.000
Cog: Economic value	.147**	.008
Aff: Feelings	.044	.428
Cog: Nature & scenery	.149**	.006
Cog: Infrastructure & services	-.127*	.020
Cog: Excitement	-.074	.204

Six correlations ($p < 0.05$) regarding cognitive image factors occurred, however no correlations between affective or conative image factors were present. People who spend more, rated people of South Africa ($\rho = 0.141$; small correlation); economic value ($\rho = 0.147$; small correlation); and nature and scenery ($\rho = 0.149$; small correlation) more positively. Quality of life ($\rho = -0.122$; small correlation); marketing ($\rho = -0.234$; small to medium correlation); and infrastructure and services ($\rho = -0.127$; small correlation) was rated more negatively (see Table 5.29).

5.3.3.8 Comparison by main reason for visiting

a. Main reason is holiday and leisure or not holiday and leisure

The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents whose main reason for visiting South Africa was holiday and leisure, and those whose main reason was not holiday and leisure, is specified below. According to Table 5.30, no statistically significant differences or practical significant differences were present regarding the cognitive, affective or conative image factors. Therefore, none of the attributes of which the factors consist had an effect on the respondents' image formation of South Africa.

Table 5.30: t-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visiting (main reason is holiday or leisure and main reason is not holiday or leisure)

Image factors	Main reason is holiday and leisure (N=207)	Main reason is not holiday and leisure (N=212)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.04 (±.67)	3.92 (±.65)	.137	.077	0.17
Cog: QOL	3.10 (±.71)	3.12 (±.78)	1.760	.786	0.03
Cog: People of South Africa	3.86 (±.81)	3.79 (±.82)	.393	.381	0.09
Cog: Seasonality	3.88 (±.74)	4.00 (±.81)	.398	.104	0.15
Cog: Culture and History	3.79 (±.69)	3.84 (±.69)	1.086	.499	0.07
Con: Intention to react	4.06 (±.68)	4.05 (±.68)	.424	.908	0.01
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.27 (±.69)	3.36 (±.76)	4.245	.246	0.11
Cog: Marketing	3.36 (±.74)	3.48 (±.81)	1.924	.137	0.15
Cog: Economic value	3.71 (±.81)	3.61 (±.80)	.083	.217	0.12
Aff: Feelings	4.02 (±.63)	3.91 (±.70)	5.486	.088	0.16
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.09 (±.53)	4.04 (±.57)	2.157	.417	0.08
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.74 (±.58)	3.76 (±.63)	3.838	.760	0.03
Cog: Excitement	3.68 (±.79)	3.74 (±.80)	.002	.516	0.07

b. Main reason is business or not business

Table 5.31 shows statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents whose main reason for visiting South Africa was business; and those whose main reason was not business. Cognitive image factors, including quality of life ($p < 0.000$ and practical significant difference 0.39; small effect); effectiveness and cleanliness ($p < 0.000$ and practical significant difference 0.37; small effect); marketing ($p < 0.002$ and practical significant difference 0.34; small effect); nature and scenery ($p < 0.011$ and a practical significant difference 0.27; small effect); and infrastructure and services ($p < 0.002$ and practical significant difference 0.33; small effect); all displayed a statistically significant difference. The affective image factor ‘feelings’, had a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.002$) and a practical significant difference (0.31; small effect). No statistically significant differences were found regarding the conative image factor: intention to react.

The factors that were rated higher by the respondents visiting South Africa for business were [quality of life (\bar{x} = 3.32, SD= 0.71); effectiveness and cleanliness (\bar{x} = 3.52, SD= 0.75); marketing (\bar{x} = 3.61, SD= 0.78); infrastructure and services (\bar{x} = 3.90, SD= 0.60)] than the respondents who did not visit South Africa for business [quality of life (\bar{x} = 3.03, SD= 0.75); effectiveness and cleanliness (\bar{x} = 3.24, SD= 0.70); marketing (\bar{x} = 3.35, SD= 0.76); infrastructure and services (\bar{x} = 3.70, SD= 0.59)]. The image factors that were rated lower by respondents visiting South Africa for business was ‘nature and scenery’ which consists of the ‘fauna and flora’ and the ‘nature of South Africa’, the ‘scenery within South Africa’, ‘the travelling distance to South Africa’, ‘what South Africa offers’ and ‘adventure activities in South Africa’ (\bar{x} = 3.97, SD= 0.60) and ‘feelings’ (\bar{x} = 3.82, SD= 0.74), than respondents who did not visit South Africa for business [nature and scenery (\bar{x} =4.12, SD= 0.54); feelings (\bar{x} =4.04, SD= 0.62)]

Table 5.31: t-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visiting (main reason is business and main reason is not business)

Image factors	Main reason is business (N=125)	Main reason is not business (N=295)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.89 (±.64)	4.03 (±.67)	.210	.058	0.21
Cog: QOL	3.32 (±.71)	3.03 (±.75)	.556	.000	0.39
Cog: People of South Africa	3.74 (±.81)	3.86 (±.82)	.864	.158	0.15
Cog: Seasonality	3.92 (±.81)	3.95 (±.75)	3.162	.790	0.03
Cog: Culture and History	3.81 (±.66)	3.83 (±.70)	.142	.817	0.03
Con: Intention to react	3.98 (±.68)	4.10 (±.68)	.011	.093	0.18
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.52 (±.75)	3.24 (±.70)	1.368	.000	0.37
Cog: Marketing	3.61 (±.78)	3.35 (±.76)	.183	.002	0.34
Cog: Economic value	3.55 (±.81)	3.71 (±.79)	.074	.061	0.20
Aff: Feelings	3.82 (±.74)	4.04 (±.62)	7.091	.002	0.31
Cog: Nature and scenery	3.97 (±.60)	4.12 (±.54)	.325	.011	0.27
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.90 (±.60)	3.70 (±.59)	.378	.002	0.33
Cog: Excitement	3.70 (±.82)	3.72 (±.78)	.268	.795	0.03

c. Main reason is visiting family and friends or not visiting family and friends

Table 5.32 shows the *t*-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visit: visiting family and friends and not visiting family and friends ($p < 0.05$). Three statistically significant differences occurred in terms of cognitive image factors. These include seasonality ($p < 0.049$ with a practical significant difference of 0.22; small effect); culture and history ($p < 0.020$ with a practical significant difference of 0.27; medium effect); and excitement, which includes sport events, entertainment and night life in South Africa ($p < 0.015$) with a practical significant difference of 0.28; small effect). As for affective image factors, no statistically significant differences were indicated. However the conative image factor: intention to react, which consists of respondents having enjoyed visiting South Africa and whether they would return to, recommend it or invest in South Africa; as well as the country being attractive and interesting, had a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.030$) with a practical significant difference (0.24; small effect). All of these image factors were rated higher by respondents visiting family and friends [seasonality ($\bar{x} = 4.06$, $SD = 0.75$); culture and history ($\bar{x} = 3.95$, $SD = 0.69$); intention to react ($\bar{x} = 4.18$, $SD = 0.61$); and excitement ($\bar{x} = 3.87$, $SD = 0.76$)] than those not visiting family and friends [seasonality ($\bar{x} = 3.90$, $SD = 0.77$); culture and history ($\bar{x} = 3.76$, $SD = 0.68$); intention to react ($\bar{x} = 4.01$, $SD = 0.70$); and excitement ($\bar{x} = 3.65$, $SD = 0.79$)] .

Table 5.32: *t*-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visiting (main reason is visiting family and friends and main reason is not visiting family and friends)

Image factors	Main reason is visiting family and friends (N109)	Main reason is not visiting family and friends (N=307)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.04 (±.70)	3.97 (±.65)	2.892	.300	0.11
Cog: QOL	3.10 (±.75)	3.11 (±.74)	.002	.962	0.01
Cog: People of South Africa	3.91 (±.81)	3.79 (±.82)	.005	.212	0.14
Cog: Seasonality	4.06 (±.75)	3.90 (±.77)	.212	.049	0.22
Cog: Culture and History	3.95 (±.69)	3.76 (±.68)	.307	.020	0.27
Con: Intention to react	4.18 (±.61)	4.01 (±.70)	1.288	.030	0.24
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.35 (±.79)	3.31 (±.69)	2.508	.658	0.05
Cog: Marketing	3.48 (±.76)	3.40 (±.78)	.001	.343	0.11

Cog: Economic value	3.70 (±.83)	3.65 (±.79)	1.985	.625	0.05
Aff: Feelings	4.05 (±.60)	3.94 (±.69)	2.156	.156	0.15
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.10 (±.52)	4.05 (±.56)	.070	.421	0.09
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.78 (±.61)	3.74 (±.59)	.861	.633	0.05
Cog: Excitement	3.87 (±.76)	3.65 (±.79)	.000	.015	0.28

d. Main reason is sport or not sport

The *t*-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visit: main reason is sport and the main reason is not sport ($p < 0.05$) is portrayed in Table 5.33. One statistically significant difference was found between respondents who visited South Africa for sport and those whose main reason for visiting was not sport; and cognitive image factors. None were indicated in terms of affective or conative image factors. The one cognitive image factor was that of economic value (with a statistically significant difference $p < 0.017$ and a practical significant difference 0.85; large effect). Respondents whose main reason for visiting South Africa was sport, rated economic value lower ($\bar{x} = 3.00$, $SD = 0.53$) than those who did not visit the country mainly for sport reasons ($\bar{x} = 3.68$, $SD = 0.80$). Even though the N-values are very low in terms of sport as being the main reason for visit, it should be interpreted with caution, since these results may not portray the truthful perception of respondents who do visit the country for sport reasons. These findings are specifically valid in this study, which focuses on South Africa and should therefore be taken into consideration when doing further research in this specific area (image) and sport as main reason for visit.

Table 5.33: *t*-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visiting (main reason is sport and main reason is not sport)

Image factors	Main reason is sport (N=8)	Main reason is not sport (N=408)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.72 (±.60)	3.99 (±.66)	.552	.246	0.41
Cog: QOL	3.21 (±.38)	3.11 (±.75)	3.978	.686	0.14
Cog: People of South Africa	3.50 (±.71)	3.83 (±.81)	.626	.256	0.40
Cog: Seasonality	4.00 (±.53)	3.94 (±.77)	1.992	.823	0.08
Cog: Culture and History	3.69 (±.69)	3.82 (±.68)	.009	.599	0.19

Con: Intention to react	4.33 (\pm .49)	4.05 (\pm .68)	.877	.263	0.40
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.14 (\pm .60)	3.32 (\pm .72)	.377	.465	0.26
Cog: Marketing	3.41 (\pm .53)	3.42 (\pm .77)	1.176	.965	0.02
Cog: Economic value	3.00 (\pm .53)	3.68 (\pm .80)	3.232	.017	0.85
Aff: Feelings	3.75 (\pm .36)	3.97 (\pm .67)	2.495	.349	0.33
Cog: Nature and scenery	3.86 (\pm .51)	4.07 (\pm .55)	.333	.275	0.39
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.59 (\pm .47)	3.76 (\pm .60)	.203	.439	0.28
Cog: Excitement	3.75 (\pm .66)	3.71 (\pm .79)	.486	.882	0.05

e. Main reason is shopping or not shopping

Table 5.34 portrays the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents whose main reason for visiting was shopping and those whose main reason was not shopping. No statistically significant differences were found in terms of affective or conative image factors. However, in terms of cognitive image factors, specifically quality of life with a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.013$) and a practical significant difference (0.52; medium effect); people of South Africa with a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.001$) and a practical significant difference (0.67; medium effect); marketing with a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.011$) and a practical significant difference (0.54; medium effect); and economic value with a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.026$) and a practical significant difference (0.47; small effect) occurred.

Respondents whose main reason was shopping rated the cognitive image factors [people of South Africa ($\bar{x} = 3.29$, $SD = 0.85$; and economic value ($\bar{x} = 3.31$, $SD = 0.67$)] lower than those whose main reason for visiting was not shopping: people of South Africa: ($\bar{x} = 3.86$, $SD = 0.80$) and economic value: ($\bar{x} = 3.69$, $SD = 0.80$). Quality of life ($\bar{x} = 3.47$, $SD = 0.52$) and marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.82$, $SD = 0.50$) however, were rated higher by those whose main reason was shopping than by those whose main reason for visiting was not shopping [quality of life: ($\bar{x} = 3.08$, $SD = 0.75$; marketing: ($\bar{x} = 3.39$, $SD = 0.78$)]. Again, the N-values are very high in terms of shopping not being the main reason for their visit; it should be interpreted with caution, since these results may not portray the truthful perception of respondents who do visit the country as shopping being the main reason of visit. These findings are specifically valid in this study, which focuses on South Africa and this should therefore be taken into consideration when doing further research in this specific area (image) and shopping as main reason for visit.

Table 5.34: t-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visiting (main reason is shopping and main reason is not shopping)

Image factors	Main reason is shopping (N=24)	Main reason is not shopping (N392)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.85 (±.56)	4.00 (±.67)	.839	.296	0.22
Cog: QOL	3.47 (±.52)	3.08 (±.75)	4.274	.013	0.52
Cog: People of South Africa	3.29 (±.85)	3.86 (±.80)	.177	.001	0.67
Cog: Seasonality	3.85 (±.83)	3.94 (±.77)	.176	.577	0.11
Cog: Culture and History	3.80 (±.69)	3.81 (±.68)	.138	.933	0.02
Con: Intention to react	4.03 (±.60)	4.06 (±.69)	1.868	.845	0.04
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.48 (±.61)	3.31 (±.73)	.805	.266	0.23
Cog: Marketing	3.82 (±.50)	3.39 (±.78)	4.713	.011	0.54
Cog: Economic value	3.31 (±.67)	3.69 (±.80)	1.266	.026	0.47
Aff: Feelings	3.80 (±.50)	3.98 (±.67)	2.310	.212	0.26
Cog: Nature and scenery	3.89 (±.54)	4.08 (±.55)	.025	.101	0.35
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.85 (±.52)	3.75 (±.60)	1.452	.386	0.18
Cog: Excitement	3.74 (±.70)	3.71 (±.80)	.512	.862	0.04

f. Main reason is adventure or not adventure

Table 5.35 shows the t-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visit: adventure or not adventure ($p < 0.05$). One statistically significant difference was found between a cognitive image factor and the respondents mainly visiting South Africa for adventure or those not visiting South Africa for adventure reasons. This factor included nature and scenery, with a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.026$) and a practical significant difference (0.37; small effect). No statistically significant differences were indicated in terms of affective or conative image factors. Respondents whose main reason for visiting South Africa was adventure, rated nature and scenery higher ($\bar{x} = 4.25$, $SD = 0.44$) than those whose main reason was not adventure ($\bar{x} = 4.05$, $SD = 0.56$).

Table 5.35: t-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visiting (main reason is adventure and main reason is not adventure)

Image factors	Main reason is adventure (N=41)	Main reason is not adventure (N=375)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.13 (±.63)	3.97 (±.66)	.028	.156	0.24
Cog: QOL	3.08 (±.71)	3.11 (±.75)	.434	.801	0.04
Cog: People of South Africa	3.79 (±.69)	3.83 (±.83)	1.758	.768	0.05
Cog: Seasonality	3.91 (±.77)	3.94 (±.77)	.001	.816	0.04
Cog: Culture and History	3.95 (±.68)	3.80 (±.68)	.057	.224	0.22
Con: Intention to react	4.16 (±.57)	4.05 (±.69)	.764	.309	0.17
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.34 (±.73)	3.32 (±.72)	.003	.889	0.02
Cog: Marketing	3.29 (±.64)	3.43 (±.78)	2.055	.286	0.19
Cog: Economic value	3.87 (±.75)	3.64 (±.80)	.515	.101	0.28
Aff: Feelings	4.11 (±.56)	3.95 (±.68)	1.811	.174	0.22
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.25 (±.44)	4.05 (±.56)	2.891	.026	0.37
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.70 (±.57)	3.76 (±.60)	.033	.585	0.09
Cog: Excitement	3.79 (±.73)	3.70 (±.79)	.186	.578	0.11

g. Main reason is culture and historic or not culture and historic

The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents whose main reason for their visit to South Africa was culture and historic reasons; and those whose main reason was not culture and historic reasons is portrayed in Table 5.36. Statistically significant differences were found regarding cognitive image factors, specifically tourism aspects ($p < 0.024$) with a practical significant difference (0.69; medium effect); and effectiveness and cleanliness ($p < 0.002$) with a practical significant difference (0.94; large effect). No statistically significant differences were indicated regarding affective image factors. However one occurred with the conative image factor: intention to react ($p < 0.041$), with a practical significant difference (0.56; medium effect). Respondents whose main reason for visiting South Africa was culture and history, rated the tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 4.43$, $SD = 0.64$) and effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 3.98$, $SD = 0.60$) higher than those not

visiting South Africa for its culture and history [tourism aspects (\bar{x} = 3.98, SD= 0.66); effectiveness and cleanliness (\bar{x} = 3.30, SD= 0.72)]. The conative image factor: intention to react (\bar{x} = 4.47, SD= 0.77) was also rated higher by those visiting the country for culture historic reasons than those whose main reason was not for culture and historic reasons (\bar{x} = 4.05, SD= 0.68). Excitement did not have a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$), however it did indicate a practical significant difference (0.52; medium effect).

These findings should be interpreted with caution because the results focus on South Africa's image and should therefore be taken into consideration when doing further research in this specific area (image) and culture and history as main reason for visit. The N-values are very high in terms of culture and history not being the main reason for their visit, therefore these results may not portray the truthful perception of respondents that visit the country with culture and history being their main reason for visit.

Table 5.36: t-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visiting (main reason is culture and historic and main reason is not culture and historic)

Image factors	Main reason is culture and historic (N=11)	Main reason is not culture and historic (N=405)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.43 (±.64)	3.98 (±.66)	.043	.024	0.69
Cog: QOL	3.34 (±.79)	3.10 (±.74)	.116	.298	0.30
Cog: People of South Africa	4.09 (±.66)	3.81 (±.82)	2.466	.270	0.34
Cog: Seasonality	4.09 (±.66)	3.94 (±.77)	.078	.509	0.20
Cog: Culture and History	4.08 (±.79)	3.81 (±.68)	.843	.198	0.34
Con: Intention to react	4.47 (±.77)	4.05 (±.68)	.245	.041	0.56
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.98 (±.60)	3.30 (±.72)	.973	.002	0.94
Cog: Marketing	3.58 (±.70)	3.41 (±.77)	.640	.515	0.21
Cog: Economic value	3.82 (±.81)	3.66 (±.80)	.005	.522	0.19
Aff: Feelings	4.27 (±.62)	3.96 (±.67)	.011	.126	0.47
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.31 (±.41)	4.06 (±.55)	.925	.132	0.46
Cog: Infrastructure & services	4.04 (±.65)	3.74 (±.59)	.509	.107	0.45
Cog: Excitement	4.11 (±.67)	3.70 (±.79)	.554	.122	0.52

h. Main reason is medical or not medical

The *t*-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visit: main reason is medical and the main reason is not medical ($p < 0.05$) is portrayed in Table 5.37. Two statistically significant differences were found between cognitive image factors and respondents who visited South Africa for medical reasons and those whose main reason for visiting was not of a medical nature. No statistically significant differences were found regarding affective image factors, although one was found regarding the conative image factor: intention to react. The cognitive image factors include quality of life, with a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.031$) and a practical significant difference (0.73; medium effect) and effectiveness and cleanliness ($p < 0.034$) with a practical significant difference (0.69; medium effect). The conative image factor: intention to react has a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.016$) and a practical significant difference (0.81; large effect). Respondents who visited South Africa for medical reasons, rated both cognitive image factors [quality of life ($\bar{x} = 3.63$, $SD = 0.66$); effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 3.82$, $SD = 0.75$); and the conative image factor: intention to react ($\bar{x} = 4.60$, $SD = 0.47$) higher than those who did not visit South Africa for medical reasons [quality of life ($\bar{x} = 3.10$, $SD = 0.74$); effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 3.31$, $SD = 0.72$); intention to react ($\bar{x} = 4.05$, $SD = 0.68$). Excitement did not have a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$), however it did indicate a practical significant difference (0.59; medium effect).

Again the N-values are very high in terms of medical not being the main reason for their visit and very low in terms of medical being the main reason for visit. Therefore caution should be taken when conducting future studies between image formation and medical reasons as main reason for visiting. The results may differ from destination to destination.

Table 5.37: *t*-test for comparison of image factors by main reason for visiting (main reason is medical and main reason is not medical)

Image factors	Main reason is medical (N=9)	Main reason is not medical (N=407)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.22 ($\pm .49$)	3.98 ($\pm .66$)	1.432	.282	0.36
Cog: QOL	3.63 ($\pm .66$)	3.10 ($\pm .74$)	.242	.031	0.73
Cog: People of South Africa	3.67 ($\pm .90$)	3.83 ($\pm .81$)	.150	.559	0.18
Cog: Seasonality	4.11 ($\pm .70$)	3.94 ($\pm .77$)	.070	.500	0.23

Cog: Culture and History	3.92 (±.63)	3.81 (±.69)	.250	.648	0.15
Con: Intention to react	4.60 (±.47)	4.05 (±.68)	1.025	.016	0.81
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.82 (±.75)	3.31 (±.72)	.105	.034	0.69
Cog: Marketing	3.78 (±.59)	3.41 (±.77)	1.377	.178	0.48
Cog: Economic value	3.75 (±.89)	3.66 (±.80)	.309	.763	0.10
Aff: Feelings	4.24 (±.51)	3.96 (±.67)	.454	.217	0.42
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.21 (±.52)	4.06 (±.55)	.266	.446	0.26
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.90 (±.54)	3.75 (±.60)	.481	.440	0.26
Cog: Excitement	4.17 (±.40)	3.70 (±.79)	3.561	.097	0.59

5.3.3.9 Comparison by means of hearing about South Africa

a. Heard via television and not via television

The *t*-test for comparison of image factors by means of hearing about South Africa: heard via television and not via television ($p < 0.05$) is portrayed in Table 5.38. Four statistically significant differences were found between the respondents who heard about South Africa via television and those who did not hear about South Africa via television and the following cognitive image factors. These were seasonality ($p < 0.031$) with a practical significant difference (0.24; small effect); culture and history ($p < 0.015$) with a practical significant difference (0.28; small effect); effectiveness and cleanliness ($p < 0.022$) with a practical significant difference (0.26; small effect); and excitement ($p < 0.016$) with a practical significant difference (0.28; small effect).

One statistically significant difference was found regarding the affective image factor 'feelings' ($p < 0.039$) which has a practical significant difference (0.23; small effect). No statistically significant difference was indicated regarding the conative image factor 'intention to react'. Only one image factor was rated higher by the respondents that heard about South Africa via television [effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 3.48$, $SD = 0.67$)] than those that did not hear about South Africa via television [effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 3.29$, $SD = 0.73$)]. The other image factors were rated lower by the respondents who heard about South Africa via television [seasonality ($\bar{x} = 3.81$, $SD = 0.78$), culture and history ($\bar{x} = 3.68$, $SD = 0.67$), feelings ($\bar{x} = 3.87$, $SD = 0.66$), excitement ($\bar{x} = 3.54$, $SD = 0.82$)]; than those that did not hear about South Africa via television [seasonality ($\bar{x} = 3.99$, $SD = 0.76$), culture and history ($\bar{x} = 3.87$, $SD = 0.69$), feelings ($\bar{x} = 4.02$, $SD = 0.66$), excitement ($\bar{x} = 3.77$, $SD = 0.76$)].

