

## TESTING A MODEL OF DESTINATION ATTACHMENT – INSIGHTS FROM TOURISM IN TANZANIA

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### **Abstract**

**Purpose** – Transforming experiences is in this paper approached as a destination choice process for adventure tourists. This study seeks to explain conditions that support place identity and place dependence development in Tanzania. The study proposes a testable destination choice model of international visitors to Tanzania.

**Design/Methodology/Approach** – The proposed order of the model is that perceived constraints and satisfaction depend on expectation and travel motivation and that these two may further predict place identity and place dependence. These measures capture our research questions. Visiting tourists to Tanzania were confronted at airport. During August and September of 2010, 700 filled questionnaires were gathered and 504 was usable for further analysis. Final questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS and SEM (AMOS).

**Main results** – The findings support that tourism policymakers and other stakeholders may consider tourists' behaviors, such as expectations, motivations, perceived constraints and satisfaction with place identity, to be related to destination attachment.

**Originality of the research** – The paper strengthens several theoretical arguments. First, indicating the amalgamation of different tourists' behaviors formed in a path-dependent order. One stage is planning the travel, another is during their stay and finally when building their attachment. Furthermore, attachment relate to future choices.

**Keywords** tourist behaviour, destination attachment, destination choice, Tanzania, SEM

### **INTRODUCTION**

This paper focuses on tourism in Tanzania where tourism generate substantial economic returns. The Tanzanian Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism emphasizes the significant investments made in hotels, restaurants, conference facilities, sports centres, air operations, ground operations and beaches, while environmental policies aim to develop sustainable tourism by cultivating its natural and cultural resources. Tanzania targets a low volume of high spending tourists as a strategy to “conserve natural” and “preserve cultural” values (MNRT, 2002). Tourism thus contributes significantly to the economy by offering new types of employment and entrepreneurial opportunities. Along with these economic effects, tourism in Tanzania is expected to generate foreign exchange and tax revenue for the government while bringing more economic benefits to the local people (e.g., jobs, better and more services).

Tourism in Tanzania depends on spending by international visitors. Relatively few studies have been made to encircle characteristics of international tourists traveling in Tanzania (i.e., Lindi, 1999 unpublished). One distinguished characteristic of international tourists traveling to Tanzania is that they are chiefly represented as adventure tourists. In fact, Tanzania, New Zealand, Nepal and Kenya were listed as major representatives of destinations offering adventure tourism (Sung *et al.*, 1997). Conceptually, adventure tourism deals with tourists that purposely take calculated and controlled risks in their willingness to explore and experience natural environments (Williams and Soutar, 2005) and cultural activities.

This paper taps into a literature designed to explain how attachment (Hou *et al.*, 2005) towards a destination is bridged by identity, level of satisfaction, constraints, motivations and expectations. As the major group of tourists is represented by those participating in adventure tourism such as camera safaris on Maasai steppes or climbing in the Kilimanjaro mountain, we anticipate tourists' expectations and travel motivations to be strongly associated with delight and endearment with their once in the life time experiences. Such experiences can be found in the nature paradises of Africa's Great Rift Valley such as Serengeti National Park (nestling at the base of the Valley) and Ngorongoro Crater. During such experiences positive attitudes may unfold as strong destination preference, endearment and place attachment. But there also are other aspects to be considered in factors, perceived or real that may cause fear, feelings of danger and expectations of threat in the wilderness experience of Tanzania. Such constraints may dissuade them from traveling to a destination. We propose that satisfaction corresponds with place identity and place dependence. Thus the objective of this study is to examine factors that influence place attachment.

## **1. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

### **1.1. Destination choice model**