Table 5.38: t-test for comparison of image factors by means of hearing about South Africa (Heard via television and did not hear via television)

Image factors	Heard via Television (N=111)	Did not hear via Television (N=286)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.94 (±.59)	4.02 (±.67)	1.710	.288	0.12
Cog: QOL	3.23 (±.70)	3.10 (±.74)	1.332	.117	0.18
Cog: People of South Africa	3.78 (±.82)	3.83 (±.81)	.307	.546	0.07
Cog: Seasonality	3.81 (±.78)	3.99 (±.76)	1.370	.031	0.24
Cog: Culture and History	3.68 (±.67)	3.87 (±.69)	.089	.015	0.28
Con: Intention to react	4.00 (±.65)	4.10 (±.67)	.878	.232	0.13
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.48 (±.67)	3.29 (±.73)	.400	.022	0.26
Cog: Marketing	3.51 (±.76)	3.41 (±.77)	.181	.256	0.13
Cog: Economic value	3.59 (±.77)	3.71 (±.81)	1.264	.200	0.14
Aff: Feelings	3.87 (±.66)	4.02 (±.66)	.349	.039	0.23
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.01 (±.48)	4.11 (±.56)	1.357	.104	0.18
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.83 (±.55)	3.74 (±.61)	1.343	.169	0.15
Cog: Excitement	3.54 (±.82)	3.77 (±.76)	.021	.016	0.28

b. Heard via radio and not via radio

The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who heard about South Africa via radio and those who did not hear about South Africa via radio, are specified below. According to Table 5.39, one statistically significant difference was indicated regarding the cognitive image factor: people of South Africa, ($p < 0.041$) with a practical significant difference (0.33; small effect). However, no statistically significant differences were indicated in terms of the affective or conative image factors. The respondents who heard about South Africa via radio, rated the image factor ‘people of South Africa’ which is the friendliness of the people of South Africa and communicating easily with the people of the country ($\bar{x} = 3.56$, $SD = 0.88$); lower than those that did not hear about South Africa via radio [people of South Africa ($\bar{x} = 3.85$, $SD = 0.80$)].

Table 5.39: *t*-test for comparison of image factors by means of hearing about South Africa (Heard via radio and did not hear via radio)

Image factors	Heard via radio (N=37)	Did not hear via radio (N=359)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.90 (±.60)	4.01 (±.65)	.517	.361	0.17
Cog: QOL	3.21 (±.63)	3.13 (±.74)	2.862	.531	0.11
Cog: People of South Africa	3.56 (±.88)	3.85 (±.80)	1.389	.041	0.33
Cog: Seasonality	3.83 (±.83)	3.95 (±.76)	.567	.376	0.14
Cog: Culture and History	3.66 (±.60)	3.83 (±.69)	1.124	.192	0.24
Con: Intention to react	4.08 (±.66)	4.07 (±.67)	.001	.966	0.01
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.50 (±.63)	3.33 (±.72)	1.967	.182	0.23
Cog: Marketing	3.66 (±.71)	3.41 (±.77)	.493	.068	0.32
Cog: Economic value	3.70 (±.80)	3.67 (±.80)	.013	.857	0.03
Aff: Feelings	3.92 (±.77)	3.99 (±.65)	1.000	.591	0.08
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.03 (±.55)	4.09 (±.54)	.106	.531	0.11
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.89 (±.60)	3.75 (±.59)	.627	.180	0.23
Cog: Excitement	3.67 (±.97)	3.71 (±.76)	4.863	.740	0.05

c. Heard via internet website and not via internet website

Table 5.40 shows the *t*-test for comparison of image factors by hearing about South Africa: respondents who heard about South Africa via internet websites and those who did not hear about South Africa via internet websites ($p < 0.05$). Two statistically significant differences were found between the cognitive image factors and these two types of respondents. No statistically significant differences were found regarding the affective or conative image factors. The two cognitive image factors are seasonality ($p < 0.039$) with a practical significant difference (0.24; small effect) and effectiveness and cleanliness ($p < 0.025$) with a practical significant difference (0.26; small effect). Seasonality was rated lower ($\bar{x} = 3.81$, $SD = 0.77$) and effectiveness and cleanliness were rated higher ($\bar{x} = 3.48$, $SD = 0.69$) by respondents that heard about South Africa via an internet website than those that did not hear about

South Africa via an internet website [seasonality (\bar{x} = 3.99, SD= 0.76); effectiveness and cleanliness (\bar{x} = 3.30, SD= 0.72)].

Table 5.40: t-test for comparison of image factors by means of hearing about South Africa (Heard via internet website and did not hear via internet website)

Image factors	Heard via internet website (N=100)	Did not hear via internet website (N=296)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.97 (±.60)	4.01 (±.67)	.903	.595	0.06
Cog: QOL	3.25 (±.71)	3.10 (±.74)	.360	.081	0.20
Cog: People of South Africa	3.88 (±.74)	3.80 (±.83)	2.139	.437	0.09
Cog: Seasonality	3.81 (±.77)	3.99 (±.76)	.012	.039	0.24
Cog: Culture and History	3.76 (±.62)	3.83 (±.71)	3.107	.380	0.10
Con: Intention to react	4.10 (±.55)	4.06 (±.70)	5.081	.574	0.06
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.48 (±.69)	3.30 (±.72)	.180	.025	0.26
Cog: Marketing	3.51 (±.75)	3.41 (±.78)	.045	.274	0.13
Cog: Economic value	3.61 (±.72)	3.70 (±.82)	2.970	.373	0.10
Aff: Feelings	3.94 (±.64)	3.99 (±.67)	.121	.527	0.07
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.04 (±.47)	4.09 (±.56)	1.801	.428	0.09
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.82 (±.51)	3.75 (±.62)	4.241	.276	0.12
Cog: Excitement	3.72 (±.80)	3.70 (±.77)	.592	.807	0.03

d. Heard via newspaper and not via newspaper

The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who heard about South Africa via newspapers and the respondents who did not hear about South Africa via newspapers is portrayed in Table 5.41. In terms of cognitive image factors, effectiveness and cleanliness ($p < 0.009$) with a practical significant difference (0.42; small effect); marketing ($p < 0.001$) showing a practical significant difference (0.52; medium effect); and infrastructure and services ($p < 0.012$) with a practical significant difference (0.38; small effect) were revealed. No statistically significant differences were found for affective or conative image factors.

Respondents who heard about South Africa via newspapers, rated the effectiveness and cleanliness (\bar{x} = 3.61, SD= 0.67), marketing (which includes media reporting, socialmedia, promotion/advertising/marketing and telecommunication within and about South Africa) (\bar{x} = 3.79, SD= 0.64); and infrastructure and services (\bar{x} = 3.79, SD= 0.86), which form part of cognitive image factors, higher than those who did not hear about South Africa via newspapers [effectiveness and cleanliness (\bar{x} = 3.31, SD= 0.72); marketing (\bar{x} = 3.39, SD= 0.77); infrastructure and services (\bar{x} = 3.70, SD= 0.77)].

Table 5.41: t-test for comparison of image factors by means of hearing about South Africa (Heard via newspaper and did not hear via newspaper)

Image factors	Heard via newspaper (N=46)	Did not hear via newspaper (N=350)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.00 (±.44)	4.00 (±.67)	8.091	.976	0.00
Cog: QOL	3.33 (±.59)	3.11 (±.75)	5.054	.056	0.29
Cog: People of South Africa	3.92 (±.80)	3.81 (±.81)	.002	.380	0.14
Cog: Seasonality	3.83 (±.78)	3.96 (±.76)	.075	.278	0.17
Cog: Culture and History	3.87 (±.54)	3.81 (±.70)	4.604	.582	0.09
Con: Intention to react	4.13 (±.50)	4.06 (±.68)	4.913	.523	0.10
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.61 (±.67)	3.31 (±.72)	.109	.009	0.42
Cog: Marketing	3.79 (±.64)	3.39 (±.77)	1.556	.001	0.52
Cog: Economic value	3.74 (±.68)	3.67 (±.81)	1.770	.591	0.08
Aff: Feelings	3.99 (±.60)	3.98 (±.67)	1.070	.878	0.02
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.07 (±.43)	4.08 (±.55)	2.840	.947	0.01
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.97 (±.44)	3.74 (±.61)	8.046	.012	0.38
Cog: Excitement	3.79 (±.86)	3.70 (±.77)	.594	.453	0.11

e. Heard via word of mouth and not via word of mouth

Table 5.42 portrays the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who heard about South Africa via word of mouth and those who did not hear about South Africa via word of mouth. No statistically significant differences or practical significant differences were indicated regarding any cognitive, affective or conative image factors.

Table 5.42: t-test for comparison of image factors by means of hearing about South Africa (Heard via word of mouth and did not hear via word of mouth)

Image factors	Heard via word of mouth (N=210)	Did not hear via word of mouth (N=188)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.03 (±.62)	3.97 (±.69)	.911	.420	0.08
Cog: QOL	3.12 (±.66)	3.17 (±.81)	8.419	.523	0.06
Cog: People of South Africa	3.81 (±.81)	3.82 (±.81)	.030	.886	0.01
Cog: Seasonality	3.95 (±.73)	3.93 (±.81)	1.948	.797	0.02
Cog: Culture and History	3.86 (±.67)	3.78 (±.71)	.003	.288	0.11
Con: Intention to react	4.13 (±.62)	4.01 (±.71)	1.476	.097	0.16
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.33 (±.68)	3.36 (±.77)	3.764	.634	0.05
Cog: Marketing	3.43 (±.75)	3.46 (±.80)	.078	.740	0.03
Cog: Economic value	3.73 (±.80)	3.62 (±.80)	.773	.177	0.14
Aff: Feelings	4.04 (±.60)	3.92 (±.73)	3.832	.070	0.17
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.12 (±.47)	4.04 (±.60)	3.993	.147	0.13
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.76 (±.58)	3.79 (±.62)	.247	.583	0.05
Cog: Excitement	3.75 (±.71)	3.68 (±.86)	4.941	.399	0.08

f. Heard via social media sites and not via social media sites

Table 5.43 portrays the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who heard about South Africa via social media sites and those who did not hear about South Africa via social media sites. One statistically significant difference was indicated regarding the cognitive image factor: marketing ($p < 0.023$) with a practical significant difference (0.47; small effect). However no statistically significant differences occurred in terms of the affective or conative image factors. The respondents that indicated that they heard about South Africa via social media sites rated marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.77$, $SD = 0.75$) higher than those that did not hear about South Africa via social media sites [marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.41$, $SD = 0.77$)].

Table 5.43: t-test for comparison of image factors by means of hearing about South Africa (Heard via social media sites and did not hear via social media sites)

Image factors	Heard via social media sites (N=25)	Did not hear via social media sites (N=371)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.23 (±.51)	3.98 (±.66)	.913	.077	0.37
Cog: QOL	3.23 (±.66)	3.13 (±.74)	2.019	.524	0.13
Cog: People of South Africa	3.70 (±.85)	3.83 (±.81)	.613	.433	0.15
Cog: Seasonality	3.78 (±.94)	3.95 (±.75)	4.041	.277	0.18
Cog: Culture and History	4.00 (±.66)	3.80 (±.69)	.099	.175	0.29
Con: Intention to react	4.16 (±.64)	4.06 (±.67)	.003	.468	0.15
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.59 (±.60)	3.33 (±.72)	1.538	.079	0.36
Cog: Marketing	3.77 (±.75)	3.41 (±.77)	.000	.023	0.47
Cog: Economic value	3.70 (±.78)	3.68 (±.80)	.236	.885	0.03
Aff: Feelings	3.94 (±.70)	3.98 (±.66)	.112	.757	0.06
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.12 (±.55)	4.08 (±.54)	.037	.687	0.08
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.90 (±.50)	3.76 (±.60)	2.081	.229	0.25
Cog: Excitement	3.68 (±.93)	3.71 (±.77)	1.003	.865	0.03

g. Heard via travel agent and not via travel agent

The t-test for comparison of image factors by means of hearing about South Africa: heard via travel agent and did not hear via travel agent ($p < 0.05$), is portrayed in Table 5.44. No statistically significant difference was found between the respondents who heard about South Africa via travel agents and those who did not hear about South Africa via travel agents and the cognitive, affective or conative image factors. It is interesting to see that travel agents do not have an effect on the respondents' image formation which is rather surprising, specifically in the tourism industry.

Table 5.44: t-test for comparison of image factors by means of hearing about South Africa (Heard via travel agent and did not hear via travel agent)

Image factors	Heard via travel agent (N=58)	Did not hear via travel agent (N=339)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.98 (±.61)	4.00 (±.66)	.475	.844	0.03
Cog: QOL	3.16 (±.68)	3.14 (±.75)	.890	.878	0.02
Cog: People of South Africa	3.89 (±.72)	3.81 (±.82)	1.693	.477	0.10
Cog: Seasonality	3.78 (±.74)	3.97 (±.77)	.041	.074	0.25
Cog: Culture and History	3.67 (±.64)	3.84 (±.69)	.134	.081	0.26
Con: Intention to react	4.01 (±.62)	4.08 (±.67)	1.353	.446	0.11
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.45 (±.64)	3.33 (±.73)	1.420	.257	0.16
Cog: Marketing	3.49 (±.66)	3.43 (±.79)	1.889	.584	0.08
Cog: Economic value	3.65 (±.72)	3.68 (±.81)	.986	.818	0.03
Aff: Feelings	3.94 (±.64)	3.99 (±.67)	.075	.606	0.07
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.01 (±.53)	4.09 (±.54)	.445	.315	0.14
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.80 (±.53)	3.76 (±.61)	1.696	.672	0.06
Cog: Excitement	3.53 (±.77)	3.73 (±.78)	.094	.095	0.27

h. Heard via travel guide and not via travel guide

The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who heard about South Africa via travel guides and those who did not hear about South Africa via travel guides, is specified below. According to Table 5.45 no statistically significant differences or practical significant differences were indicated regarding the cognitive, affective or conative image factors. Again it is interesting to see that travel guides do not have any effect on the formation of image.

Table 5.45: t-test for comparison of image factors by means of hearing about South Africa (Heard via travel guide and did not hear via travel guide)

Image factors	Heard via travel guide (N=54)	Did not hear via travel guide (N=342)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.04 (±.62)	3.99 (±.66)	.000	.599	0.08
Cog: QOL	3.18 (±.70)	3.13 (±.74)	1.532	.638	0.07
Cog: People of South Africa	3.93 (±.77)	3.81 (±.81)	.319	.281	0.16
Cog: Seasonality	3.89 (±.76)	3.95 (±.77)	.213	.587	0.08
Cog: Culture and History	3.81 (±.64)	3.81 (±.64)	.001	.934	0.01
Con: Intention to react	4.09 (±.62)	4.07 (±.67)	.133	.772	0.04
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.40 (±.66)	3.33 (±.73)	.654	.532	0.09
Cog: Marketing	3.46 (±.73)	3.43 (±.78)	.373	.824	0.03
Cog: Economic value	3.76 (±.72)	3.66 (±.81)	1.058	.426	0.12
Aff: Feelings	3.96 (±.68)	3.98 (±.66)	.242	.796	0.04
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.12 (±.48)	4.07 (±.55)	.394	.550	0.09
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.74 (±.57)	3.77 (±.60)	.022	.693	0.06
Cog: Excitement	3.68 (±.83)	3.71 (±.77)	.817	.838	0.03

5.3.3.10 Comparison by length of stay

Spearman's rank correlation was used to test the association between the image factors and length of stay. The following results were found.

Table 5.46: Spearman rank order correlations between image factors and length of stay

Image factors	Length of stay	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Cog: TOURISM aspects	.018	.717
Cog: QOL	-.111	.025
Cog: People of South Africa	.110	.025
Cog: Seasonality	.044	.370
Cog: Culture & History	.064	.207

Con: Intention to react	.108*	.028
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	-.097	.051
Cog: Marketing	-.098	.052
Cog: Economic value	.124*	.012
Aff: Feelings	.074	.133
Cog: Nature & scenery	.101*	.039
Cog: Infrastructure & services	-.117*	.017
Cog: Excitement	.034	.508

Table 5.46 indicates that five correlations ($p < 0.05$) occur between the respondents' length of stay and cognitive image factors; and no correlations exist between length of stay and the affective image factor: feelings. However, one correlation is present between length of stay and the conative image factor: intention to react. The respondents who stayed for longer rated the following factors more positive: people of South Africa ($\rho = 0.110$; small correlation); economic value ($\rho = 0.124$; small correlation); nature and scenery ($\rho = 0.101$; small correlation); and intention to react ($\rho = 0.108$; small correlation); and the following image factors more negative: quality of life (which refers to the political stability, economic development, safety and development in South Africa as well as the people's quality of life) ($\rho = -0.111$; small correlation); and infrastructure and services ($\rho = -0.117$; small correlation).

The next section will focus on the comparison of image factors concerning the respondents' perception of South Africa.

5.3.4 Comparison of image factors with perception of South Africa

In this section, the differences in the importance of image factors for perceptions of South Africa are analysed. *t*-tests were conducted to compare the image factors with questions consisting of only two categories.

5.3.4.1 Comparison by negative experience

Table 5.47 indicates the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who had a negative experience during their stay in South and those who did not have a negative experience whilst visiting South Africa. There were five statistically significant differences. Three statistically significant differences concerned cognitive image factors, one concerned the affective image factor and one concerned the conative image

factor. The cognitive image factors with statistically significant differences include quality of life ($p < 0.004$) with a practical significant difference (0.33; small effect); people of South Africa ($p < 0.000$) with a practical significant difference (0.43; small effect); and seasonality ($p < 0.000$) with a practical significant difference (0.37; small effect). The statistically significant difference in terms of affective image factor: feelings was ($p < 0.000$) with a practical significant difference (0.36; small effect); and the conative image factor: intention to react has a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.012$) and a practical significant difference (0.27; small effect).

Respondents who had a negative experience during their stay in South Africa rated quality of life ($\bar{x} = 2.91$, $SD = 0.80$) lower than those that did not have a negative experience during their stay in South Africa ($\bar{x} = 3.17$, $SD = 0.72$). People of South Africa were also rated lower by those that had negative experiences ($\bar{x} = 3.49$, $SD = 0.93$) than those who did not have negative experiences ($\bar{x} = 3.90$, $SD = 0.75$). The same goes for seasonality, feelings (which includes opportunities for family holidays, relaxation, luxurious experiences and fun, as well as being a must visit destination and having a good reputation) and intention to react being rated lower by respondents having negative experiences [seasonality ($\bar{x} = 3.66$, $SD = 0.90$); feelings ($\bar{x} = 3.74$, $SD = 0.80$); intention to react ($\bar{x} = 3.89$, $SD = 0.78$)] versus those not having negative experiences during their stay in South Africa [seasonality ($\bar{x} = 3.99$, $SD = 0.72$); feelings ($\bar{x} = 4.03$, $SD = 0.62$); intention to react ($\bar{x} = 4.10$, $SD = 0.65$)].

Table 5.47: t-test for comparison of image factors by negative experience (Did have a negative experience and did not have a negative experience)

Image factors	Did have a negative experience (N=88)	Did not have a negative experience (N=334)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.97 (± 0.70)	3.98 (± 0.65)	.049	.941	0.01
Cog: QOL	2.91 (± 0.80)	3.17 (± 0.72)	1.186	.004	0.33
Cog: People of South Africa	3.49 (± 0.93)	3.90 (± 0.75)	4.16	.000	0.43
Cog: Seasonality	3.66 (± 0.90)	3.99 (± 0.72)	8.472	.000	0.37
Cog: Culture and History	3.76 (± 0.83)	3.83 (± 0.65)	4.57	.392	0.09
Con: Intention to react	3.89 (± 0.78)	4.10 (± 0.65)	1.205	.012	0.27
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.20 (± 0.73)	3.35 (± 0.72)	.009	.113	0.19

Cog: Marketing	3.35 (±.76)	3.45 (±.78)	.293	.281	0.13
Cog: Economic value	3.61 (±.87)	3.65 (±.78)	1.334	.624	0.06
Aff: Feelings	3.74 (±.80)	4.03 (±.62)	7.98	.000	0.36
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.01 (±.63)	4.06 (±.54)	.189	.422	0.09
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.69 (±.64)	3.78 (±.59)	.074	.207	0.14
Cog: Excitement	3.56 (±.78)	3.75 (±.79)	.978	.065	0.23

5.3.4.2 Comparison by feeling towards South Africa before visit

The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents feeling positive towards South Africa before their visit and those feeling negative towards South Africa before their visit is indicated in Table 5.48. Statistically significant differences between two cognitive image factors, specifically tourism aspects ($p < 0.029$) with a practical significant difference (0.31; small effect); and nature and scenery ($p < 0.015$) with a practical significant difference (0.35; small effect). A statistically significant difference in terms of the affective image factor: feelings ($p < 0.000$) with a practical significant difference (0.51; medium effect) occurred and the conative image factor: intention to react ($p < 0.029$) with a practical significant difference (0.30; small effect). Respondents who were positive towards South Africa before their visit, rated all of the image factors: tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 4.01$, $SD = 0.66$), intention to react ($\bar{x} = 4.09$, $SD = 0.66$), feelings ($\bar{x} = 4.02$, $SD = 0.64$) and nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 4.08$, $SD = 0.56$) higher than those that were negative towards South Africa before their visit [tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 3.79$, $SD = 0.71$); intention to react ($\bar{x} = 3.87$, $SD = 0.73$); feelings ($\bar{x} = 3.63$, $SD = 0.79$) and nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 3.88$, $SD = 0.57$)].

Table 5.48: t-test for comparison of image factors by feelings towards South Africa before visit (Positive feeling and Negative feeling)

Image factors	Positive (N=367)	Negative (N=52)	F- value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.01 (±.66)	3.79 (±.71)	1.074	.029	0.31
Cog: QOL	3.14 (±.74)	3.05 (±.79)	.314	.423	0.11
Cog: People of South Africa	3.83 (±.80)	3.66 (±.91)	3.114	.172	0.18
Cog: Seasonality	3.91 (±.78)	4.03 (±.70)	1.623	.291	0.15
Cog: Culture and History	3.82 (±.68)	3.79 (±.73)	.807	.784	0.04

Con: Intention to react	4.09 (±.66)	3.87 (±.73)	1.486	.029	0.30
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.33 (±.74)	3.31 (±.70)	.114	.862	0.03
Cog: Marketing	3.45 (±.75)	3.40 (±.91)	3.108	.624	0.06
Cog: Economic value	3.67 (±.80)	3.58 (±.81)	.002	.470	0.11
Aff: Feelings	4.02 (±.64)	3.63 (±.79)	5.890	.000	0.51
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.08 (±.56)	3.88 (±.57)	.180	.015	0.35
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.77 (±.60)	3.75 (±.64)	.641	.851	0.03
Cog: Excitement	3.73 (±.75)	3.57 (±1.00)	4.91	.176	0.16

5.3.4.3 Comparison by perception after visit

In Table 5.49 the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents perceptions of South Africa after their visit is indicated. Although respondents had to indicate whether their perception had changed to being more positive /negative or whether it remained positive or negative, the N-values of those that indicated it to be still negative (N=5) or those that are more negative (N=21), were too low to be significantly acceptable. Therefore only the “yes, changed to be more positive” and “no, still positive” statements were used in this *t*-test.

Statistically significant differences occurred in terms of cognitive, affective and conative image factors. The cognitive image factor was that of effectiveness and cleanliness ($p < 0.014$) with a practical significant difference (0.25; small effect). The affective image factor: feelings has a statistically significant difference (.028) with a practical significant difference (0.22; small effect); and the conative image factor: intention to react has a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.021$) and a practical significant difference (0.22; small effect). All the image factors were rated higher by respondents that had a more positively changed perception [intention to react ($\bar{x} = 4.17$, SD= 0.61); effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 3.43$, SD= 0.72); feelings ($\bar{x} = 4.09$, SD= 0.66)] than those that still had a positive perception after visiting South Africa [intention to react ($\bar{x} = 4.02$, SD= 0.69); effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 3.26$, SD= 0.67); feelings ($\bar{x} = 3.94$, SD= 0.60)].

Table 5.49: t-test for comparison of image factors by perception after visit (Yes, changed to be more positive and No, still positive)

Image factors	Yes, changed to be more positive (N=200)	No, still positive (N=191)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.03 (±.65)	3.98 (±.65)	1.276	.449	0.08
Cog: QOL	3.20 (±.72)	3.08 (±.73)	.002	.107	0.16
Cog: People of South Africa	3.89 (±.77)	3.83 (±.77)	.006	.398	0.09
Cog: Seasonality	4.02 (±.74)	3.90 (±.73)	.198	.126	0.15
Cog: Culture and History	3.88 (±.68)	3.83 (±.66)	.174	.425	0.08
Con: Intention to react	4.17 (±.61)	4.02 (±.69)	2.084	.021	0.22
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.43 (±.72)	3.26 (±.67)	3.930	.014	0.25
Cog: Marketing	3.41 (±.83)	3.48 (±.68)	5.329	.392	0.08
Cog: Economic value	3.74 (±.79)	3.60 (±.79)	.072	.078	0.18
Aff: Feelings	4.09 (±.66)	3.94 (±.60)	2.643	.028	0.22
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.13 (±.51)	4.03 (±.54)	.001	.076	0.18
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.83 (±.60)	3.73 (±.57)	1.133	.078	0.17
Cog: Excitement	3.79 (±.74)	3.67 (±.79)	.215	.145	0.15

5.3.4.4 Comparison by negative publicity

Table 5.50 shows statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who indicated that negative publicity did have an effect on their image of South Africa and who indicated that negative publicity did not have an effect on their image of South Africa. Statistically significant differences occurred in terms of cognitive image factors, specifically quality of life ($p < 0.001$) with a practical significant difference (0.37; small effect) and people of South Africa ($p < 0.003$) with a practical significant difference (0.32; small effect). However, no statistically significant differences were found for affective or conative image factors respectively. Respondents where negative publicity did have an effect on their image formation rated the cognitive image factors [quality of life ($\bar{x} = 2.89$, $SD = 0.62$); people of South Africa ($\bar{x} = 3.60$, $SD = 0.85$)] lower than those where negative publicity did not have

an effect on their image formation [quality of life (\bar{x} = 3.17, SD= 0.75); people of South Africa (\bar{x} = 3.87, SD= 0.77)]

Table 5.50: t-test for comparison of image factors by negative publicity (Negative publicity did have an effect and negative publicity did not have an effect)

Image factors	Negative publicity did have an effect (N=98)	Negative publicity did not have an effect (N=316)	F-value	P- value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.97 (±.57)	3.98 (±.66)	2.490	.881	0.02
Cog: QOL	2.89 (±.62)	3.17 (±.75)	4.320	.001	0.37
Cog: People of South Africa	3.60 (±.85)	3.87 (±.77)	1.269	.003	0.32
Cog: Seasonality	3.82 (±.86)	3.95 (±.72)	5.106	.138	0.15
Cog: Culture and History	3.75 (±.71)	3.84 (±.67)	1.821	.307	0.12
Con: Intention to react	3.96 (±.69)	4.08 (±.66)	.378	.124	0.18
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.26 (±.72)	3.33 (±.70)	.086	.401	0.10
Cog: Marketing	3.33 (±.70)	3.46 (±.78)	.566	.152	0.17
Cog: Economic value	3.52 (±.75)	3.68 (±.80)	1.647	.080	0.20
Aff: Feelings	3.86 (±.63)	4.00 (±.65)	.151	.072	0.21
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.01 (±.53)	4.07 (±.54)	.737	.383	0.10
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.69 (±.58)	3.77 (±.59)	.130	.259	0.13
Cog: Excitement	3.68 (±.76)	3.72 (±.78)	.246	.662	0.05

5.3.4.5 Comparison by attractions

a. Visited National Parks and did not visit National Parks

Table 5.51 indicates the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who did visit National Parks and those that did not visit National Parks. There were eight statistically significant differences, all of which were cognitive image factors. No statistically significant differences occurred in terms of affective or conative image factors. The cognitive image factors with statistically significant differences include tourism aspects

($p < 0.018$) with a practical significant difference (0.23; small effect); quality of life ($p < 0.000$) with a practical significant difference (0.42; small effect); people of South Africa ($p < 0.027$) with a practical significant difference (0.21; small effect); effectiveness and cleanliness ($p < 0.000$) with a practical significant difference (0.37; small effect); marketing ($p < 0.000$) with a practical significant difference (0.55; medium effect); economic value ($p < 0.009$) with a practical statistical difference (0.27; small effect); nature and scenery ($p < 0.001$) with a practical significant difference (0.30; small effect); and infrastructure and services ($p < 0.000$), which refers to restaurants, accommodation facilities, shopping facilities, roads and roadworks, airports, transport, health services and service levels in South Africa, as well as the accessibility to and in the country, with a practical significant difference (0.37; small effect).

Respondents who visited National Parks rated quality of life ($\bar{x} = 2.99$, $SD = 0.70$); effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 3.22$, $SD = 0.70$); marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.24$, $SD = 0.69$); and infrastructure and services ($\bar{x} = 3.66$, $SD = 0.55$) lower than respondents who did not visit National Parks [quality of life ($\bar{x} = 3.30$, $SD = 0.74$), effectiveness and cleanliness ($\bar{x} = 3.48$, $SD = 0.72$); marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.68$, $SD = 0.80$); and infrastructure and services ($\bar{x} = 3.90$, $SD = 0.63$)]. Interestingly, tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 4.06$, $SD = 0.62$); people of South Africa ($\bar{x} = 3.90$, $SD = 0.76$); economic value ($\bar{x} = 3.75$, $SD = 0.80$); and nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 4.15$, $SD = 0.49$); was rated higher by those who visited National Parks than those who did not visit National Parks [tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 3.89$, $SD = 0.72$); people of South Africa ($\bar{x} = 3.72$, $SD = 0.86$); economic value ($\bar{x} = 3.54$, $SD = 0.81$) and nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 3.97$, $SD = 0.60$).

Table 5.51: t-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited National Parks and did not visit National Parks)

Image factors	Visited National Parks (N=234)	Did not visit National Parks (N=165)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.06 (± 0.62)	3.89 (± 0.72)	2.489	.018	0.23
Cog: QOL	2.99 (± 0.70)	3.30 (± 0.74)	.654	.000	0.42
Cog: People of South Africa	3.90 (± 0.76)	3.72 (± 0.86)	3.687	.027	0.21
Cog: Seasonality	3.99 (± 0.73)	3.84 (± 0.83)	7.216	.061	0.18
Cog: Culture and History	3.84 (± 0.67)	3.81 (± 0.71)	.036	.705	0.04
Con: Intention to react	4.12 (± 0.65)	4.00 (± 0.71)	.001	.104	0.16

Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.22 (±.70)	3.48 (±.72)	.064	.000	0.37
Cog: Marketing	3.24 (±.69)	3.68 (±.80)	4.690	.000	0.55
Cog: Economic value	3.75 (±.80)	3.54 (±.81)	.076	.009	0.27
Aff: Feelings	4.03 (±.63)	3.92 (±.69)	.972	.113	0.16
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.15 (±.49)	3.97 (±.60)	4.144	.001	0.30
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.66 (±.55)	3.90 (±.63)	2.183	.000	0.37
Cog: Excitement	3.66 (±.70)	3.79 (±.87)	4.413	.137	0.14

b. Visited the Garden Route and did not visit the Garden Route

The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who visited the Garden Route and those that did not, is specified below. According to Table 5.52, three statistically significant differences were indicated regarding the cognitive image factors. However, no statistically significant differences were indicated regarding the affective or conative image factors. These cognitive image factors include tourism aspects ($p < 0.027$) with a practical significant difference (0.29; small effect); economic value ($p < 0.011$) with a practical significant difference (0.33; small effect); and nature and scenery ($p < 0.027$) which has a practical significant difference (0.29; small effect). All three image factors, tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 4.15$, $SD = 0.61$); economic value ($\bar{x} = 3.89$, $SD = 0.72$); and nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 4.20$, $SD = 0.50$) were rated higher by the respondents who had visited the Garden Route than those who had not visited the Garden Route during their visit to South Africa [tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 3.95$, $SD = 0.68$); economic value ($\bar{x} = 3.61$, $SD = 0.82$); nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 4.05$, $SD = 0.55$)].

Table 5.52: t-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited the Garden Route and did not visit the Garden Route)

Image factors	Visited the Garden Route (N=70)	Did not visit the Garden Route (N=328)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.15 (±.61)	3.95 (±.68)	1.216	.027	0.29
Cog: QOL	3.00 (±.63)	3.14 (±.75)	2.881	.155	0.18
Cog: People of South Africa	3.99 (±.75)	3.79 (±.82)	1.127	.062	0.24

Cog: Seasonality	3.89 (±.81)	3.93 (±.77)	.125	.685	0.05
Cog: Culture and History	3.81 (±.71)	3.83 (±.69)	.194	.877	0.02
Con: Intention to react	4.14 (±.58)	4.05 (±.70)	2.152	.364	0.12
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.43 (±.68)	3.31 (±.73)	.218	.189	0.17
Cog: Marketing	3.26 (±.69)	3.46 (±.78)	1.527	.051	0.26
Cog: Economic value	3.89 (±.72)	3.61 (±.82)	3.395	.011	0.33
Aff: Feelings	4.09 (±.63)	3.96 (±.66)	.041	.144	0.19
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.20 (±.50)	4.05 (±.55)	.984	.027	0.29
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.75 (±.52)	3.76 (±.61)	3.800	.943	0.01
Cog: Excitement	3.70 (±.74)	3.71 (±.79)	.313	.873	0.02

c. Visited the Cape Town V&A Waterfront and did not visit the Cape Town V&A Waterfront

Table 5.53 shows statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents that visited the Cape Town V&A Waterfront and those that did not. Regarding cognitive image factors, two differences occurred: tourism aspects ($p < 0.013$) with a practical significant difference (0.25; small effect); and seasonality ($p < 0.004$) with a practical significant difference (0.29; small effect). No statistically significant differences were found for affective or conative image factors respectively. Respondents who had visited the Cape Town V&A Waterfront rated the seasonality ($\bar{x} = 3.79$, $SD = 0.75$) lower than those that did not visit the Cape Town V&A Waterfront ($\bar{x} = 4.02$, $SD = 0.77$); and rated tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 4.09$, $SD = 0.61$) higher than those that did not visit Cape Town V&A Waterfront [tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 3.92$, $SD = 0.70$)].

Table 5.53: t-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited the Cape Town V&A Waterfront and did not visit the Cape Town V&A Waterfront)

Image factors	Visited the Cape Town V&A Waterfront (N=160)	Did not visit the Cape Town V&A Waterfront (N=239)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.09 (±.61)	3.92 (±.70)	2.521	.013	0.25

Cog: QOL	3.08 (±.67)	3.14 (±.77)	4.019	.443	0.08
Cog: People of South Africa	3.83 (±.78)	3.83 (±.83)	.598	.997	0.00
Cog: Seasonality	3.79 (±.75)	4.02 (±.77)	.190	.004	0.29
Cog: Culture and History	3.80 (±.68)	3.85 (±.69)	.000	.496	0.07
Con: Intention to react	4.07 (±.62)	4.07 (±.72)	2.791	.923	0.01
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.36 (±.62)	3.31 (±.78)	5.739	.520	0.06
Cog: Marketing	3.42 (±.69)	3.43 (±.82)	2.198	.918	0.01
Cog: Economic value	3.72 (±.80)	3.63 (±.81)	.035	.297	0.11
Aff: Feelings	4.05 (±.64)	3.94 (±.67)	.068	.123	0.16
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.13 (±.50)	4.04 (±.57)	.925	.108	0.16
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.76 (±.54)	3.75 (±.63)	4.169	.904	0.01
Cog: Excitement	3.71 (±.75)	3.71 (±.80)	.571	.938	0.01

d. Visited Johannesburg and did not visit Johannesburg

Table 5.54 shows statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents that visited Johannesburg and those that did not visit Johannesburg. One statistically significant difference regarding cognitive image factors, quality of life ($p < 0.004$) with a practical significant difference (0.30; small effect) occurred. No statistically significant differences were found for affective or conative image factors. Respondents that had visited Johannesburg rated quality of life ($\bar{x} = 3.20$, $SD = 0.73$) higher than those that did not visit Johannesburg ($\bar{x} = 2.98$, $SD = 0.71$).

Table 5.54: t-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited Johannesburg and did not visit Johannesburg)

Image factors	Visited	Did not visit	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Johannesburg (N=255)	Johannesburg (N=146)			
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.97 (±.68)	4.03 (±.63)	1.282	.435	0.08
Cog: QOL	3.20 (±.73)	2.98 (±.71)	.216	.004	0.30
Cog: People of South Africa	3.82 (±.79)	3.84 (±.85)	1.108	.803	0.03
Cog: Seasonality	3.95 (±.77)	3.90 (±.77)	.571	.567	0.06

Cog: Culture and History	3.85 (±.70)	3.80 (±.64)	.924	.432	0.08
Con: Intention to react	4.06 (±.68)	4.11 (±.68)	.655	.438	0.08
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.36 (±.71)	3.29 (±.73)	.431	.339	0.10
Cog: Marketing	3.43 (±.77)	3.45 (±.79)	.107	.770	0.03
Cog: Economic value	3.65 (±.77)	3.70 (±.87)	4.852	.601	0.05
Aff: Feelings	3.97 (±.67)	4.02 (±.62)	.021	.444	0.08
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.06 (±.54)	4.12 (±.52)	.115	.303	0.11
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.80 (±.62)	3.70 (±.53)	4.360	.083	0.17
Cog: Excitement	3.74 (±.78)	3.69 (±.76)	.563	.594	0.06

e. Visited Robben Island and did not visit Robben Island

Table 5.55 portrays the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who visited Robben Island and those that did not. No statistically significant differences or practical significant differences were indicated regarding the cognitive, affective or conative image factors.

Table 5.55: *t*-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited Robben Island and did not visit Robben Island)

Image factors	Visited Robben Island (N=48)	Did not visit Robben Island (N=349)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.15 (±.60)	3.97 (±.67)	.481	.081	0.27
Cog: QOL	3.17 (±.62)	3.11 (±.75)	2.353	.623	0.07
Cog: People of South Africa	3.99 (±.79)	3.81 (±.81)	.728	.148	0.22
Cog: Seasonality	3.80 (±.63)	3.95 (±.79)	1.310	.213	0.19
Cog: Culture and History	3.92 (±.59)	3.82 (±.70)	1.896	.323	0.15
Con: Intention to react	4.13 (±.65)	4.06 (±.68)	.470	.549	0.09
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.37 (±.67)	3.33 (±.72)	.006	.672	0.06
Cog: Marketing	3.51 (±.70)	3.42 (±.78)	.617	.436	0.12
Cog: Economic value	3.65 (±.82)	3.67 (±.81)	.296	.839	0.03

Aff: Feelings	4.11 (±.65)	3.97 (±.66)	.557	.181	0.21
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.13 (±.50)	4.07 (±.54)	.006	.473	0.11
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.87 (±.59)	3.74 (±.59)	.135	.159	0.22
Cog: Excitement	3.90 (±.72)	3.69 (±.78)	.073	.085	0.27

f. Visited the Winelands and did not visit the Winelands

The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents that visited the Winelands and those that did not is indicated in Table 5.56. Regarding cognitive image factors, five statistically significant differences are present, tourism aspects ($p < 0.004$) with a practical significant difference (0.36; small effect); quality of life ($p < 0.021$) with a practical significant difference (0.28; small effect); people of South Africa ($p < 0.017$) which has a practical significant difference (0.30; small effect); marketing ($p < 0.035$) with a practical significant difference (0.26; small effect); and nature and scenery ($p < 0.047$) with a practical significant difference (0.24; small effect). No statistically significant differences were found in terms of affective or conative image factors.

Respondents that had visited the Winelands rated tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 4.19$, $SD = 0.63$), people of South Africa ($\bar{x} = 4.03$, $SD = 0.73$) and nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 4.19$, $SD = 0.45$) higher than those that did not visit the Winelands [tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 3.95$, $SD = 0.66$); people of South Africa ($\bar{x} = 3.78$, $SD = 0.82$); nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 4.05$, $SD = 0.55$)]. However, quality of life ($\bar{x} = 2.95$, $SD = 0.60$) and marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.26$, $SD = 0.63$) was rated lower by respondents that had visited the Winelands than those that had not [quality of life ($\bar{x} = 3.16$, $SD = 0.76$); marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.47$, $SD = 0.79$)].

Table 5.56: t-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited the Winelands and did not visit the Winelands)

Image factors	Visited the Winelands (N=78)	Did not visit the Winelands (N=320)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.19 (±.63)	3.95 (±.66)	.007	.004	0.36
Cog: QOL	2.95 (±.60)	3.16 (±.76)	3.953	.021	0.28
Cog: People of South Africa	4.03 (±.73)	3.78 (±.82)	3.156	.017	0.30

Cog: Seasonality	3.89 (±.68)	3.94 (±.79)	1.225	.600	0.06
Cognitive: Culture and History	3.83 (±.64)	3.83 (±.69)	.245	.975	0.00
Con: Intention to react	4.09 (±.63)	4.07 (±.69)	.222	.780	0.03
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.24 (±.57)	3.36 (±.75)	8.143	.190	0.16
Cog: Marketing	3.26 (±.63)	3.47 (±.79)	3.161	.035	0.26
Cog: Economic value	3.81 (±.83)	3.63 (±.80)	.008	.074	0.22
Aff: Feelings	4.04 (±.62)	3.97 (±.67)	.131	.370	0.11
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.19 (±.45)	4.05 (±.55)	1.797	.047	0.24
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.67 (±.53)	3.78 (±.60)	1.743	.134	0.19
Cog: Excitement	3.67 (±.68)	3.72 (±.79)	1.956	.621	0.07

g. Visited Soweto and did not visit Soweto

Table 5.57 shows the *t*-test for comparison of image factors by type of attractions: respondents that had visited Soweto and those that had not visited Soweto ($p < 0.05$). No statistically significant differences were found between respondents that had visited Soweto and those that had not; and the cognitive, affective or conative image factors.

Table 5.57: *t*-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited Soweto and did not visit Soweto)

Image factors	Visited Soweto (N=76)	Did not visit Soweto (N=322)	F- value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.92 (±.64)	4.01 (±.67)	.501	.303	0.13
Cog: QOL	3.13 (±.66)	3.12 (±.75)	1.031	.887	0.02
Cog: People of South Africa	3.84 (±.83)	3.83 (±.81)	.393	.925	0.01
Cog: Seasonality	3.78 (±.73)	3.97 (±.77)	.026	.060	0.24
Cog: Culture and History	3.90 (±.65)	3.81 (±.69)	.621	.341	0.12
Con: Intention to react	3.98 (±.73)	4.09 (±.67)	.371	.197	0.15
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.36 (±.71)	3.33 (±.72)	.047	.724	0.05
Cog: Marketing	3.43 (±.71)	3.43 (±.78)	.751	.976	0.00

Cog: Economic value	3.57 (±.74)	3.69 (±.82)	1.300	.226	0.15
Aff: Feelings	3.95 (±.62)	4.00 (±.66)	.439	.588	0.07
Cog: Nature and scenery	3.98 (±.55)	4.10 (±.53)	.000	.069	0.23
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.79 (±.63)	3.75 (±.58)	1.261	.599	0.06
Cog: Excitement	3.78 (±.71)	3.70 (±.79)	.467	.485	0.09

h. Visited Cradle of Humankind and did not visit Cradle of Humankind

Table 5.58 portrays the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who visited the Cradle of Humankind and those that did not. No statistically significant differences were indicated regarding the cognitive, affective or conative image factors.

Table 5.58: t-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited Cradle of Humankind and did not visit Cradle of Humankind)

Image factors	Visited Cradle of Humankind (N=32)	Did not visit Cradle of Humankind (N=365)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	3.97 (±.55)	4.00 (±.67)	1.401	.835	0.04
Cog: QOL	2.97 (±.57)	3.13 (±.75)	2.620	.238	0.21
Cog: People of South Africa	3.86 (±.84)	3.83 (±.81)	.002	.838	0.04
Cog: Seasonality	4.13 (±.72)	3.91 (±.77)	.001	.139	0.27
Cog: Culture and History	3.95 (±.69)	3.82 (±.68)	.019	.290	0.19
Con: Intention to react	4.17 (±.67)	4.06 (±.68)	.089	.377	0.16
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.24 (±.62)	3.34 (±.72)	.964	.478	0.13
Cog: Marketing	3.26 (±.56)	3.44 (±.78)	5.336	.193	0.24
Cog: Economic value	3.77 (±.78)	3.66 (±.81)	.131	.475	0.13
Aff: Feelings	3.89 (±.59)	4.00 (±.66)	.084	.371	0.16
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.17 (±.42)	4.07 (±.54)	3.178	.289	0.19
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.67 (±.46)	3.77 (±.60)	2.323	.391	0.16
Cog: Excitement	3.76 (±.68)	3.71 (±.78)	.638	.759	0.06

i. Visited Table Mountain and did not visit Table Mountain

Table 5.59 indicates the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents that visited Table Mountain and those that did not visit Table Mountain. Three statistically significant differences regarding cognitive image factors were found, specifically tourism aspects ($p < 0.000$) with a practical significant difference (0.40; small effect); seasonality ($p < 0.032$) with a practical significant difference (0.23; small effect); and nature and scenery ($p < 0.026$) with a practical significant difference (0.24; small effect). One statistically significant difference occurred regarding the affective image factor: feelings ($p < 0.011$) with a practical significant difference (0.27; small effect). No statistically significant differences were found for the conative image factor: intention to react.

Respondents that had visited Table Mountain rated tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 4.18$, $SD = 0.59$), feelings ($\bar{x} = 4.12$, $SD = 0.60$) and nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 4.17$, $SD = 0.49$) higher than those that did not visit Table Mountain [tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 3.91$, $SD = 0.68$); feelings ($\bar{x} = 3.93$, $SD = 0.67$); nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 4.04$, $SD = 0.55$)]. Seasonality ($\bar{x} = 3.81$, $SD = 0.78$) was the only image factor rated lower by respondents that visited Table Mountain than those that did not visit Table Mountain ($\bar{x} = 3.99$, $SD = 0.76$).

Table 5.59: t-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited Table Mountain and did not visit Table Mountain)

Image factors	Visited Table Mountain (N=118)	Did not visit Table Mountain (N=279)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.18 (±.59)	3.91 (±.68)	1.749	.000	0.40
Cog: QOL	3.14 (±.66)	3.11 (±.76)	2.927	.748	0.03
Cog: People of South Africa	3.88 (±.78)	3.81 (±.82)	.987	.395	0.09
Cog: Seasonality	3.81 (±.78)	3.99 (±.76)	1.472	.032	0.23
Cog: Culture and History	3.91 (±.64)	3.80 (±.70)	.743	.160	0.15
Con: Intention to react	4.16 (±.62)	4.03 (±.70)	1.048	.092	0.18
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.40 (±.64)	3.30 (±.75)	2.761	.248	0.12
Cog: Marketing	3.48 (±.68)	3.40 (±.80)	2.650	.383	0.09
Cog: Economic value	3.78 (±.76)	3.62 (±.82)	.738	.063	0.20

Aff: Feelings	4.12 (\pm .60)	3.93 (\pm .67)	.590	.011	0.27
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.17 (\pm .49)	4.04 (\pm .55)	.375	.026	0.24
Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.82 (\pm .58)	3.73 (\pm .59)	.045	.189	0.14
Cog: Excitement	3.79 (\pm .71)	3.68 (\pm .80)	.490	.217	0.14

j. Visited Durban beachfront and did not visit Durban beachfront

One statistically significant difference was evident between respondents that had visited Durban beachfront and those that did not and the cognitive image factor: quality of life ($p < 0.010$) with a practical significant difference (0.34; small effect). No statistically significant differences were found regarding the affective or conative image factors. Table 5.60 portrays the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who visited Durban beachfront and those that did not visit Durban beachfront. Therefore respondents that had visited the Durban beachfront rated quality of life ($\bar{x} = 2.91$, $SD = 0.61$) lower than those that did not visit the Durban beachfront ($\bar{x} = 3.16$, $SD = 0.75$).

Table 5.60: t-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited Durban beachfront and did not visit Durban beachfront)

Image factors	Visited Durban beachfront (N=67)	Did not visit Durban beachfront (N=330)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.07 (\pm .60)	3.98 (\pm .68)	.761	.300	0.14
Cog: QOL	2.91 (\pm .61)	3.16 (\pm .75)	4.502	.010	0.34
Cog: People of South Africa	3.92 (\pm .80)	3.81 (\pm .81)	.183	.336	0.13
Cog: Seasonality	3.91 (\pm .72)	3.93 (\pm .78)	.564	.803	0.03
Cog: Culture and History	3.96 (\pm .59)	3.80 (\pm .70)	2.336	.078	0.23
Con: Intention to react	4.18 (\pm .67)	4.05 (\pm .68)	.023	.142	0.20
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.32 (\pm .78)	3.34 (\pm .70)	.241	.862	0.02
Cog: Marketing	3.35 (\pm .70)	3.44 (\pm .78)	2.090	.356	0.12
Cog: Economic value	3.69 (\pm .85)	3.66 (\pm .80)	1.153	.771	0.04
Aff: Feelings	4.11 (\pm .59)	3.96 (\pm .67)	.357	.084	0.23
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.16 (\pm .44)	4.06 (\pm .55)	4.680	.176	0.18

Cog: Infrastructure & services	3.72 (±.52)	3.77 (±.60)	1.587	.530	0.08
Cog: Excitement	3.82 (±.72)	3.69 (±.79)	.981	.213	0.17

k. Visited Sun City and did not visit Sun City

Table 5.61 portrays the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who visited Sun City and those that did not visit Sun City. One statistically significant difference was indicated regarding the cognitive image factor: marketing ($p < 0.043$) with a practical significant difference (0.25; small effect). No statistically significant differences were indicated regarding affective or conative image factors and these respondents. The respondents that visited Sun City rated marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.58$, $SD = 0.78$) higher than those that did not visit Sun City ($\bar{x} = 3.39$, $SD = 0.76$).

Table 5.61: t-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited Sun City and did not visit Sun City)

Image factors	Visited Sun City (N=78)	Did not visit Sun City (N=319)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.00 (±.67)	3.99 (±.66)	.084	.888	0.02
Cog: QOL	3.24 (±.63)	3.09 (±.75)	4.257	.105	0.20
Cog: People of South Africa	3.72 (±.86)	3.86 (±.80)	2.708	.168	0.16
Cog: Seasonality	3.88 (±.85)	3.94 (±.75)	2.285	.546	0.07
Cog: Culture and History	3.95 (±.64)	3.80 (±.69)	.145	.084	0.22
Con: Intention to react	4.17 (±.56)	4.05 (±.70)	3.598	.134	0.18
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.47 (±.72)	3.30 (±.71)	.511	.053	0.24
Cog: Marketing	3.58 (±.78)	3.39 (±.76)	.021	.043	0.25
Cog: Economic value	3.62 (±.74)	3.68 (±.82)	.769	.520	0.08
Aff: Feelings	3.98 (±.64)	3.99 (±.66)	.000	.889	0.02
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.11 (±.50)	4.07 (±.54)	.187	.583	0.07
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.84 (±.57)	3.74 (±.59)	.644	.161	0.18
Cog: Excitement	3.85 (±.84)	3.68 (±.75)	.950	.078	0.21

I. Visited Cultural Villages and did not visit Cultural Villages

Table 5.62 portrays the statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the values for respondents who visited Cultural Villages and those that did not visit Cultural Villages. Statistically significant differences exist regarding the cognitive, affective and conative image factors. The five cognitive image factors are tourism aspects ($p < 0.042$) with a practical significant difference (0.26; small effect); people of South Africa ($p < 0.025$) with a practical significant difference (0.28; small effect); seasonality ($p < 0.035$) which has a practical significant difference (0.27; small effect); economic value ($p < 0.017$) with a practical significant difference (0.28; small effect); and nature and scenery ($p < 0.036$) with a practical significant difference (0.27; small effect).

The affective image factor includes that of feelings ($p < 0.029$) with a practical significant difference (0.28; small effect); and the conative image factor is that of the intention to react, ($p < 0.049$) which has a practical significant difference (0.25; small effect). The respondents that visited cultural villages rated all of these image factors [tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 4.13$, $SD = 0.61$); people of South Africa ($\bar{x} = 4.02$, $SD = 0.72$); seasonality ($\bar{x} = 4.10$, $SD = 0.73$); intention to react ($\bar{x} = 4.21$, $SD = 0.66$); economic value ($\bar{x} = 3.87$, $SD = 0.90$); feelings ($\bar{x} = 4.14$, $SD = 0.60$); nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 4.20$, $SD = 0.49$)] higher than those that did not visit cultural villages [tourism aspects ($\bar{x} = 3.96$, $SD = 0.67$); people of South Africa ($\bar{x} = 3.79$, $SD = 0.82$); seasonality ($\bar{x} = 3.89$, $SD = 0.77$); intention to react ($\bar{x} = 4.04$, $SD = 0.68$); economic value ($\bar{x} = 3.62$, $SD = 0.78$); feelings ($\bar{x} = 3.95$, $SD = 0.67$); nature and scenery ($\bar{x} = 4.05$, $SD = 0.54$)].

Table 5.62: t-test for comparison of image factors by attractions (Visited Cultural Villages and did not visit Cultural Villages)

Image factors	Visited Cultural Villages (N=75)	Did not visit Cultural Villages (N=322)	F-value	P-value	Effect size
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev			
Cog: Tourism aspects	4.13 (± 0.61)	3.96 (± 0.67)	.001	.042	0.26
Cog: QOL	3.01 (± 0.73)	3.14 (± 0.73)	.100	.179	0.17
Cog: People of South Africa	4.02 (± 0.72)	3.79 (± 0.82)	4.001	.025	0.28
Cog: Seasonality	4.10 (± 0.73)	3.89 (± 0.77)	.178	.035	0.27
Cog: Culture and History	3.96 (± 0.64)	3.80 (± 0.69)	.316	.059	0.24
Con: Intention to react	4.21 (± 0.66)	4.04 (± 0.68)	.192	.049	0.25
Cog: Effectiveness and cleanliness	3.29 (± 0.75)	3.34 (± 0.71)	.037	.609	0.06

Cog: Marketing	3.35 (±.71)	3.45 (±.78)	1.584	.356	0.12
Cog: Economic value	3.87 (±.90)	3.62 (±.78)	3.218	.017	0.28
Aff: Feelings	4.14 (±.60)	3.95 (±.67)	.021	.029	0.28
Cog: Nature and scenery	4.20 (±.49)	4.05 (±.54)	.070	.036	0.27
Cog: Infrastructure and services	3.71 (±.59)	3.77 (±.59)	.045	.449	0.10
Cog: Excitement	3.84 (±.68)	3.68 (±.79)	.404	.118	0.20

5.3.5 Aspects influencing the image of South Africa

A principal axis factor analysis with oblique rotation (direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation) was undertaken to examine the aspects underlying image formation. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.888, which is highly acceptable (Field, 2005:633) with the Bartlett Test of Sphericity ($p < 0.000$). Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Field 2005:633) were generated from 15 image aspects. Sixty-one percent (61%) of the variance was explained by these factors. The factors were labelled: *Media aspects*; *Political aspects* and *Iconic aspects*. These factors are described below. The data used to conduct this factor analysis was question 14 in the questionnaire.

Table 5.63: Principal axis factor analysis with Oblimin rotation for aspects influencing the image of South Africa

Aspects influencing the image of South Africa Factor label	Factor loadings		
	<i>Media Aspects</i>	<i>Political aspects</i>	<i>Iconic aspects</i>
<i>Media Aspects</i>			
Television programmes about South Africa in general	0.854		
Television programmes about the history of South Africa	0.841		
Movies	0.580		
Nature programmes about South Africa	0.534		
Internet	0.366		
<i>Political aspects</i>			
Safety and Security		0.706	
Political climate		0.638	
<i>Iconic aspects</i>			
Sport events within South Africa (example World Cup)			0.798
Famous icons (example Nelson Mandela)			0.640
Business events within South Africa (example Conferences)			0.595
Famous landmarks (example Table mountain/Robben Island)			0.529
Culture events within South Africa (example Festivals)			0.422

News/Media on South Africa	0.350		
Cronbach's α reliability coefficient	0.82	0.69	0.81
Inter-item correlations	0.48	0.53	0.42
Mean value (standard deviation)	2.72 (\pm .76)	2.76 (\pm .87)	2.81 (\pm .73)

Table 5.64: Factor correlation matrix

Factor	Media aspects	Political aspects	Iconic aspects
Media aspects	1.000	.334	.606
Political aspects	.334	1.000	.267
Iconic aspects	.606	.267	1.000

The factor correlation matrix indicated mostly small correlations; this indicates independence amongst the factors (see Table 5.63 and Table 5.64).

- **Factor 1: Media aspects**

Factor 1 consists of five image aspects, which included “Television programmes about South Africa in general” with a factor loading of 0.854; “Television programmes about the history of South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.841; “Movies” with a factor loading of 0.580; “Nature programmes about South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.534. The factor’s Cronbach Alpha is 0.82, its inter-item correlation is 0.48 and its mean value (standard deviation) is 2.72 (\pm 0.76).

- **Factor 2: Political aspects**

Two image aspects formed part of factor 2, which includes “Safety and Security” with a factor loading of 0.706 and “Political climate” with a factor loading of 0.638. The factor has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.69, an inter-item correlation of 0.53 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 2.76 (\pm 0.87).

- **Factor 3: Iconic aspects**

This factor has a Cronbach Alpha of 0.81, an inter-item correlation of 0.42 and a mean value (standard deviation) of 2.81 (\pm 0.73) and consists of six image aspects. These image aspects are “Sport events within South Africa (example World Cup)”, which has a factor loading of 0.798; “Famous icons (example Nelson Mandela)” with a factor loading of 0.640; “Business events within South Africa (example conferences)” with a factor loading of 0.595; “Famous landmarks (example Table mountain /Robben Island)” with a factor loading of 0.529; “Culture events within South Africa (example Festivals)” with a factor loading of 0.422; and “News /Media on South Africa” with a factor loading of 0.350.

Two image aspects' loadings were too small to form part of the factors and were compared to the image factors separately. The two image aspects being "family and friends" (word of mouth) and "immigrated South Africans" will be discussed as separate aspects.

5.3.5.1 Comparison of image factors by influencing aspects

In this section, the differences in the importance of image factors for various image aspects are analysed. Spearman rank correlations were conducted to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the 13 image factors and the aspects influencing these images.

Table 5.65: Spearman rank correlations for image factors by influencing factors

Influencing factors Image factors	Media aspects		Political aspects		Iconic aspects	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Cog: Tourism aspects	.147 [*]	.003	.176 [*]	.000	.073	.147
Cog: QOL	.394 ^{**}	.000	.434 ^{**}	.000	.109 [*]	.028
Cog: People of South Africa	.112 [*]	.023	.031	.527	.024	.628
Cog: Seasonality	.100 [*]	.041	.099 [*]	.043	.140 ^{**}	.004
Cog: Culture & History	.303 ^{**}	.000	.283 ^{**}	.000	.146 ^{**}	.004
Con: Intention to react	.240 ^{**}	.000	.256 ^{**}	.000	.116 [*]	.018
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	.273 ^{**}	.000	.339 ^{**}	.000	.060	.229
Cog: Marketing	.329 ^{**}	.000	.378 ^{**}	.000	.066	.191
Cog: Economic value	.109 [*]	.028	.030	.549	.075	.134
Aff: Feelings	.212 ^{**}	.000	.219 ^{**}	.000	.128 ^{**}	.009
Cog: Nature & scenery	.123 [*]	.012	.112 [*]	.021	.101 [*]	.040
Cog: Infrastructure & services	.364 ^{**}	.000	.423 ^{**}	.000	.136 ^{**}	.006
Cog: Excitement	.290 ^{**}	.000	.357 ^{**}	.000	.149 ^{**}	.004

a. Media aspects

Table 5.65 indicates that correlations ($p < 0.05$) between cognitive, affective and conative image factors and media aspects occur. Media aspects affect all 13 image factors. Respondents who indicated that media aspects had, to a great extent, affected their image

formation, correlated with the following cognitive image factors: tourism aspects ($\rho = 0.147$; small correlation); quality of life ($\rho = 0.394$; medium correlation); people of South Africa ($\rho = 0.112$; small correlation); seasonality ($\rho = 0.100$; small correlation); culture and history ($\rho = 0.303$; medium correlation); effectiveness and cleanliness ($\rho = 0.273$; small to medium correlation); marketing ($\rho = 0.329$; medium correlation); economic value ($\rho = 0.109$; small correlation); nature and scenery ($\rho = 0.123$; small correlation) infrastructure and services ($\rho = 0.364$; medium correlation) and excitement, which refers to sport events, entertainment and night life in South Africa, ($\rho = 0.290$; small to medium correlation) which were all rated to be more positive than negative. Both the affective: feelings ($\rho = 0.212$; small correlation) and conative: intention to react factors ($\rho = 0.240$; small to medium correlation) were also rated more positively by the respondents which indicates that media aspects have a great influence on their image formation.

b. Political aspects

According to Table 5.65, correlations between cognitive, affective and conative image factors occurred; and indicated a significant ($p < 0.05$) positive correlation with political aspects. Respondents who indicated that political aspects had a great influence on their image formation correlated with the following cognitive image factors: Tourism aspects ($\rho = 0.176$; small correlation); quality of life ($\rho = 0.434$; medium correlation); seasonality ($\rho = 0.099$; small correlation); culture and history ($\rho = 0.283$; small correlation); effectiveness and cleanliness ($\rho = 0.339$; medium correlation); marketing ($\rho = 0.378$; medium correlation); nature and scenery ($\rho = 0.112$; small correlation); infrastructure and services ($\rho = 0.423$; medium to large correlation); and excitement ($\rho = 0.357$; medium correlation) were all rated to be more positive than negative. Both affective: feelings ($\rho = 0.219$; small correlation) and conative: intention to react ($\rho = 0.256$; small correlation) image factors were also rated to be more positive amongst the respondents that indicated that political aspects had a great influence on their image formation.

c. Iconic aspects

According to Table 5.65, six correlations between cognitive image factors occurred and indicated a significant ($p < 0.05$) positive correlation with iconic aspects. Both the affective image factor: feelings and conative image factor: intention to react, also had correlations with iconic aspects. Respondents who indicated that iconic aspects had a great extent on their image formation correlated with the following cognitive image factors: quality of life ($\rho = 0.109$; small correlation); seasonality ($\rho = 0.140$; small correlation); culture and history, which consists of cultural and historical attractions, arts and cultural events and souvenirs, ($\rho = 0.146$; small correlation); nature and scenery ($\rho = 0.101$; small correlation); infrastructure

and services (rho= 0.136; small correlation); and excitement (rho= 0.149; small correlation) were all rated to be more positive than negative. The affective image factor: feelings (rho= 0.128; small correlation) and the conative image factor: intention to react (rho= 0.116; small correlation) was also rated more positive than negative by respondents who indicated that iconic aspects had a great influence on their image formation.

5.3.5.2 Comparison of image factors by individual influencing aspects

Below, two of the image aspects, family and friends (word of mouth) and immigrated South Africans did not group with the media, political or iconic aspects in the factor analysis, and is therefore described separately. Spearman's rank correlation was used to test the association between the image factors and the individual influencing aspects.

Table 5.66: Spearman rank correlations of image factors by individual influencing aspects

Influencing aspects Image factors	Family and friends		Immigrated South Africans	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Cog: Tourism aspects	.131**	.010	.021	.688
Cog: QOL	.006	.911	.178**	.000
Cog: People of South Africa	.087	.083	.042	.406
Cog: Seasonality	.185**	.000	.104*	.040
Cog: Culture & History	.203**	.000	.204**	.000
Con: Intention to react	.139**	.005	.097	.057
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	.098	.051	.162**	.001
Cog: Marketing	.108*	.034	.133*	.010
Cog: Economic value	.048	.340	.062	.225
Aff: Feelings	.202**	.000	.047	.355
Cog: Nature & scenery	.115*	.021	.019	.704
Cog: Infrastructure & services	.055	.272	.182**	.000
Cog: Excitement	.141**	.007	.223**	.000

a. Family and friends (word of mouth)

Eight correlations between cognitive, affective and conative image factors correlated with friends and family (word of mouth) ($p < 0.05$). Respondents who indicated that friends and family (word of mouth) influenced their image of South Africa to a great extent, rated all

these image factors more positively than negatively. The cognitive image factors include tourism aspects ($\rho = 0.131$; small correlation); seasonality, which includes the weather and climate of South Africa and the season in which the respondents had visited the country, ($\rho = 0.185$; small correlation); and culture and history ($\rho = 0.203$; small correlation); marketing ($\rho = 0.108$; small correlation); nature and scenery ($\rho = 0.115$; small correlation); and excitement ($\rho = 0.141$; small correlation). The affective image factor: feelings ($\rho = 0.202$; small correlation) and the conative image factor: intention to react ($\rho = 0.139$; small correlation) also indicated a positive feeling by the respondents. This highlights the importance of word of mouth in image formation and what effect it could have on potential tourists' image of the destination (see Table 5.66).

b. Immigrated South Africans

According to Table 5.66, seven correlations between cognitive image factors occurred and indicated a significant ($p < 0.05$) positive correlation with immigrated South Africans. No correlations occurred regarding the affective and conative image factors. Respondents who indicated that immigrated South Africans had influenced their image formation to a great extent, correlated with the following cognitive image factors: quality of life ($\rho = 0.178$; small correlation); seasonality ($\rho = 0.104$; small correlation); culture and history ($\rho = 0.204$; small correlation); effectiveness and cleanliness ($\rho = 0.162$; small correlation); marketing ($\rho = 0.133$; small correlation); infrastructure and services ($\rho = 0.182$; small correlation) and excitement ($\rho = 0.223$; small correlation) and again were all rated to be more positive than negative. Therefore, immigrated South Africans indeed affect the image formation of tourists.

5.3.6 SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTIVE AND EXPLORATORY RESULTS

From the above analyses the results are summarised in the following section.

5.3.6.1 Aspects that have an influence on cognitive image factors

A total of 24 aspects had an influence on cognitive factors. These aspects are:

- Gender: Gender has one small significant difference regarding the cognitive image factors.
- Age: Age has two correlations with the cognitive image factors. One of which is positive and one that is negative.
- Continent (Place) of residence: The continents from which the tourists originate have a definite influence. Respondents from different continents rated the factors differently and a total of eight significant differences occurred.
- Marital status: Marital status also had an effect on the cognitive image factors with two significant differences.
- Occupation: Occupation indicates three significant differences regarding the cognitive image factors.
- Accommodation: Three accommodation types had an effect on cognitive factors. These were family and friends, backpackers and lodges. Family and friends had one significant difference with a small effect. Three significant differences of which two were medium effects and one was a small effect occurred with backpackers. Lodges had six small significant differences.
- Times visited South Africa: Six correlations were present between the number of times respondents had visited South Africa and cognitive image factors, all of which were small correlations. Four were indicated as positive and two were indicated as being negative.
- Transport: All four transport types affected cognitive image factors, although some methods did have very high N-values, which should be taken into consideration and should be interpreted cautiously, specifically regarding airplanes as a method of transport. Concerning air transport, four significant differences occurred, which were all large effects. One significant difference with a medium effect occurred concerning rental cars; and three significant differences occurred between bus transport and the cognitive image factors, one of which had a medium effect and two that had small effects. Rail transport indicated one small and one medium significant difference.
- Number of people in travel group: One small correlation, which was rated positively, was present regarding the cognitive image factors.

- Total average spending: Respondents' total average spending indicated that nine correlations existed between cognitive factors, eight of which had small correlations and one with a small to medium correlation. Four of these correlations were rated as having a positive impact and five had a negative impact on the respondents' image formation.
- Spending per person: Six small correlations arose between cognitive image factors and spending per person. Three were indicated negatively and three were seen as positive.
- Main reason for visiting South Africa: Seven of eight main reasons for visiting South Africa had an effect on cognitive factors. These seven reasons were business, visiting family and friends, sport, shopping, adventure, culture, as well as historic and medical reasons. Some of these reasons had very low N-values; therefore the results should be read with caution, specifically regarding sport, shopping, culture and historic and medical. Business had five significant differences, all of which had small effects. The respondents' whose main reason was visiting friends and family had three significant differences, two of which were small and one a medium effect. Sport as the main reason for visiting had one large significant difference. However, only eight respondents indicated that their main reason for visiting the country was for sport. Therefore the N-value is very low and further research regarding sport as a reason for visiting South Africa should be conducted. Shopping had four significant differences, of which three had a medium effect and one had a small effect. However the number of questionnaires completed were very few (N=24). One small significant difference occurred amongst adventure as the main reason for visiting; and culture and history had two significant differences with one having a medium and one having a large effect; and again the response was low (N=11). Lastly, respondents that had visited South Africa for medical reasons had two medium significant differences though again, in this instance, the N-value was very low (N=9).
- Heard about South Africa: Five aspects regarding how the respondents had heard about South Africa which, in this case, is via television with four small significant differences, radio with one small significant difference, internet websites with two small significant differences; newspapers with two small and one medium significant difference; and social media with one small significant difference. All of these had effects on the cognitive image factors.
- Length of stay: Five small correlations occurred, of which three had a positive effect and two had a negative effect regarding the cognitive image factors
- Negative experience: Having a negative experience during their visit to South Africa, revealed three significant differences, all of which had a small effect on cognitive image factors.

- Feelings towards South Africa before visit: The respondents' feelings towards South Africa before their visit had two small significant differences.
- Perception after visit: Their perception after they had visited the country had one small significant difference concerning cognitive image factors.
- Negative publicity: Two significant differences with small effects were found between cognitive factors and negative publicity.
- Attractions: The attractions that had an effect on cognitive image factors were National Parks with eight significant differences of which one was a medium effect and seven were small effects. The Garden Route had three small significant differences. The V&A Waterfront had two small significant differences. Johannesburg had one small significant difference. The Winelands had five small significant differences and Table Mountain had three small significant differences between the cognitive image factors. Durban beachfront and Sun City each had one small significant difference and, finally, Cultural villages had five small significant differences.
- Media aspects: Media aspects had 11 correlations of which five were small, four were medium and two were small to medium. All of these correlations were rated as having a positive effect on cognitive image factors.
- Political aspects: Nine correlations between political aspects and cognitive image factors existed of which four had small correlations, four had medium correlations and one had a medium to large correlation. All of these were rated positively.
- Iconic aspects: Iconic aspects led to having six small correlations concerning cognitive image factors, all of which were once again rated as having a positive effect.
- Family and friends (word of mouth): Family and friends (word of mouth) had six small correlations between cognitive image factors; and both were rated positively.
- Immigrated South Africans: Immigrated South Africans had a total of seven small correlations regarding cognitive image factors, which again were rated positively by the respondents.

5.3.6.2 Aspects that have an influence on affective image factors

Eleven aspects had an influence on the affective factor: feelings, which are:

- Accommodation: One accommodation type, which was that of Lodges, had a significant difference with a small effect on the affective image factor.
- Transport: The mode of transport that had an effect on affective factors was that of airplanes, with one significant difference having a medium effect. Again, the N-values were very high and these results should be treated with caution.

- Main reason for visiting South Africa: The main reason for visiting South Africa that had an effect was that of business, which had one small significant difference.
- Heard about South Africa: Respondents that heard about South Africa via television also had one small significant difference.
- Negative experience: Those respondents who had experienced a negative incident during their visit to the country, had one small significant difference regarding the affective image factor.
- Feeling towards South Africa before visit: The feeling of respondents towards South Africa before their visit had a medium effect on the affective image factor with one significant difference.
- Perception after visit: After having visited South Africa, respondents indicated that their perception had a small significant difference toward the affective image factor.
- Attractions: A total of two attractions had affected the respondents' image formation with regard to the affective image factor: feelings. These included Table Mountain and Cultural villages, which each had a small significant difference.
- Media aspects: One small correlation regarding the affective image factor: feelings, occurred which was rated as positive.
- Political aspects: Political aspects had one small correlation between the affective image factor: feelings; and it was rated as positive.
- Iconic aspects: One small positive correlation between the affective image factor: feelings occurred in iconic aspects.
- Family and friends (word of mouth): A small correlation between the affective image factor: feelings, occurred which was rated as positive.

5.3.6.3 Aspects that have an influence on conative image factors

Aspects that have an influence on the conative image factor: intention to react accounted for 12 aspects and included the following:

- Accommodation: Respondents who stayed with family and friends and in hotels both had one significant difference with a small effect on the conative image factor.
- Transport: Airplane transport had a large significant difference; again the N-values were very high and should be interpreted with caution.
- Reason for visit: Three main reasons for visiting South Africa had significant differences. These include visiting family and friends with a small significant difference; culture and historic reasons with a medium significant difference; and medical reasons which have a

large significant difference. The last two had low N-values and the findings are to be viewed with caution.

- Length of stay: The respondents' length of stay had one small correlation regarding the conative image factor: intention to react, which was rated as having a positive effect on their image formation.
- Negative experience: One small significant difference regarding the conative image factor occurred.
- Feelings towards South Africa before visit: A small significant difference towards the conative image factor was present.
- Perception after visit: The conative image factor was affected and one small significant difference occurred regarding it.
- Attractions: The only attraction that had an effect on the respondents' image formation regarding the conative image factor was that of cultural villages with a small significant difference.
- Media aspects: One correlation with a medium effect occurred between media aspects and the conative image factor, which was rated positively.
- Political aspects: Political aspects had one small correlation between the conative image factor and was rated positively by the respondents.
- Iconic aspects: One small correlation occurred regarding intention to react and was rated as being positive in terms of their image formation.
- Family and friends (word of mouth): One small correlation regarding the conative image factor occurred and was rated positively by the respondents.

Therefore, the main aspects that have an effect on all three types of image factors (cognitive; affective and conative) include:

- Accommodation
- Transport
- Main reason for visiting South Africa
- Negative experience
- Feelings towards South Africa before visit
- Perception after visit
- Attractions
- Media aspects
- Political aspects
- Iconic aspects
- Family and friends (word of mouth)

5.3.6.4 Aspects that has no effect on image formation factors

Four aspects showed to have had no effect whatsoever on the image formation factors. These are:

- Level of education
- The main reason for visiting the country (specifically holiday and leisure)
- How respondents heard about South Africa (specifically via word of mouth, travel agents and travel guides)
- Attractions which includes Robben Island, Soweto and Cradle of Humankind

5.4 INFERENTIAL RESULTS

According to Trochim (2006); when referring to inferential results or statistics, conclusions are trying to be reached which extend beyond the immediate data. Therefore it is used to determine what the population might think which is done by inferring the sample data. These statistics are also used to make judgements of the probability. To determine whether an observed difference between groups is a reliable one or one that has happened coincidentally. Therefore, implications are used to make more general conclusions.

The inferential results include the process or steps in structural equation modelling (SEM) as described in Chapter 4, specifically Figure 4.3, with regard to this study.

5.4.1 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

The current study engaged the statistical technique of SEM, by empirically testing a framework for optimising the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. In doing so, it enabled the researcher to evaluate how well the data supports the hypothesised model. A clear discussion was provided in Chapter 4 with regard to SEM and these steps were applied as follows.

5.4.1.1 Step 1: Define the individual constructs

Step 1 in SEM is to define and identify the constructs. This was used in this study. The main purpose of this study was to develop a framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. In doing the literature review, it was found that no such research has been performed regarding the image formation of South Africa as a tourism destination; therefore, a gap exists in image formation research. The literature review (chapter 3) delivered insight into various components and attributes that are used in determining the image of a destination (See sections 3.2.1 and 3.6.3).

After these components and attributes were identified, of the 51 cognitive image attributes, 42 formed part of this study. Eleven affective attributes were identified in the literature review, which were adjusted according to expert opinion. Therefore 12 affective attributes were finally included. Three conative image attributes were formulated for this study, since two extra conative attributes were added to the questionnaire. These changes were based on expert opinions (see Appendix A: questionnaire).

After these attributes were analysed, thirteen factors were derived, of which 11 factors were of a cognitive nature; and one affective and one conative factor respectively, were identified.

These three components form the constructs in this framework, which are cognitive (consisting of 11 factors). These 11 factors consisted of the identified attributes and were discussed in detail in section 5.3.1. The affective construct consist of six observed variables and the conative construct consists of five observed variables.

The aspects influencing image formation was factor analysed and identified as Media, Political and Icons factors. Icons consisted of six observed variables, media consisted of five observed variables and political consisted of two observed variables (As described in section 5.3.5). The purpose of the model was therefore to determine how the different constructs impact image formation.

5.4.1.2 Step 2: Develop and specify the measurement model

Based on the literature review in chapters 2 and 3, a hypothesised model was developed, which must be tested and proved to be either supportive or not supportive of the hypothesised model. Six main constructs with 35 observed variables were identified. The six constructs are media, political and icons (exogenous); and cognitive, affective and conative (endogenous). Icons are represented by six observed variables, media by five observed variables and political by two observed variables. Cognitive image is represented by the 11 factors identified, all of which had Cronbach Alpha values between 0.65 and 0.88, providing evidence of construct reliability (See Tables 5.8a and 5.8b). The affective construct consists of six observed variables as loaded in the factor named Affective: feelings; and the conative construct consists of five observed variables as loaded in the factor Conative: intention to react (See section 5.3.1). The observed variables of the Media, Political and Icons constructs are represented by the three factors identified (see Table 5.63) with Cronbach Alpha values ranging between 0.69 and 0.82, once again ensuring construct reliability.

Although these constructs remained the same in all four models, the purpose of Model A was to include all constructs. After that, three models were tested by taking into account only one

influencing factor at a time. Thus, the last three models focused individually on each of the exogenous constructs, Media (Model B), Political (Model C) and Icons (Model D), and regarding the endogenous constructs cognitive, affective and conative image. Therefore, these three models consisted of four constructs in each model.

The correlations between the factors labelled as media, political and icons, also showed evidence of construct validity, since these correlations were all adequate for inclusion in the SEM analysis. The correlation coefficients amongst all factors were therefore significant. Table 5.67 (exogenous constructs) and Table 5.68 (endogenous constructs) confirm that the data was considered to be viable and reliable for testing the structural model. The measurement model consequently approves the sample data, which is therefore appropriate for use. The correlation matrix of the endogenous constructs are portrayed in Table 5.9.

The validity of the constructs is also considered acceptable due to the high correlations between factors. The Spearman rank correlations resulted significant positive correlations between all image factors with some correlation coefficients being low and others being high. This indicates that the individual items are considered being reliable and valid for testing the model. Therefore the constructs and their individual items comply with the sample data and are appropriate for use in the SEM analysis (see Tables 5.67 and 5.68).

Table 5.67: Spearman correlations as measure of Appropriateness of measurement model: Exogenous constructs

Construct	Construct reliability (α)	Amount of variance (%)	Correlation matrix		
			Media aspects	Political aspects	Iconic aspects
Media aspects	0.82	41.89	1.000	.334	.606
Political aspects	0.69	10.72	.334	1.000	.267
Iconic aspects	0.81	8.80	.606	.267	1.000

Table 5.68: Appropriateness of measurement model: Endogenous constructs

Construct	Construct reliability (α)	Amount of variance (%)
Cog: Tourism aspects	0.83	28.57
Cog: QOL	0.82	10.54
Cog: People of South Africa	0.70	3.94
Cog: Seasonality	0.71	3.56
Cog: Culture & History	0.83	2.83

Con: Intention to react	0.78	2.55
Cog: Effectiveness & cleanliness	0.80	2.32
Cog: Marketing	0.86	2.26
Cog: Economic value	0.67	2.12
Aff: Feelings	0.88	2.00
Cog: Nature & scenery	0.71	1.93
Cog: Infrastructure & services	0.85	1.87
Cog: Excitement	0.69	1.83

5.4.1.3 Step 3: Designing a study to analyse empirical results

The next step in the SEM analysis is designing a study to analyse the empirical results, which focuses on the type of data and the sample size used, as discussed in Chapter 4. This includes the estimation techniques and the computer software used to analyse the data of the study. SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS™ version 21) was used to analyse the data after which the Maximum likelihood estimation (ML) was the estimation technique used for this specific data interpretation. ML estimates are reliable, balanced, effective, scale invariant, unrestricted and normally distributed if the multivariate normality assumption is met by the observed variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010:86).

The number of valid questionnaires that formed part of this specific study was 451. The SEM analysis is based on correlation data and this specifies the degree to which the variation in one variable is related to the variation in another variable. For the purpose of this study's structural equation modelling, the fit indices that were used included Chi-square (χ^2), relative /normed Chi-square (CMIN/DF), RMSEA and CFI (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:718 & Hooper *et al.*, 2008:53-55).

5.4.1.4 Step 4: Specify the structural models

Four models were developed. Models A, B, C and D. Model A tested the relationships between all constructs, which resulted in nine hypotheses. With Models B (Media), C (Political) and D (Icons), the relationships between the individual constructs and the cognitive, affective and conative image constructs were tested to determine the best fit. These three models resulted in three hypotheses each. All four models are discussed next.

5.4.1.4a Structural Model A: Media, Political and Icons aspects to Cognitive, Affective and Conative images

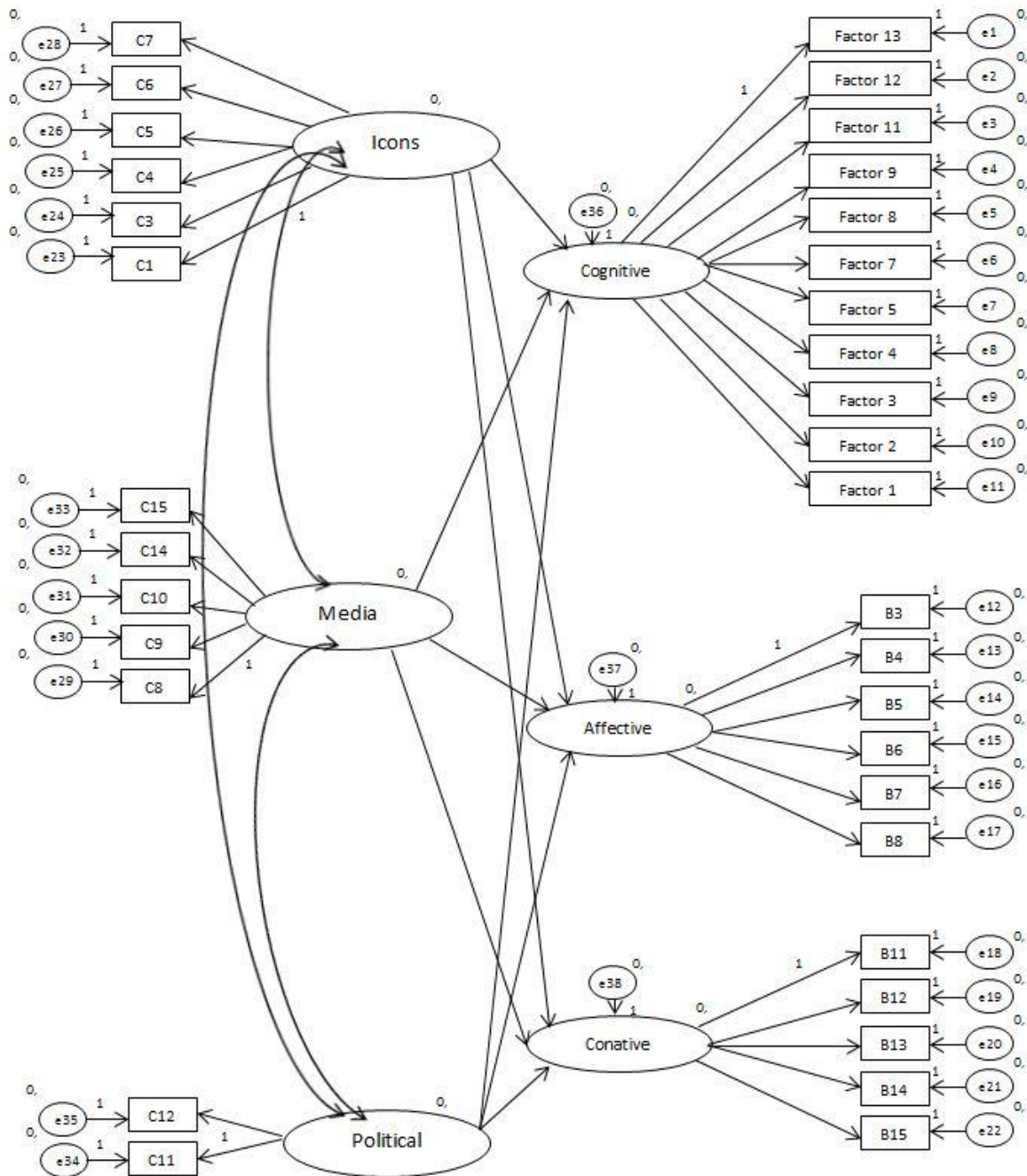


Figure 5.1: Model A: The effect of Media, Political aspects and Icons on Cognitive, Affective and Conative images

Model A includes all six constructs, Media, Political and Icons that are the exogenous constructs (independent variables); and Cognitive, Affective and Conative, which are

endogenous constructs (dependent variables). Nine hypotheses were tested and will be discussed next (see Figure 5.1).

Table 5.69: Maximum likelihood estimates – regression weights for Model A

Items				Standardised regression Weights	Standard error	C.R.	P-label
Conative	<---	Political	H6	-1.040	.584	-1.167	.243
Affective	<---	Political	H5	-1.193	.650	-1.165	.244
Cognitive	<---	Political	H4	-.954	.465	-1.203	.229
Cognitive	<---	Media	H1	-11.471	5.288	-1.521	.128
Affective	<---	Media	H2	-15.078	7.396	-1.546	.122
Conative	<---	Media	H3	-13.118	6.645	-1.547	.122
Cognitive	<---	Icons	H7	12.454	9.542	1.579	.114
Affective	<---	Icons	H8	15.979	13.340	1.568	.117
Conative	<---	Icons	H9	13.904	11.984	1.568	.117
Factor13	<---	Cognitive		.685	-	-	-
Factor12	<---	Cognitive		.719	.062	13.108	***<0.001
Factor11	<---	Cognitive		.712	.057	13.005	***<0.001
Factor9	<---	Cognitive		.481	.079	9.083	***<0.001
Factor8	<---	Cognitive		.668	.079	12.090	***<0.001
Factor7	<---	Cognitive		.617	.072	11.397	***<0.001
Factor5	<---	Cognitive		.696	.071	12.584	***<0.001
Factor4	<---	Cognitive		.417	.074	8.045	***<0.001
Factor3	<---	Cognitive		.405	.079	7.760	***<0.001
Factor2	<---	Cognitive		.585	.075	10.893	***<0.001
Factor1	<---	Cognitive		.724	.068	13.084	***<0.001
B3	<---	Affective		.730	-	-	-
B4	<---	Affective		.729	.078	14.415	***<0.001
B5	<---	Affective		.794	.072	15.579	***<0.001
B6	<---	Affective		.849	.069	16.759	***<0.001
B7	<---	Affective		.734	.072	14.292	***<0.001
B8	<---	Affective		.687	.075	13.483	***<0.001
B11	<---	Conative		.794	-	-	-
B12	<---	Conative		.823	.058	17.483	***<0.001
B13	<---	Conative		.618	.075	12.506	***<0.001
B14	<---	Conative		.399	.111	7.501	***<0.001
B15	<---	Conative		.785	.065	16.631	***<0.001
C1	<---	Icons		.520	-	-	-
C3	<---	Icons		.590	.145	8.906	***<0.001
C4	<---	Icons		.516	.129	8.144	***<0.001
C5	<---	Icons		.618	.166	9.160	***<0.001
C6	<---	Icons		.662	.165	9.531	***<0.001
C7	<---	Icons		.723	.160	10.005	***<0.001
C8	<---	Media		.777	-	-	-
C9	<---	Media		.821	.060	17.209	***<0.001
C10	<---	Media		.473	.061	9.252	***<0.001
C14	<---	Media		.716	.062	14.593	***<0.001
C15	<---	Media		.602	.065	12.060	***<0.001
C11	<---	Political		.946	-	-	-
C12	<---	Political		.550	.049	12.125	***<0.001

Table 5.70: Hypotheses for Model A

Hypotheses for model A	
H1	There is a direct relationship between Media and Cognitive image
H2	There is a direct relationship between Media and Affective image
H3	There is a direct relationship between Media and Conative image
H4	There is a direct relationship between Political and Cognitive image
H5	There is a direct relationship between Political and Affective image
H6	There is a direct relationship between Political and Conative image
H7	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Cognitive image
H8	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Affective image
H9	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Conative image

- **Hypotheses supported for model A**

Nine hypotheses were present in model A, as indicated in Table 5.70. None of these hypotheses had a significant p-value ($p < 0.05$) and therefore did not support any relationships between the exogenous constructs (media, political and iconic aspects) and the endogenous constructs (cognitive image, affective image and conative image) (see Table 5.69).

- **Hypothesis not supported for model A**

Each of the hypotheses between media and image had the following results. Hypothesis 1 (H1), which is the direct relationship between media and cognitive image ($p = 0.128$) with a standardised regression weight -11.471 . Hypothesis 2 (H2), which is the direct relationship between media and affective image ($p = 0.122$) had a standardised regression weight of -15.078 . The direct relationship between media and conative image (H3), with a p-value ($p = 0.122$) and a standardised regression weight of -13.118 .

The next three hypotheses were between political and the different types of image. Neither of these hypotheses were supported for hypothesis 4 (H4), the direct relationship between political and cognitive image, has a p-value ($p = 0.229$) with a standardised regression weight of -0.954 . Hypothesis 5 (H5), the direct relationship between political and affective image, has a standardised regression weight of -1.193 and a p-value ($p = 0.244$). Hypothesis 6 (H6) which is the direct relationship between political and conative image has a p-value ($p = 0.243$) and a standardised regression weight of -1.040 .

The final three hypotheses between icons and image resulted in the following. Hypothesis 7 (H7), which is the direct relationship between icons and cognitive image did not have a

significant p-value ($p=0.114$) and its standardised regression weight was 12.454. The direct relationship between icons and affective image (H8), did not have a statistical significance smaller than 0.001 ($p=0.117$) and its standardised regression weight was 15.979. Hypothesis 9 (H9), which is the direct relationship between icons and conative image, did not have a statistical significance ($p=0.117$) and its standardised regression weight of 13.904 also did not support it.

Therefore, respondents did not perceive the combined constructs: icons, media and political, as having an effect on their image formation. Even though none of the hypotheses were supported, it is not necessarily a poor model. It shows that, specifically for South Africa, not all three exogenous constructs, in combination, necessarily have an impact on image formation. However, if the media, political and icons constructs are individually compared to the cognitive, affective and conative image constructs, there are hypotheses which are supported, indicating that, individually, these constructs do have an effect on image formation. It was therefore decided that each of these constructs be individually analysed; and models B, C and D were derived. These models and their hypotheses will be discussed next. Table 5.65 shows the Spearman rank correlations which indicated the reliability between the constructs and the image factors as discussed in Step 2 (c.f.5.4.1.2).

5.4.1.4b Structural Model B: Media aspects to Cognitive, Affective and Conative images

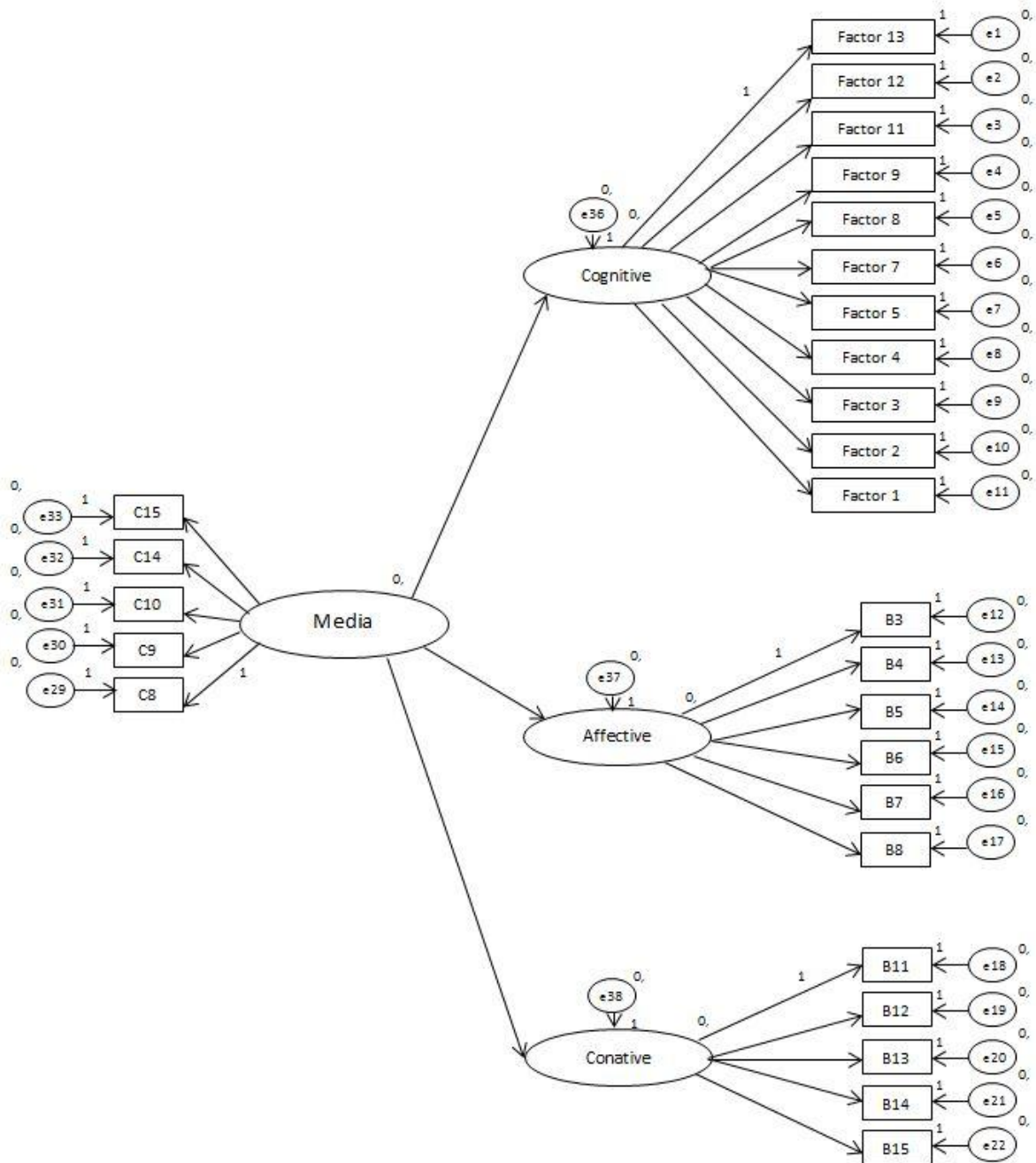


Figure 5.2: Model B: The effect of Media aspects on Cognitive, Affective and Conative images

Media was itemised as the exogenous construct (independent variables); and the three image constructs cognitive, affective and conative as the endogenous constructs (dependent variables) in Model B. In Figure 5.2 the resulting direct relationships in the SEM analysis for this model are illustrated through single-headed arrows. Therefore, connecting Media (independent construct) with cognitive, affective and conative image as the dependent constructs. According to Table 5.71, it is clear that the standardised regression weights of all the items were statistically significant. All three hypotheses were statistically significant

($p < 0.001$). These three hypotheses being (H1)= direct relationship between media and cognitive image; (H2)= direct relationship between media; and affective image and (H3)= direct relationship between media and conative image (See Table 5.72). The discussion of each hypothesis will follow.

Table 5.71: Maximum likelihood estimates – regression weights for Model B

Items				Standardised Regression Weights	Standard error	C.R.	P-label
Cognitive	<---	Media	H1	.509	.039	8.230	***<0.001
Affective	<---	Media	H2	.315	.039	5.486	***<0.001
Conative	<---	Media	H3	.286	.041	5.004	***<0.001
Factor13	<---	Cognitive		.652	-	-	-
Factor12	<---	Cognitive		.789	.071	13.149	***<0.001
Factor11	<---	Cognitive		.623	.063	11.024	***<0.001
Factor9	<---	Cognitive		.430	.085	7.930	***<0.001
Factor8	<---	Cognitive		.732	.090	12.301	***<0.001
Factor7	<---	Cognitive		.677	.082	11.682	***<0.001
Factor5	<---	Cognitive		.661	.079	11.382	***<0.001
Factor4	<---	Cognitive		.373	.079	7.054	***<0.001
Factor3	<---	Cognitive		.332	.085	6.278	***<0.001
Factor2	<---	Cognitive		.655	.084	11.401	***<0.001
Factor1	<---	Cognitive		.679	.075	11.689	***<0.001
B3	<---	Affective		.692	-	-	-
B4	<---	Affective		.718	.088	13.240	***<0.001
B5	<---	Affective		.814	.082	14.684	***<0.001
B6	<---	Affective		.863	.080	15.454	***<0.001
B7	<---	Affective		.739	.081	13.432	***<0.001
B8	<---	Affective		.644	.084	11.931	***<0.001
B11	<---	Conative		.762	-	-	-
B12	<---	Conative		.862	.067	16.575	***<0.001
B13	<---	Conative		.618	.082	12.005	***<0.001
B14	<---	Conative		.380	.118	6.992	***<0.001
B15	<---	Conative		.780	.073	15.455	***<0.001
C8	<---	Media		.812	-	-	-
C9	<---	Media		.858	.058	17.871	***<0.001
C10	<---	Media		.548	.057	10.826	***<0.001
C14	<---	Media		.708	.059	14.484	***<0.001
C15	<---	Media		.577	.063	11.493	***<0.001

Table 5.72: Hypotheses for Model B

Hypotheses for model B	
H1	There is a direct relationship between Media and Cognitive image
H2	There is a direct relationship between Media and Affective image
H3	There is a direct relationship between Media and Conative image

- **Hypotheses supported for model B**

The direct relationship between media and cognitive image, hypothesis 1 (H1), was supported with a p -value <0.001 and a standard regression weight of 0.509. The respondents therefore perceived media as having an effect on their cognitive image of South Africa. With regards to cognitive image formation, this supports the finding of Molina, Gómez & Martin-Consuegra (2010:727), which proved that the use of promotion tools had a strong influence on the formation of tourist destination images. Additionally, the research revealed that the image created by tourist brochures is firmly associated with actual destination image. This also supports the research of Gren & Gunnarsdóttir (2008:427) who state that the internet, of which social media is a part, has undeniably become a predominantly important provider and creator of images of tourist destinations.

Hypothesis 2 (H2), which is the direct relationship between media and affective image is also definite with statistical significance (p -value <0.001) and a standardised regression weight of 0.315. Therefore, respondents perceive media as having an effect on how they formulate their affective image towards South Africa.

Support for hypothesis 3 (H3) was evident with statistical significance (p -value <0.001) and a standardised regression weight of 0.286. This confirms that there is a direct relationship between media and cognitive image; and that respondents perceive media as an aspect affecting their cognitive image of South Africa.

5.4.1.4c Structural Model C: Political aspects to Cognitive, Affective and Conative images

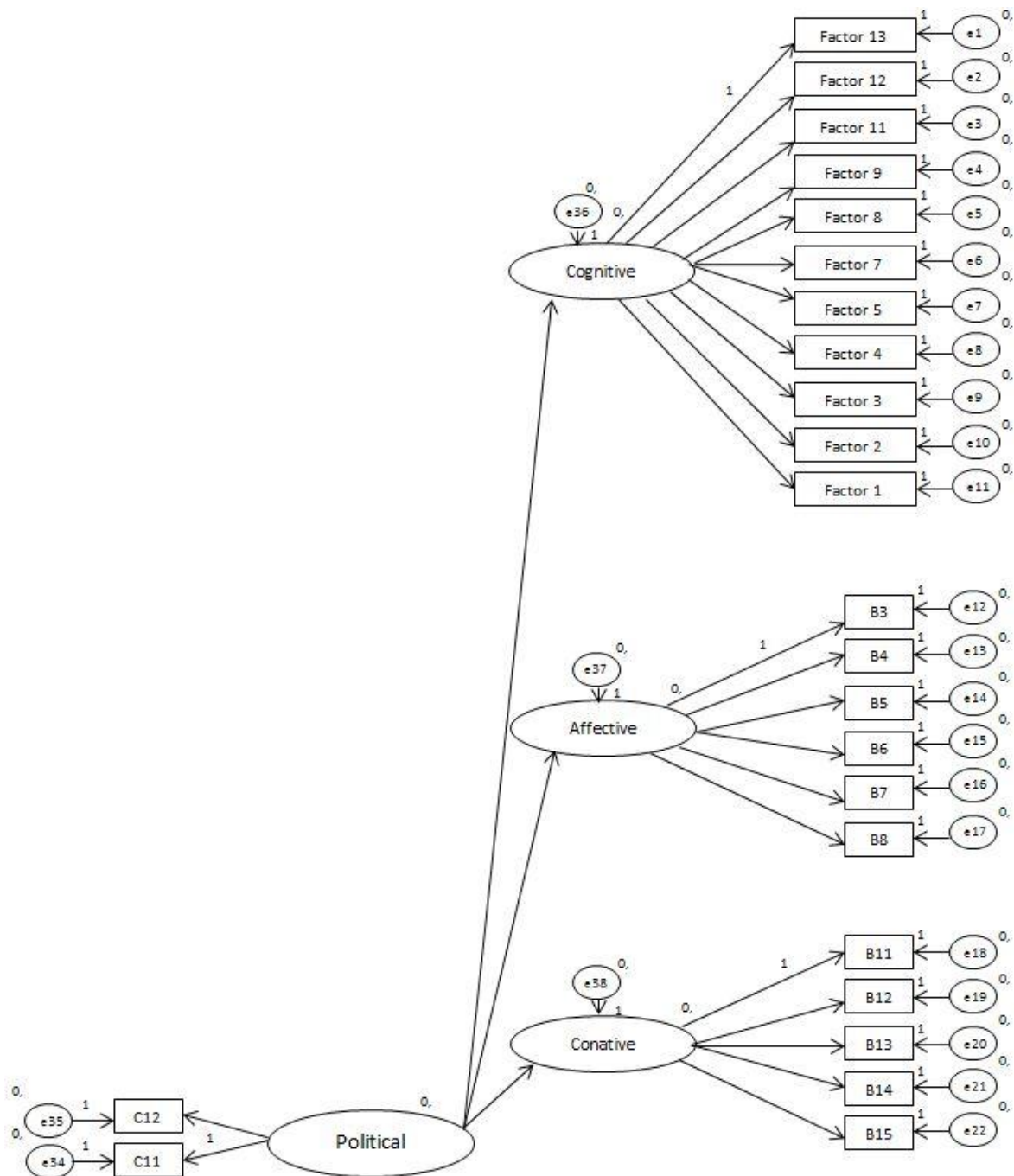


Figure 5.3: Model C: The effect of Political aspects on Cognitive, Affective and Conative images

Within Model C, Political aspects was itemised as the exogenous construct (independent variables); and the three image constructs cognitive, affective and conative, as the endogenous constructs (dependent variables). In Figure 5.3, the resulting direct relationships in the SEM analysis for this model are illustrated through single-headed arrows. Therefore,

connecting political aspects (independent construct) with cognitive, affective and conative image as the dependent constructs. According to Table 5.73, it is clear that the standardised regression weights of all the items were statistically significant. All three hypotheses were statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). These three hypotheses being (H4)= direct relationship between political aspects and cognitive image; (H5)= direct relationship between political aspects and affective image; and (H6)= direct relationship between political aspects and conative image (See Table 5.74). These hypotheses will be discussed next.

Table 5.73: Maximum likelihood estimates – regression weights for Model C

Items				Standardised regression weight	Standard error	C.R.	P-label
Conative	<---	Political	H4	.828	.787	3.473	***<0.001
Affective	<---	Political	H5	.935	.862	3.470	***<0.001
Cognitive	<---	Political	H6	.827	.703	3.437	***<0.001
Factor13	<---	Cognitive		.679	-	-	-
Factor12	<---	Cognitive		.690	.062	12.522	***<0.001
Factor11	<---	Cognitive		.747	.059	13.372	***<0.001
Factor9	<---	Cognitive		.501	.080	9.372	***<0.001
Factor8	<---	Cognitive		.638	.081	11.486	***<0.001
Factor7	<---	Cognitive		.595	.073	10.930	***<0.001
Factor5	<---	Cognitive		.696	.073	12.444	***<0.001
Factor4	<---	Cognitive		.438	.075	8.377	***<0.001
Factor3	<---	Cognitive		.424	.081	8.052	***<0.001
Factor2	<---	Cognitive		.548	.076	10.180	***<0.001
Factor1	<---	Cognitive		.743	.070	13.222	***<0.001
B3	<---	Affective		.730	-	-	-
B4	<---	Affective		.728	.078	14.409	***<0.001
B5	<---	Affective		.794	.072	15.594	***<0.001
B6	<---	Affective		.850	.068	16.795	***<0.001
B7	<---	Affective		.737	.072	14.373	***<0.001
B8	<---	Affective		.688	.075	13.516	***<0.001
B11	<---	Conative		.794	-	-	-
B12	<---	Conative		.824	.058	17.529	***<0.001
B13	<---	Conative		.618	.075	12.514	***<0.001
B14	<---	Conative		.400	.111	7.521	***<0.001
B15	<---	Conative		.785	.065	16.660	***<0.001
C11	<---	Political		.188	-	-	-
C12	<---	Political		.183	.403	2.489	.013

Table 5.74: Hypotheses for Model C

Hypotheses for model C	
H4	There is a direct relationship between Political aspects and Cognitive image
H5	There is a direct relationship between Political aspects and Affective image
H6	There is a direct relationship between Political aspects and Conative image

- **Hypotheses supported for model C**

Hypothesis 4 (H4), which is a direct relationship between political aspects and cognitive image, is supported with an evident statistical significance ($p < 0.001$); and is supported by the standardised regression weight of 0.828. Therefore, the respondents perceive political aspects to have a certain effect on their cognitive image formation. This supports the findings of San Martin and Rodriguez del Bosque (2008:270) and Byon and Zang (2010:523).

Hypothesis 5 (H5), which indicates a direct relationship between political aspects and affective image, which is significant ($p < 0.001$). The standardised regression weight of 0.935 supports this, which confirms a direct relationship between political aspects and affective image. Therefore, the respondents perceive that political aspects do have an effect on their affective image of South Africa.

Finally, hypothesis 6 (H6), which is the direct relationship between political aspects and conative image, is also definite with statistical significance ($p < 0.001$) and a standardised regression weight of 0.827. Therefore, respondents perceive political aspects as having an effect on how they formulate their conative image regarding South Africa.

5.4.1.4d Structural Model D: Icons to Cognitive, Affective and Conative images

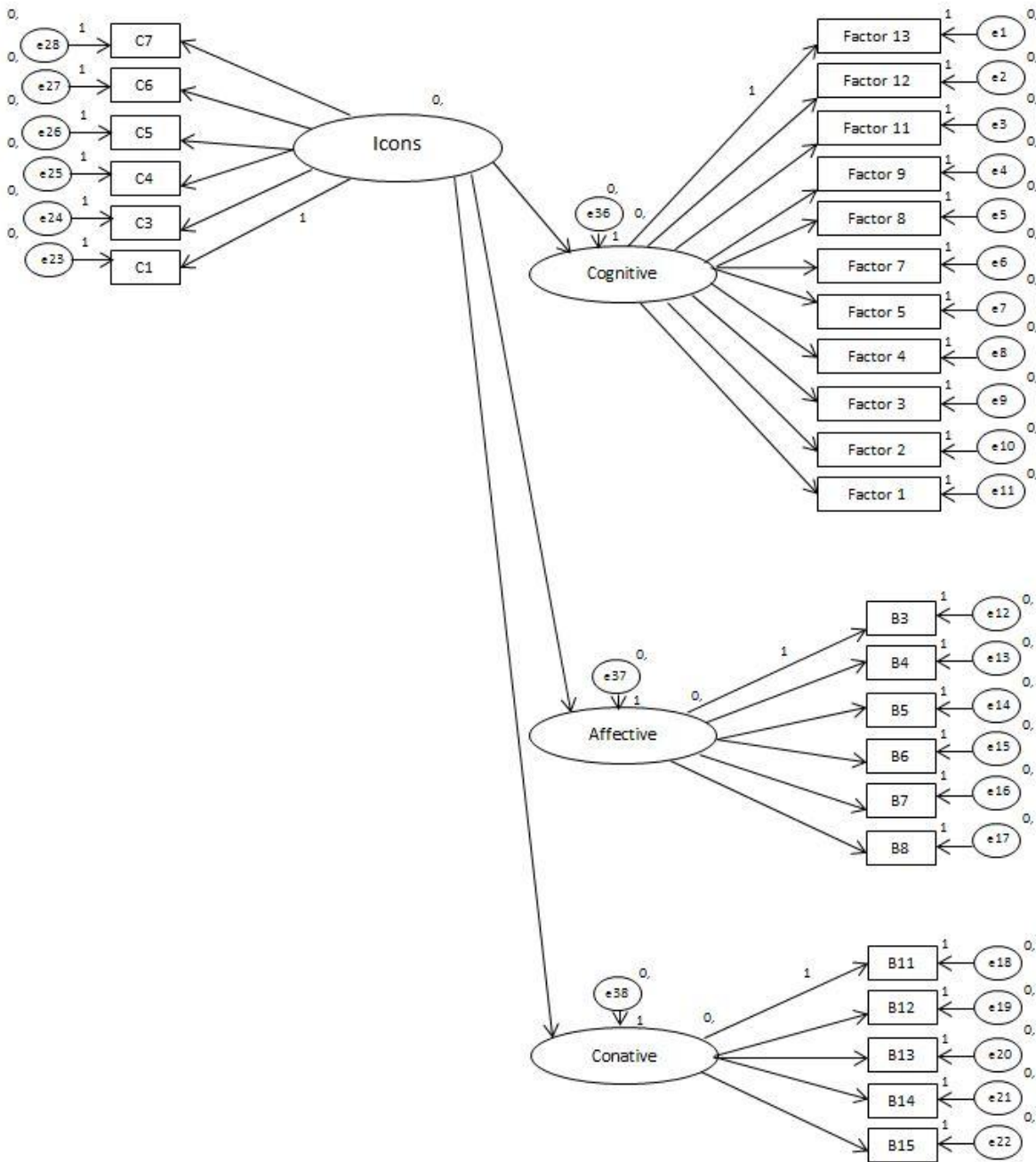


Figure 5.4: Model D: The effect of Icons on Cognitive, Affective and Conative images

Model D itemises icons as the exogenous construct (independent variables); and the three image constructs cognitive, affective and conative as the endogenous constructs (dependent variables). The resulting direct relationships in the SEM analysis for this model, are illustrated in Figure 5.4, through single-headed arrows. Therefore, connecting Icons (independent construct) with cognitive, affective and conative image as the dependent constructs. According to Table 5.75, it is clear that the standardised regression weights of all the items were

statistically significant. Three hypotheses were statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). These three hypotheses are (H7)= direct relationship between icons and cognitive image; (H8)= direct relationship between icons and affective image; and (H9)= direct relationship between icons and conative image (See Table 5.76). Next the discussion of each hypothesis will follow.

Table 5.75: Maximum likelihood estimates – regression weights for Model D

Items	Standardised regression weights	Standard error	C.R.	P-label
Cognitive <--- Icons H7	.623	.099	7.439	***<0.001
Affective <--- Icons H8	.423	.087	6.120	***<0.001
Conative <--- Icons H9	.389	.089	5.797	***<0.001
Factor13 <--- Cognitive	.653	-	-	-
Factor12 <--- Cognitive	.793	.071	13.264	***<0.001
Factor11 <--- Cognitive	.616	.062	10.957	***<0.001
Factor9 <--- Cognitive	.425	.084	7.867	***<0.001
Factor8 <--- Cognitive	.735	.089	12.401	***<0.001
Factor7 <--- Cognitive	.681	.081	11.795	***<0.001
Factor5 <--- Cognitive	.656	.078	11.362	***<0.001
Factor4 <--- Cognitive	.369	.079	7.012	***<0.001
Factor3 <--- Cognitive	.328	.084	6.224	***<0.001
Factor2 <--- Cognitive	.659	.084	11.511	***<0.001
Factor1 <--- Cognitive	.675	.074	11.684	***<0.001
B3 <--- Affective	.694	-	-	-
B4 <--- Affective	.719	.087	13.329	***<0.001
B5 <--- Affective	.816	.082	14.801	***<0.001
B6 <--- Affective	.864	.079	15.564	***<0.001
B7 <--- Affective	.735	.081	13.420	***<0.001
B8 <--- Affective	.644	.083	11.978	***<0.001
B11 <--- Conative	.762	-	-	-
B12 <--- Conative	.855	.067	16.498	***<0.001
B13 <--- Conative	.624	.082	12.122	***<0.001
B14 <--- Conative	.392	.118	7.207	***<0.001
B15 <--- Conative	.781	.073	15.447	***<0.001
C1 <--- Icons	.508	-	-	-
C3 <--- Icons	.646	.166	8.717	***<0.001
C4 <--- Icons	.619	.152	8.512	***<0.001
C5 <--- Icons	.733	.200	9.284	***<0.001
C6 <--- Icons	.675	.185	8.911	***<0.001
C7 <--- Icons	.667	.171	8.858	***<0.001

Table 5.76: Hypotheses for Model D

Hypotheses for model D	
H7	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Cognitive image
H8	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Affective image
H9	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Conative image

- **Hypotheses supported for model D**

Hypothesis 7 (H7), which is a direct relationship between icons and cognitive image, is supported with an evident statistical significance ($p < 0.001$) and is also supported by the standardised regression weight of 0.623. Therefore, the respondents (international travellers after having visited South Africa and returning to their country of origin) perceive icons to have a definite effect on their cognitive image formation.

Hypothesis (H8) is supported ($p < 0.001$), which indicates a direct relationship between icons and affective image. The standardised regression weight of 0.423 supports this, which confirms a direct relationship between icons and affective image. Therefore, the respondents perceive that icons have an effect on their affective image of South Africa.

Finally, hypothesis 9 (H9), which is the direct relationship between icons and conative image, is also definite with statistical significance ($p < 0.001$) and a standardised regression weight of 0.389. Therefore, respondents perceive icons to have an effect on how they formulate their conative image concerning South Africa.

Table 5.77: Correlations between constructs

Construct	Estimate
Icons ↔ Media	.996
Political ↔ Icons	.551
Political ↔ Media	.494

Table 5.77 indicates the correlations between the constructs that confirm that the estimates are satisfactory.

5.4.1.5 Step 5: Assess structural model validity

Table 5.78 portrays the statistics for the fit indices of the four models individually. In assessing the structural model validity, the measures of fit calculate how well a model fits the observed data. Four fit-indices were present in this assessment, which is Chi-square (χ^2), (CMIN/DF), CFI and RMSEA. Although Chi-square (χ^2) could have some limitations, researchers have developed another fit index (CMIN/DF) that helps reduce the impact of sample size on the model Chi-square. Acceptable threshold levels for CMIN/DF is (3:1) according to Kline, (2005) as cited by Hooper *et al.* (2008:58).

RMSEA is considered as one of the most informative fit indices (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2000:85). It indicates how well the model with unidentified but optimally selected parameter

estimates would fit the populations' covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998 as cited by Hooper *et al.* (2008:54). The RMSEA's acceptable threshold should be values <0.08 (Hooper *et al.*, 2008:54). Lastly, the comparative fit index (CFI) assumes that all latent variables are uncorrelated and compares the sample covariance matrix with this null model. Values closer to 1.0 indicates a good fit and this fit measure is least affected by sample size (Hooper *et al.*, 2008:55).

Table 5.78: Fit indices for Models A, B, C and D

Measurement	Model A	Model B	Model C	Model D
Chi-square (χ^2)	2096.571	1886.095	1362.874	1967.659
Degrees of freedom	549	321	249	347
CMIN/DF(χ^2/df)	3.819	5.876	5.473	5.670
p-value	p<0.001	p<0.001	P<0.001	p<0.001
CFI	.782	.722	.771	.715
RMSEA	.079	.104	.099	.101
90% confidence interval for RMSEA	.075 - 0.082	.099 - 0.108	.094 - 0.104	.097 - 0.106

5.4.1.5a Structural model validity for Model A

The Chi-square (χ^2) is the traditional measure for evaluating overall model fit and is sensitive to sample size, therefore an alternative indicator, the relative/normed Chi-square (χ^2/df), is rather used because it minimises the impact of sample size. Model A has a (χ^2/df) of 3.819 which is an acceptable fit, since it has a value larger than 3 (Kline, 2005 as cited by Hooper *et al.*, 2008:58) and less than 5 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010:85-86). The RMSEA value of model A is 0.079 which confirms a good fit, since (RMSEA< 0.08). The model's comparative fit index (CFI) of 0.782 indicates an acceptable fit, since it has approaches a value of 1. The closer the CFI is to 0, the less covariance can be explained. Therefore, this model can be confirmed as having an acceptable to good model fit.

5.4.1.5b Structural model validity for Model B

The relative/normed Chi-square (χ^2/df) of model B is 5.876 and its value therefore is larger than 3 (Kline, 2005 as cited by Hooper *et al.*, 2008:58). Even though the value just exceeds 5 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010:85-86) it can still be seen as having a mediocre fit. The RMSEA value of model B is 0.104 which confirms an average fit, since the value just exceeds 0.10.

The closer the CFI is to 1, the less covariance can be explained. Therefore, this model's comparative fit index (CFI) of 0.722 indicates an acceptable fit, since it approaches a value of 1. Model B's model validity can be confirmed as being that of a mediocre/average to acceptable fit.

5.4.1.5c Structural model validity for Model C

Model C's relative/normed Chi square (χ^2/df) is 5.473, which indicates a mediocre fit. The RMSEA value of 0.099 also indicates a mediocre fit. The CFI of 0.771 is seen as an acceptable fit. Therefore, the overall fit of this model is still acceptable, though being an average fit.

5.4.1.5d Structural model validity for Model D

The final model, model D, has a relative/normed Chi square (χ^2/df) of 5.670 and a RMSEA value of 0.101, of which both indicate a mediocre fit. The model's CFI of 0.715 indicates an acceptable fit. As in the case of Model C, this model also has an average fit.

Therefore model A, in this case, is considered as having the best fit of all these models. Even though none of Model A's hypotheses were supported, this does not mean that it is a poor model, since it only confirms that if the exogenous constructs are combined (media, political and icons), the image of South Africa is not affected by it. Yet, individually, these constructs impact the formation of South Africa's image.

5.4.1.6 Summary of tested relationships, drawing conclusions and making recommendations

In Table 5.79, a summary of the tested relationships is portrayed. Four models were examined and analysed to determine which relationships (hypotheses) are supported. In Model A, nine hypotheses were tested and found to be unsupportive. Therefore, respondents did not perceive the combined constructs: media, political and icons as having an effect on their image formation. Even though none of the hypotheses were supported, it is not necessarily a poor model. It shows that, specifically for South Africa, not all three combined exogenous constructs necessarily have an impact on image formation. Interestingly, when Model A's three exogenous constructs were separately tested and analysed (Media= Model B, Political= Model C and Icons= Model D) these hypotheses were supported, indicating that individually these constructs do have an effect on image formation. Additionally, suggestions and implications of these findings are discussed in Chapter 6.

Table 5.79: Summary of tested relationships

Hypotheses of each model		Supported/ Not supported
Model A		
H1	There is a direct relationship between Media and Cognitive image	Not supported
H2	There is a direct relationship between Media and Affective image	Not supported
H3	There is a direct relationship between Media and Conative image	Not supported
H4	There is a direct relationship between Political and Cognitive image	Not supported
H5	There is a direct relationship between Political and Affective image	Not supported
H6	There is a direct relationship between Political and Conative image	Not supported
H7	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Cognitive image	Not supported
H8	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Affective image	Not supported
H9	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Conative image	Not supported
Model B		
H1	There is a direct relationship between Media and Cognitive image	Supported
H2	There is a direct relationship between Media and Affective image	Supported
H3	There is a direct relationship between Media and Conative image	Supported
Model C		
H4	There is a direct relationship between Political and Cognitive image	Supported
H5	There is a direct relationship between Political and Affective image	Supported
H6	There is a direct relationship between Political and Conative image	Supported
Model D		
H7	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Cognitive image	Supported
H8	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Affective image	Supported
H9	There is a direct relationship between Icons and Conative image	Supported

5.5 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the empirical results were analysed and discussed in three divisions. Firstly, the descriptive results consisting of demographics, travel behaviour and perception of South Africa frequencies were discussed. Secondly, the exploratory results, which consisted of the factor analysis concerning the image of South Africa and the comparisons of these image factors with demographic information, travel behaviour variables and perceptions of South Africa. These comparisons were done by using ANOVAs, *t*-tests and Spearman rank correlations. The second factor analysis consisted of the factors that influence the image of South Africa. A summary of the descriptive and exploratory results was also provided in this section.

Thirdly, the inferential results were discussed, which is the actual image model that was developed using Structural Equation Modelling. Firstly, a six construct model (Model A) was developed; of which none of the hypotheses were supported and three other models were identified. All these models' hypotheses were supported. Individually, the relationships between Media (Model B), Political aspects (Model C) and Icons (Model D); as well as cognitive, affective and conative image formation were proven. Therefore, respondents indicated that these constructs, when analysed individually, do have an effect on their image formation. However, when combined, these constructs do not influence their image formation.

The implications of these empirical results are addressed in Chapter 6, which would contribute to the overall goal of this study, to develop a framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. Conclusions and recommendations also form part of Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6:

CONCLUSIONS AND

RECOMMENDATIONS



“I came to the conclusion that the optimist thought everything good except the pessimist, and that the pessimist thought everything bad, except himself.” - G.K. Chesterton

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study was to develop a framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a developing tourism destination. This chapter will therefore discuss the results of this study consistent with the main goal and objectives of this thesis. To achieve the purpose and goal of this study, five objectives were established in Chapter 1 and were achieved throughout the subsequent chapters.

- Objective 1 was to assess marketing as an important field of study and the theoretical base of this study by means of an in-depth literature review. This objective was achieved in Chapter 2. The focus of chapter 2 was on understanding marketing and the consumer, which consisted of marketing, tourism marketing and consumer behaviour. Image, likewise, plays an important role in marketing. Therefore the focus is primarily on marketing, followed by destination image, which is discussed in the next objective.
- Objective 2 was to assess destination image in a tourism context by means of an in-depth literature-based review. Chapter 3 emphasised and examined the importance of destination image. This chapter identified various cognitive, affective and conative attributes in image formation, after which these were incorporated in the questionnaire, specifically focusing on how respondents rate the image of South Africa. The questionnaire, which was the first of its kind specifically aimed at South Africa's image, was formulated after the identification of these attributes within the literature and according to a methodological evaluation (Chapter 4). Prior this study, the image of South Africa as a tourism destination had not yet been determined to this extent.

- Objective 3 was to determine and analyse the current destination image of South Africa based on a cognitive, affective and conative evaluation. This was achieved in Chapter 5, by means of a factor analysis and statistical methods such as *t*-tests, ANOVAs and Spearman rank correlations. In doing this, the different image factors were identified and analysed.
- Objective 4 was to critically analyse the nature and extent of identified factors (such as media, political and iconic aspects) on the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. The aspects were identified using a factor analysis (Chapter 5) and were analysed using Spearman rank correlations to determine how these aspects influence the image-formation factors (cognitive, affective and conative) of South Africa.
- Objective 5 was to draw conclusions and make recommendations concerning image formation and the implementation of the framework. Chapter 6 will achieve this objective. This chapter therefore consists of drawing conclusions according to the objectives, identifying the contributions of this study and making recommendations with regard to this study and future research. Finally, this chapter also identifies limitations within this study.

6.2 CONTRIBUTIONS

Three types of contributions were made. Firstly, methodological contributions; secondly, practical contributions; and thirdly, academic or literature contributions.

6.2.1 Methodological contributions

- The specific inclusion of icons as influencing factors, which indicated a significant influence on image formation, was novel to this study. This can also be further tested in other studies.
- The questionnaire, which is the first of its kind, adds methodological value and this can be used in similar studies in future.

6.2.2 Practical contributions

With regard to the study, the following practical contributions were made.

- The framework developed for this study can be used by various tourism organisations for marketing planning and implementation.

- The framework can be applied to other tourism destinations, to determine their destination image and identify whether the same applies for different destinations, or whether their findings contradict this study.
- This study highlighted the important yet individualised role played by cognitive, affective and conative images on destination image formation.

6.2.3 Academic or literature contributions

Academic contributions of the research include the following:

- In creating a framework for South Africa as a developing tourism destination, knowledge has been added to the current literature base of destination image, more specific in-depth analysis of cognitive, affective and conative images.
- The empirical testing of this framework significantly contributes to literature.
- The innovative inclusion and assessment of icons has added a new dimension to image formation in literature.

6.3 CONCLUSIONS

The main goal of this study was to develop a framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination. In doing so certain objectives were set. Focusing on these objectives the following conclusions can be drawn from this thesis, which relates to the literature review and the empirical survey that were conducted.

6.3.1 Conclusions with regard to objective 1: To assess marketing as an important field of study and the theoretical base of this study by means of an in-depth literature review (c.f. 1.4.2).

- Marketing is a very broad concept within the business industry, however, both business marketing and tourism marketing play a vital role within the tourism industry (c.f. 2.1).
- Various definitions of marketing were identified; however, in conclusion, marketing is seen as being all about value delivery to every person affected by a transaction and consists of three main parts which can be described as meeting needs, creating utility and value, and exchanging relationships (c.f.2.2).
- A market for a specific product consists of four elements. These are people that (1) have a want or a need for a product; (2) who have the purchasing power; (3) within a marketplace; (4) have the willingness to purchase products (c.f. 2.2.1).

- The marketplace was previously the location where buying and selling took place face-to-face; however, in today's marketing world buyers and sellers may perhaps not even see each other due to selling-forums such as eBay, e-commerce websites and television shopping networks. This is especially true in the tourism environment (c.f. 2.2.1).
- Aspects that are to be taken into consideration when exchange takes place are the following: effective communication; agreement on the value of the exchange; ethics and honesty towards exchange. Finally, for an exchange to take place, value must be present (c.f. 2.2.3)
- Marketing developed through four eras, the production era, the selling era, the consumer era and the new era; and stretches from as early as 1930 to present (c.f. 2.3). This changed the face of marketing and the way that marketing is conducted today with an emphasis on long-term relationships with customers.
- Marketers face challenges within the marketing environment due to the fast pace of living in today's world. Consumers want products to be available at all times and at the exact moment they need them and are not prepared to wait for them. Because they are accustomed to advanced technology, their speed of living increases and makes the work of marketers more challenging. Electronic marketing should therefore be optimised in the tourism industry (c.f. 2.3.4).
- Marketing is seen as a process that consists of effective marketing planning and selection of the right marketing tools (c.f. 2.4).
- Marketing planning is focused on decisions around a specific segment within the market that can be targeted, which helps a company to position its product effectively within the specific target market (c.f. 2.4.1).
- Marketing tools, which refer to the marketing mix, consists of the four P's of marketing. These four P's, from a company's perspective, are Product, Place, Price and Promotion; and are co-dependent on each other. Three alternative P's could also be added, People, Process and Physical evidence (c.f. 2.4.2).
- Because marketers sell products and consumers buy value or a solution to their problems, four C's exist from the consumer's perspective. These four C's are customer solution (product), convenience (place), customer cost (price) and communication (promotion) (c.f. 2.4.2).
- Product refers to anything that is offered by the marketer in exchange for something else of the consumer. Price is the amount which is exchanged to receive that offering. Promotion refers to how the marketer informs a potential consumer about their product and place is the availability of the product at a certain time and setting (c.f. 2.4.2).

- Planning comprises three levels, strategic planning, functional planning and operational planning. Within these levels, the most important level within marketing is that of functional planning (c.f. 2.5).
- Functional planning focuses on achieving the company's main objectives and is performed by top functional-level management, which directs different areas such as finances, marketing and human resource management within the company (c.f. 2.5.2).
- Strategic planning is usually conducted by top-level corporate management and focuses on achieving the company's long-term goals and involves financial assets, workforce and capabilities (c.f. 2.5.1). Marketing activities should be more focused on strategic planning and long-term relationships emphasising the importance of a positive destination image.
- Aspects which are important within marketing planning are the four P's, which refer to the company's products, prices, distribution procedures to the right place and their promotional methods. Within marketing, planning customer value and customer relationships are of highest importance. Four steps are involved in marketing planning, performing a situation analysis, setting marketing objectives, developing marketing strategies and implementing and controlling the marketing plan (c.f. 2.5.2).
- A situational analysis identifies the company's strengths and weaknesses, which can be controlled by the company; and opportunities and threats, which are uncontrollable. The company should strive towards changing weaknesses into strengths and threats into opportunities (c.f. 2.5.2.1).
- Marketing objectives should be formulated, which are statements that the company wants to achieve through marketing activities. Objectives need to be set to know which products should be sold in which markets. This could be done through market penetration (a company aims to escalate sales of existing products to existing markets); market development (the stage where a company's existing products are introduced into new markets); product development (where new products are launched within the company's existing markets) and entry into new markets (the emphasis is on both new products and new markets) (c.f. 2.5.2.2).
- The marketing strategies involve identifying activities that need to be achieved to accomplish the previously set marketing objectives. This includes the decision as to which market is to be targeted as well as establishing the marketing mix strategies (product, price, place and promotion strategies). Therefore, the company needs to focus on a certain segment within the total consumer population to know their consumer's needs and wants (c.f. 2.5.2.3).
- When implementing the marketing plan, it is important that it succeeds, therefore control is necessary, which includes measuring the actual performance, comparing the actual

performance to the previously set marketing objectives and constructing changes to the objectives and strategies through this analysis (c.f. 2.5.2.4). Often the implementation of the marketing plan is seen as an impossible or very intimidating task. However, once a step-by-step action plan (2.5.2.4a) is followed and each step is completed with in-depth quality, it is easily implemented. Some elements within an action plan include responsibility (c.f. 2.5.2.4b); timeline (c.f. 2.5.2.4c); budget (c.f. (2.5.2.4d); and measurement and control (c.f. 2.5.2.4e). If these are all successfully combined, the company's overall implementation and control section of the marketing plan will be accomplished.

- Supervisory or line managers are responsible for operational planning, which is the third level of planning and includes annual, semi-annual or quarterly plans and concentrates on the day-to-day implementation of these plans (c.f. 2.5.3).
- Tourism marketing consists of three components, physical, service and experience, of which experience is sometimes neglected. Tourism therefore is often driven by short-term needs rather than long-term objectives, because the industry is always changing and tourists need constant change (c.f. 2.6).
- Because tourism products are usually experiences occurring after the point of purchase, tourists tend to be uncertain during the purchasing period. An ideology is created by tourism products in the tourists' minds by using marketing methods such as brochures, which make it difficult for some organisations to uphold the high level service as advertised and satisfying the visitors' expectations. Therefore image formation within the tourism industry plays an integral part in tourists' perceptions (c.f. 2.6).
- The process individuals or groups go through to select, purchase, use and dispose of goods, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy their needs and desires, is known as consumer behaviour. Within the tourism industry, which focuses on experience, service plays an important role and therefore tourists will purchase services, which is often difficult to measure (c.f. 2.7).
- The decision-making process plays an important role in purchasing behaviour. Two types of decisions occur, extended problem solving, when very important decisions have to be made and consumers go through the steps within the decision-making process prudently; and habitual decision-making, where little to no sensible effort is used. Here consumers do not search for information or compare alternatives. The purchase is made automatically and due to habit (c.f.2.7.1).
- High-involvement purchases usually have high perceived risks and low-involved purchases have lower perceived risks (c.f.2.7.1).

- The decision-making process consists of three stages, the pre-purchase stage, the consumption stage and the post-purchase stage. It also consists of five steps, which are:
 - problem recognition (when a consumer sees a significant difference between their present situation and some preferred or idyllic state, therefore the urge of wanting to satisfy their needs occurs) (c.f. 2.7.1a).
 - information search (sources gathered to solve this problem, which includes internal and external sources of information such as brochures, internet websites, television and so on) (c.f. 2.7.1b)
 - evaluation of alternatives (the evaluation of the different options collected within step two; and to identify some true contenders) (c.f. 2.7.1c)
 - product choice (making the decision and implementing this choice) (c.f. 2.7.1d)
 - post-purchase evaluation (evaluating the choice, which could lead to either a level of consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction) (c.f. 2.7.1e).
- Three types of influences are present during decision making, which are internal, situational and social influences (c.f. 2.7.2).
- The internal influences include perception, motivation, learning, attitudes, personality, age groups and lifestyle (c.f. 2.7.2.1).
- Perception is the process by which people select, organise and interpret sensory information to form a meaningful picture of the world. In formulating a perception, the five senses which are sight, hearing, smell, taste and touch are present. Three issues arise during perception formulation. These are exposure, attention and interpretation (c.f. 2.7.2.1a).
- Motivation is about meeting consumers' needs. Some motives may lead to goal achievement, whilst others may prohibit it. If marketers understand the consumer's level of needs, the company's products and messages could be personalised to satisfy these needs (c.f. 2.7.2.1b).
- Learning is a change in behaviour caused by information or experience. Two perspectives of how people learn occur, behavioural learning and cognitive learning (c.f. 2.7.2.1c).
- Attitude is an influence that causes someone to act in a specific way towards a person or object and is influenced by factors such as personality, past experience, peer group influence, family influence and stereotyping. Three components form part of attitude, which are affect, cognition and behaviour / conative. Cognition is also referred to as the knowing component, and is based on the beliefs or knowledge a person has about a product and its important characteristics. Affect, the feeling component, is the overall emotional response a person has to a product and behaviour/conative is that of an action doing component (c.f. 2.7.2.1d).

- An individual's personality definitely influences their choice of product and different personalities have different needs and wants, which influences their decision making (c.f. 2.7.2.1e).
- The age group and family life-cycle in which consumers find themselves, has a direct influence on what products consumers purchase. Different life-cycle stages occur, all of which are associated with different purchase behaviours and the making of different decisions (c.f. 2.7.2.1f).
- A certain lifestyle requires certain products, services and activities. Marketers found that consumers can be grouped into different market segments based on lifestyle parallels and therefore develop marketing strategies to satisfy the wants and needs of these segments. Lifestyles can be identified through demographic characteristics. However, two consumers with the same demographic profile, may differ completely in the products they prefer to buy. Therefore, it is important for marketers to profile consumers according to how they choose to spend their leisure time and what their passion is in life (c.f. 2.7.2.1g).
- Situational influences on decision making include the physical environment and time (c.f. 2.7.2.2).
- Consumers' behaviour, attitudes and buying behaviour (purchase of goods) are powerfully influenced by the physical environment in which they find themselves. Two dimensions, arousal and pleasure, lead to either a positive or a negative reaction within the shopping environment. Therefore, the environment could either be boring or exciting (arousal); and pleasant or unpleasant (c.f.2.7.2.2a).
- The second situational influence, being that of time, also influences decision making. Consumers respond well to time-saving communications and want to purchase goods faster and in the comfort of their home. Therefore, the internet helps in saving time when making a decision to buy airplane tickets online.
- Five social influences on decision making occur. These are, overall culture, subculture, social class, group membership and gender roles (c.f.2.7.2.3). The different cultures of consumers should be understood in order to alter the required products in a non-offensive manner (c.f.2.7.2.3a). Various subculture groups exist however, because consumers have a strong feeling towards their heritage. The most essential subcultures seen by marketers are racial and ethnic groups. Consumers are persuaded by products that appeal to these features within their identities (c.f.2.7.2.3b). Different social classes exist, but feeling important and being part of a higher social class makes consumers feel good. Therefore, in today's world, the trend is to provide products for the mass-class, which is the millions of consumers who have the power to purchase high-quality products; although a problem occurs which is that they fail in acquiring expensive items such as tertiary education or

housing (c.f.2.7.2.3c). When referring to group membership, everyone wants to be accepted and feel as though they belong. Consumer behaviour is therefore often conformed by group pressure in order for the individual to feel recognised (c.f.2.7.2.3d). Finally gender roles influence decision making because the pressure to adapt heightens due to the expectations society creates with regard to attitudes, behaviours and appearances for both men and women (c.f.2.7.2.3e).

It is clear that marketing has a very important role to play in today's society given the ease of access to information, the level of competition between products / services, the continually changing needs of consumers and the importance of being profitable. All of this can be improved if current and potential customers hold positive images of destinations.

6.3.2 Conclusions with regard to objective 2: To assess destination image in a tourism context by means of an in-depth literature-based review (c.f.1.4.2).

With regard to destination image the following conclusions can be drawn.

- Destination image is an important research area in the tourism industry (c.f.3.1), but researchers cannot seem to agree on certain critical elements of destination image as will become evident in the conclusions to follow.
- Destination image is seen as an individual's overall perception or total impression of a place (c.f.3.4) Therefore, truthful advertising should be implemented to ensure the precise image is portrayed within the tourists' minds and that their expectations towards a destination are met (c.f.3.4.1). Image creation is based on perception (c.f.3.5).
- As in the case of the tourism industry, destination image continuously changes. However, knowing what the existing image of a destination is, will allow it to better position itself against competitive destinations (c.f.3.1).
- Because destination image impacts a country's tourism industry, it is important to create and maintain a positive image. A negative image has a detrimental effect on a destination and could lead to a challenging influence on tourist numbers and whether or not tourists will visit or re-visit a destination (c.f.3.2). This again emphasises the importance of measuring the image of a country, in this case specifically the image of South Africa.
- Even before visiting a country or destination, a tourist has a mental image of the specific destination in their mind (c.f.3.2), which is influenced by media as well as personal and social stimuli.
- It was clear from the literature review that image comprises various components, which are the cognitive component, referring to what one knows about an object (c.f.3.2.1.1); the

affective component, referring to how one feels towards what one knows (c.f.3.2.1.2); and conative image, referring to behaviour according to information perceived (c.f.3.2.1.3).

- Three levels of image occur, which are the organic, induced and complex image (c.f.3.2.2). Organic image is formulated within potential tourists' minds. These tourists have not yet visited the destination and they search for information regarding the destination through promotional sources, which provide knowledge regarding the destination. The image tourists have may be positive or negative, however the decision to visit that destination or not will be affected by "organic" image (c.f. 3.2.2.1). It is therefore important that effective marketing of a destination is implemented.
- More purposefully created images are induced images, which are truthfully formulated through persuasive promotion methods to persuade potential tourists to visit a destination (c.f.3.2.2.2).
- After tourists have visited and experienced a destination, a complex image is formulated in their minds. The image before visiting the destination is transformed to a more experienced and informed perception. Promotion to be used with complex image should strive as a reminder (c.f.3.2.2.3).
- Various characteristics create a positive image; but a negative image could be present due to poor communication. However, in using the correct advertising methods, it could overcome misperceptions with regard to image. A negative image could influence the tourism industry, because tourists may change their choices in visiting a destination.
- Various destination image models have been developed over time, which have been discussed in the literature review. Literature-based models and empirically based models were identified. The literature models and especially the empirically based models contributed greatly towards the development of this study's questionnaire (c.f.3.6).
- These models indicated various approaches and were linked to or differentiated from each other through literature or practice (c.f.3.6.2.2).
- It was found, however, that no model had been developed for a developing country such as South Africa. The evaluation of these models revealed that they are not suitable in the South African context due to the fact that some of the models were only based on literature and theory and was not necessarily tested and proven (c.f.3.6.1.1; c.f.3.6.1.2; c.f.3.6.1.3). One of the models was only tested for an island destination and not specifically for a developing country (c.f.3.6.2.2). Another model only tested cognitive and affective image, and did not include testing conative image (c.f.3.6.2.1). Most of the models only focused on image aspects and did not add components such as age and gender.

- According to the literature review, it was found that destination image is caused by two factors, which are personal and stimulus factors (c.f.3.7).
- Personal factors are characteristics of a tourist, which are social (demographic information) and psychological (values, motivation and personality) in nature. Socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, level of education) indicate a clear relationship towards cognitive and affective image components. Psychological factors also influence image formation, since tourists with different backgrounds, cultural values and motivations may perceive the same tourist destination differently (c.f.3.7.1).
- Stimulus factors include information sources and previous experience, as well as marketing efforts. Interestingly, it was found in the literature review that the internet had a worse influence on tourists' destination image compared to tourists making use of travel agents (c.f.3.7.2).
- Personal experience is seen as a primary source of information, which is why this specific study was done after tourists had visited the country. Just as it was found that tourists' post-trip image of the destination changed to be more positive than their pre-trip image of the destination, this findings of this study support this literature (c.f.3.7.2). Even though a positive perception occurred amongst the respondents before visiting South Africa, an increase in positivity followed after having visited the country (c.f.5.2.5.3).
- Sixty-three image attributes were identified within the literature review, of which 51 were cognitive, 11 were affective and 1 was conative (c.f.3.7.3).
- Eleven image dimensions, consisting of multiple items, were identified, of which 9 consisted of cognitive attributes, 1 was an affective attribute and 1 was a conative attribute. The nine cognitive dimensions include: natural resources; general infrastructure; tourist infrastructure; tourist leisure and recreation dimension; culture, history and art; political and economic factors; natural environment; social environment; and media dimension (c.f.3.7.3.1). The one affective dimension consisted of the atmosphere of the place (c.f. 3.7.3.2) and the conative dimension was referred to as the familiarity dimension (c.f. 3.7.3.3).
- After these dimensions and attributes were identified, of the 51 cognitive image attributes, 42 formed part of this study. Even though only 11 affective image attributes were identified in the literature review, these were improved and transformed into 12 for use in the questionnaire. Three conative image attributes were formulated for this study. These attributes were eliminated and added based on expert advice and the use of these dimensions in previous tourism marketing and image research (c.f.3.7.3.3).
- According to the literature review, third world countries may be disadvantaged by having a more negative image or a reduced positive image. However, these countries need to

focus on promoting or maximising their positive image attributes; and to strive towards overcoming or minimising their negative image attributes as perceived by potential tourists. Therefore, this study strove to identify these image attributes and analyse the image of South Africa as perceived by international tourists that had visited the country (c.f.3.8).

- Because tourism products are intangible, they can only be measured by the image they portray, therefore this research is essential for the tourism industry of South Africa (c.f.3.9).
- This in-depth literature review helped the researcher in identifying the attributes that could affect image formation, after which factors were formulated and analysed to determine how South Africa's image is portrayed by international tourists (c.f.3.9).

From the above conclusions, it is clear that destination image plays an important role within the tourism industry and its research areas. In knowing a destination's image, it could assist a destination in advertising the destination effectively and knowing which aspects to focus on in attaining a positive image and reducing a negative image. This indicates the importance of conducting the current study.

6.3.3 Conclusions with regards to objective 3: To determine and analyse the current destination image of South Africa based on a cognitive, affective and conative evaluation (c.f.1.4.2)

- In this study, one of the objectives was to analyse the current destination image of South Africa. This was achieved by identifying different attributes, of which the cognitive, affective and conative components exist. These attributes were analysed and finally categorised into 13 image factors (c.f.5.3.1).
- Firstly, with regard to cognitive image, the attributes factorised into 11 image factors that were labelled tourism aspects, quality of life, people of South Africa, seasonality, cultural and history, effectiveness and cleanliness, marketing, economic value, nature and scenery, infrastructure and services and, lastly, excitement. Secondly, affective image consisted of one factor, which was labelled "feelings". Thirdly, regarding conative image, one factor was analysed and labelled "intention to react" (c.f.5.3.1).
- The top four factors, with the highest mean values were factor 1: tourism aspects with a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.98 (\pm .66); factor 6: the conative factor-intention to react with a mean value (standard deviation) of 4.06 (\pm .68); factor 10: the affective image factor-feelings with a mean value (standard deviation) of 3.97 (\pm .69) and factor 11: nature and scenery with a mean value (standard deviation) of 4.06 (\pm .57). The conative factor:

intention to react, together with the cognitive factor: nature and scenery, has the highest mean values. The fact that respondents indicated such a positive and high mean value to these attributes, could have a great influence on the tourism industry of South Africa. Respondents considered nature and scenery and intention to react as the most important factors, which is an indication of the strengths of South Africa as tourism destination (c.f.5.3.1).

- All three image components (cognitive; affective and conative) formed part of the top four rated factors, therefore indicating that all three components are rated as important in the tourists' image formation.
- Factor 2, which is labelled quality of life, has the lowest mean value (standard deviation) of 3.12 ($\pm .75$) (c.f.5.3.1). These attributes are political stability of South Africa; economic development of South Africa; safety in South Africa; South African's quality of life and development within South Africa. Although rated the lowest in having an effect on image formation, the mean value is still above 3 which indicates that they perceive these attributes as average rather than below average. However, this is the least important factor contributing to the positive image formation of South Africa.
- It was clear that it is not only about the image that exists but also about the demographic, psychographic aspects influencing the image. Image was mostly influenced by iconic aspects, followed by political aspects; and then media aspects (according to mean values) and family and friends (word of mouth) (c.f.5.3.5 and c.f.5.3.5.2). It was interesting that media was not the most important influential factor.
- It was also evident that certain travel behaviour variables such as accommodation; transport; main reasons for visiting South Africa; negative experience; feelings towards South Africa before visit; perception after visit; and attractions, also influenced image formation showing the multi-faceted nature of this phenomenon (c.f. 5.3.6.3).
- In the same vein it was found that image was not at all influenced by level of education; holiday and leisure as main reason for visiting South Africa; word of mouth; travel agents; travel guides and certain attractions such as Robben Island; Soweto and the Cradle of Humankind (c.f.5.3.6.4). Travel agents have also been considered as ambassadors of South Africa but, according to this study, they do not influence image formation.
- The results show that 24 aspects influence tourists' cognitive image formation of South Africa. These aspects include: gender; age; continent of residence; marital status; occupation; accommodation; times visited South Africa; transport; number of people in travel group; total average spending; spending per person; main reason for visiting; heard about South Africa; length of stay; negative experience; feelings towards South Africa before visit; perception after visit; negative publicity; attractions; media aspects; political

aspects; iconic aspects; family and friends (word of mouth) and immigrated South Africans (c.f.5.3.6.1).

- Eleven aspects have an influence on tourists' affective image formation of South Africa. These aspects are accommodation; transport; main reason for visiting South Africa; heard about South Africa; negative experience; feeling towards South Africa before visit; perception after visit; attractions; media aspects; political aspects; iconic aspects and family and friends (word of mouth) (c.f.5.3.6.2).
- Conative image formation is influenced by the following 12 aspects. Accommodation; transport; reason for visit; length of stay; negative experience; feelings towards South Africa before visit; perception after visit; attractions; media aspects; political aspects; iconic aspects and family and friends (word of mouth) (c.f.5.3.6.3).
- In total, 11 aspects influence all three image factors (cognitive, affective and conative). These aspects are accommodation; transport; main reason for visiting South Africa; negative experience; feelings towards South Africa before visit; perception after visit; attractions; media aspects; political aspects; iconic aspects and family and friends (word of mouth) (c.f.5.3.6.3). These aspects are thus the most important to image, since they influence image formation in its totality.
- Four aspects do not influence any of the image factors. These four aspects are level of education; the main reason for visiting South Africa being holiday and leisure; how tourists heard about South Africa, specifically word of mouth, travel agents, and travel guides and lastly, specific attractions being Robben Island; Soweto and the Cradle of Humankind (c.f.5.3.6.4). This finding, specifically toward travel agents and the various marketing mediums, contradicts findings in the literature review (c.f. 3.6.2 and c.f.5.3.3.9g).

6.3.4 Conclusions with regard to objective 4: To critically analyse the nature and extent of identified influencing factors (such as media, political and iconic aspects) on the image of South Africa as a tourism destination (c.f.1.4.2)

- Considering media as an influential aspect on image, the cognitive, affective and conative image factors were all affected by it. It is clear from the results that media, which consists of television programmes about South Africa, its history and the country's nature, movies about South Africa and the internet, have an influence on the formation of the image of South Africa. All of the image factors were rated positively by the respondents, thereby indicating that media does affect image formation and, in the case of this research, led to a more positive image of South Africa (c.f. 5.3.5.1). This was different to what was expected due to a variety of negative reporting on South Africa.

- Political aspects such as safety and security and the political climate within South Africa did influence the respondents' image formation of South Africa. Again the cognitive, affective and conative image factors were influenced. The respondents therefore indicated that political aspects lead to a positive rating of the image of South Africa (c.f. 5.3.5.1). This is an interesting finding since many tourists often associate South Africa as an unsafe destination (c.f.1.4). Therefore, this current study proves that political aspects, which usually influence image negatively, do not necessarily have the same effect for South Africa. However, the fact that they had already visited the country could have given them a different perspective and from there the positive response.
- When referring to iconic aspects, these include sport events such as the World Cup, Nelson Mandela as a famous icon of South Africa, business events such as conferences, famous landmarks such as Table Mountain and Robben Island, festivals which refer to cultural events and news / media on South Africa. Again, it is clear within the research that iconic aspects influence the image formation of South Africa and lead to a more positive image of the country within the minds of the respondents, having affected the cognitive, affective and conative image factors (c.f.5.3.5.1).
- Amongst media, political and iconic aspects; iconic aspects has the highest mean value of 2.81. The influence of icons / iconic events surprisingly yielded the biggest influence on image, which creates opportunities for a different approach to marketing. Towards image formation, previously icons have not been researched as an influential aspect. This finding is therefore novel to this study.
- Added to the conclusions above, the development of the framework included all variables that were tested by means of independent *t*-tests, ANOVAs, Spearman rank correlations, factor analyses and structural equation modelling. From these conclusions of objectives 3 and 4, structural equation modelling was used to develop a framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa (c.f.5.4.1).
- Further analyses tested four models (Models A, B, C and D). The purpose of Model A was to include all exogenous and endogenous constructs, after which three models were tested by taking into account only one influencing aspect at a time. Thus, the last three models focused individually on one each of the exogenous constructs being Media (Model B), Political (Model C) and Icons (Model D), towards the endogenous constructs cognitive, affective and conative image (c.f.5.4.1.2).
- Model A, which tested the relationships between media, political and icons towards cognitive, affective and conative images, showed a reasonable fit but proved to have had no relationships present between the constructs, when combined (c.f.5.4.1.4a).

- However, when tested separately (Model B, C and D), the exogenous constructs did influence the endogenous constructs (c.f.5.4.1a).
- Model A, however, indicated the best fit of the models (c.f.5.4.1.5a) even though the hypotheses were not supported. Thus, when in combination, the exogenous constructs (media, political and icons) do not affect the image of South Africa. However, individually these constructs impact the formation of South Africa's image (c.f.5.4.1.5d).
- Therefore, in developing this framework for the image of South Africa, it is clear that media, political and icons do have a definite effect on tourists' image formation when analysed individually. However, when analysed combined, these aspects do not influence image formation towards South Africa (c.f.5.4.1.6). It is thus also true that one negative media report on South Africa can withhold a potential tourist from visiting this country, but also that one positive media report can have the opposite effect.
- This demonstrates that tourists perceive the image of South Africa positively when the constructs are analysed individually, however when combined, no influence is present, therefore it neither influences their image positively nor negatively (c.f.5.3.5.1).

6.3.5 Conclusions with regard to the main goal of this study: To develop a framework for the optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination (c.f.1.4.1)

- It is clear from Figure 6.1 that the core of the framework revolves around the cognitive, affective and conative images and aspects influencing these images.
- With regard to demographic information, it was found that gender, age, continent of residence, marital status and occupation have an influence on cognitive image but not on affective or conative images.
- With regard to travel behaviour, it was found that accommodation, transport, main reason for visiting, negative experience, feelings towards South Africa before visit, perception after visit and attractions contribute to the formation of cognitive, affective and conative images.
- With regard to external aspects, it was found that media, political happenings and iconic aspects directly influence image. The significant influence of icons was novel to this study.
- It was evident that, in the case of this framework, certain demographic aspects did not have an influence on affective or conative image aspects.
- The results also show the lack of influence of travel agents and travel guides, which was surprising. This was also found for selected marketing mediums.
- It is thus evident from this framework that a mix of aspects influence the image and that each of these should be optimised in the development of marketing plans and communication with the visitors.

- Conative image is related to return behaviour and it is clear that travel behaviour choices and experiences and external aspects influence visitors' intention to return.
- The experiences of visitors lead to positive or negative images of South Africa.
- This framework emphasises the importance of pre-, onsite and post-experiences; and communication in image formation.
- In developing this framework, the research gap with regard to developing a measurement instrument for image, has been accomplished.
- A different approach was presented in conducting the research at the busiest airport in Africa, in comparison to other similar studies.

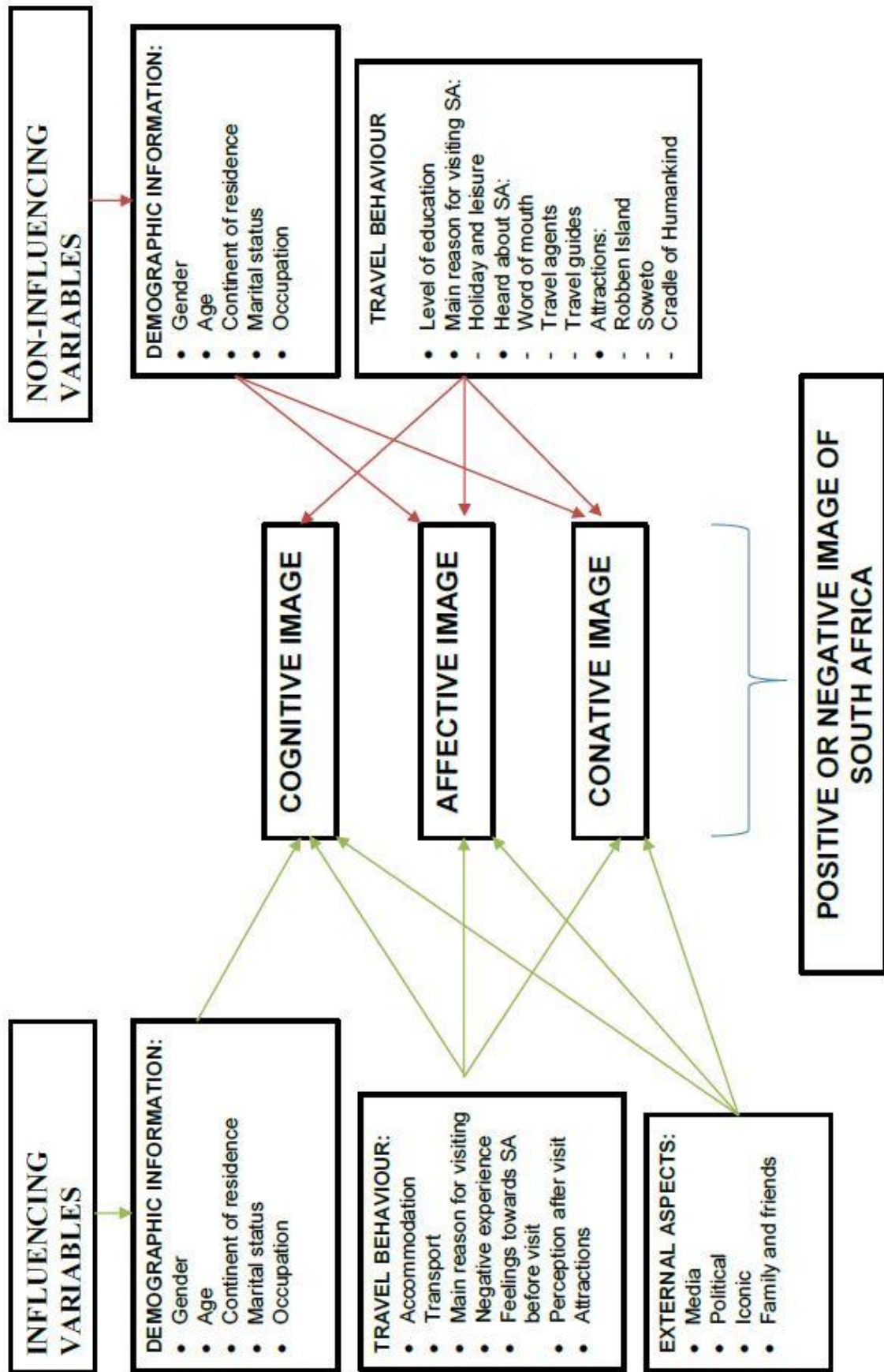


Figure 6.1: Destination image framework for South Africa as a tourist destination

** Green lines= Aspects that have an effect on image formation

** Red lines= Aspects that do not have an effect on image formation

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

After having concluded, the following recommendations can be made regarding this and future studies.

6.4.1 Recommendations regarding this study

- The framework developed in this study should be implemented by national tourism organisations such as SA Tourism, as well as provincial organisations such as Tourism Boards. Even product owners can benefit from the framework by considering some of the influencing aspects in their product experience and marketing strategies.
- All marketing strategies and plans for South Africa should be focused on improving the cognitive, affective and conative image of South Africa.
- The affective image of South Africa is important to visitors and most of the time these aspect(s) receive least attention. Awareness campaigns are needed to make residents and business owners aware of the importance of atmosphere, friendliness and so on.
- The tourism industry of South Africa, even though already focusing on their iconic aspects, should continue to focus more and more on famous icons in building the image of South Africa. Icons such as Mandela and Charlize Theron, events hosted by South Africa, famous landmarks and the news and media on South Africa, should be more evident within marketing materials and campaigns of South Africa.
- Safety and security remains an issue for visitors to South Africa. Even more awareness should be created about South Africa. Especially during the tourist season, more policing should be visible.
- Although television only influences the cognitive and affective image and not conative image, it forms part of media aspects, which influence all three image components. Therefore, methods used in marketing and advertising of South Africa, which include television programmes, movies and the internet, should be considered carefully in what is to be marketed and what not. Television programmes should showcase the nature and scenery of South Africa and its tourism aspects.
- From this research, it is clear that family and friends' word of mouth affects image. Therefore, in creating favourable experiences and truthful marketing, word of mouth could be influenced either positively or negatively towards South Africa. Keeping the tourist happy needs to be a priority within the South African tourism industry. This

should be done in delivering respectable services, in which tourism companies should train and develop their employees' skills.

- The advertising of what South Africa offers needs to be taken into consideration, since the attractions that influence tourists' image should be optimised. If promotion and advertising is done at certain locations and attractions, it could affect how tourists formulate the image they have of South Africa, either positively or negatively. Because feelings tourists have of South Africa; and their perception after having visited South Africa affects their image; marketing should be trustworthy and be a portrayal of what South Africa really offers and what can be expected when visiting South Africa. It is important that the advertisements are processed through an internal process, be it either by private tourism companies or the marketing department of SA Tourism, thereby ensuring that they portray a truthful message.
- Aspects which do not affect image at all (See Figure 6.1) should be re-evaluated and taken into consideration when promoting and advertising South Africa to the right market, at the right place and using the right methods.
- Tourism destinations should realise that image plays an important role in tourists' decision-making and choices of holiday destinations. Creating the right image for a specific market is thus very important.

6.4.2 Recommendations regarding future studies

The following recommendations are made with regard to future research:

- The questionnaire could be standardised and used to determine the image of other developing countries, from which similarities or contrasts can be determined.
- If this research is done globally, a comparison can be drawn between the image of developing countries and those of advanced or developed countries.
- Since icons were found to have a significant influence on the image formation of South Africa, future research should be conducted to determine specifically which icons should be focused on for the marketing of the country.
- It can also be considered to conduct surveys at different times of the year to determine the relevance of influencing factors at different times.

6.5 LIMITATIONS

The findings of this study should be set within the context of limitations which included the following:

- Since the questionnaire was distributed at an International Airport, language was in some cases a challenge, since the questionnaire was only available in English. Therefore some language barriers did exist while collecting the data. This should be considered for future research.

After having conducted this research, it is evident that image is a complex, yet interesting and vital concept that ought to be determined through a combination of image components, attributes and aspects, which could affect image formation and perceptions of tourists visiting South Africa. The results are therefore a contributor towards the South African tourism industry, since it assists in the marketing of the country abroad and ensures that aspects that influence image negatively, are being managed effectively. This enables the country to overcome negative images and focus on managing attributes correctly and efficiently to optimise the image of South Africa.

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE



ASSESSING THE IMAGE OF SOUTH AFRICA AS A TOURISM DESTINATION

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender?

Male	1
Female	2

2. In what year were you born?

19

3. Country of residence?

4. Highest level of education?

No School	1
Matric	2
Diploma/Degree	3
Post-graduate	4
Other, Specify	5

5. Marital status?

Single	1
In a relationship	2
Engaged	4
Married	5
Divorced	6
Widow/er	7
Other, Specify	8

6. Occupation

Professional (example Dr; Lawyer)	1
Management	2
Self-employed	3
Technical	4
Sales	5
Administrative	6
Civil service	7
Education	8
Pensioner	9
Student	10
Other, Specify	11

7. During your visit to South Africa what type of accommodation did you make use of?

Family or friends	Yes	No
Guesthouse or B&B	Yes	No
Hotels	Yes	No
Backpackers	Yes	No
Lodges	Yes	No
Other, Specify	Yes	No

8. Including this visit, how many times have you visited South Africa?

First time	1
2 - 3 Times	2
4 - 5 Times	3
More than 5 Times	4
Other, Specify	5

9. Mode of transport to and in South Africa?

Airplane	Yes	No
Rental car	Yes	No
Bus	Yes	No
Train	Yes	No
Other, Specify	Yes	No

10. How many people are in your travel group (including yourself)?

Number

11. How many people did you pay for during your visit to South Africa (including yourself)?

Number

12. Estimate how much you have spent on the following items during your visit to South Africa?

Airplane tickets	R
Accommodation	R
Activities	R
Souvenirs	R
Other transport & travel costs	R
Retail shopping (excl. food & drink)	R
Food & Drink	R
Other, Specify	R

SECTION B: FACTORS INFLUENCING SOUTH AFRICA'S IMAGE

13. Rate the image of South Africa as a tourism destination?

	Above average				Excellent
	Average				
	Below average				
	Extremely poor				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. The weather or climate of South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
2. South Africa's nature is...	1	2	3	4	5
3. The fauna and flora of South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
4. The season in which I visited South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
5. Roads and roadworks in South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
6. Airports within South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
7. Transport within South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
8. Health services supplied by South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
9. Development within South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
10. Accommodation facilities of South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
11. Restaurants in South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
12. Accessibility to and in South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
13. Excursions within South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
14. Tourist centres are...	1	2	3	4	5
15. Tourist information is...	1	2	3	4	5
16. Attractions within South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
17. Entertainment within South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
18. Sports events in South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
19. Adventure activities in South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
20. Shopping facilities are...	1	2	3	4	5
21. Night life of South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
22. Cultural attractions in South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
23. Historical attractions within South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
24. Arts and cultural events in South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
25. South African souvenirs are...	1	2	3	4	5
26. South Africans' quality of life is...	1	2	3	4	5
27. Political stability of South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
28. Economic development of South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
29. Safety in South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
30. Affordability of South Africa as a tourism destination is...	1	2	3	4	5
31. The South African exchange rate is...	1	2	3	4	5
32. The travelling distance to South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
33. Cleanliness of South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
34. Flow of traffic within South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
35. Air and noise pollution within South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
36. The significance of certain towns and cities in South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
37. The scenery within South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
38. Service levels of South Africa are...	1	2	3	4	5
39. Telecommunication within South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
40. Promotion/ Advertising/ Marketing of South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
41. Media reporting of South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5
42. Social media on South Africa is...	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION B: CONTINUING

	Strongly agree				
	Agree				
	Agree to some extent				
	Disagree				
	Strongly disagree				
1. South Africans are friendly people...	1	2	3	4	5
2. Communicating with South Africans is easy...	1	2	3	4	5
3. There are many opportunities for fun in South Africa...	1	2	3	4	5
4. South Africa as a tourism destination has a good reputation...	1	2	3	4	5
5. South Africa offers opportunities for family holidays...	1	2	3	4	5
6. South Africa offers opportunities for relaxation...	1	2	3	4	5
7. South Africa offers opportunities for luxurious experiences...	1	2	3	4	5
8. South Africa is a must visit tourism destination...	1	2	3	4	5
9. South Africa is a stressful tourism destination...	1	2	3	4	5
10. South Africa has a lot to offer...	1	2	3	4	5
11. South Africa is an attractive and interesting destination...	1	2	3	4	5
12. I enjoyed visiting South Africa...	1	2	3	4	5
13. I will return to South Africa....	1	2	3	4	5
14. I will invest in South Africa...	1	2	3	4	5
15. I will recommend South Africa to my friends and family...	1	2	3	4	5

14. To what extent do the following aspects influence your image of South Africa?

	To a great extent			
	Somewhat			
	Very little			
	Not at all			
1. News/Media on South Africa	1	2	3	4
2. Family and friends (Word-of-mouth)	1	2	3	4
3. Famous icons (example Nelson Mandela)	1	2	3	4
4. Famous landmarks (example Table mountain/Robben Island)	1	2	3	4
5. Sport events within South Africa (example World Cup)	1	2	3	4
6. Business events within South Africa (example Conferences)	1	2	3	4
7. Culture events within South Africa (example Festivals)	1	2	3	4
8. Television programmes about South Africa in general	1	2	3	4
9. Television programmes about the history of South Africa	1	2	3	4
10. Nature programmes about South Africa	1	2	3	4
11. Political climate	1	2	3	4
12. Safety & Security	1	2	3	4
13. Immigrated South Africans	1	2	3	4
14. Movies	1	2	3	4
15. Internet	1	2	3	4

SECTION C: TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

15. What was the main reason for visiting South Africa?

Holiday/Leisure	1
Business	2
Visit friends or family	3
Sport	4
Shopping	5
Adventure	6
Culture/Historic	7
Medical	8
Other, Specify	9

16. How did you hear about South Africa?

Television	1
Radio	2
Internet website	3
Newspapers	4
Wordofmouth	5
Social media sites	6
Travel agent	7
Travel guide	8
Other, Specify	9

17. How long was your visit to South Africa?

Less than a week	1
1-2 Weeks	2
3-4 Weeks	3
More than a month	4
Other, Specify	5

18a. Did you have any negative experiences while visiting South Africa? (Which you experienced personally)

Yes	1
No	2

18b. If yes, please specify the specific experience.

19. Describe South Africa in one word?

20. How did you feel about SA before visiting the country?

Positive	1
Negative	2

21. After visiting South Africa, has your perception changed towards the country?

Yes changed to be more positive	1
Yes changed to be more negative	2
No, still positive	3
No, still negative	4

22a. Did recent negative publicity of South Africa have an effect on your image of the country?

Yes	1
No	2

22b. If yes, please specify which negative publicity affected your image formation?

23. Which of the following attractions did you visit during your stay in South Africa?

National parks	1
Garden Route	2
Cape Town V&A Waterfront	3
Johannesburg	4
Robben Island	5
The Winelands	6
Soweto	7
Cradle of humankind	8
Table mountain	9
Durban beachfront	10
Sun City	11
Cultural villages	12

24. Do you have any suggestions towards a better and more positive South African image?

Thank you for your participation, your contribution is of great value to us.

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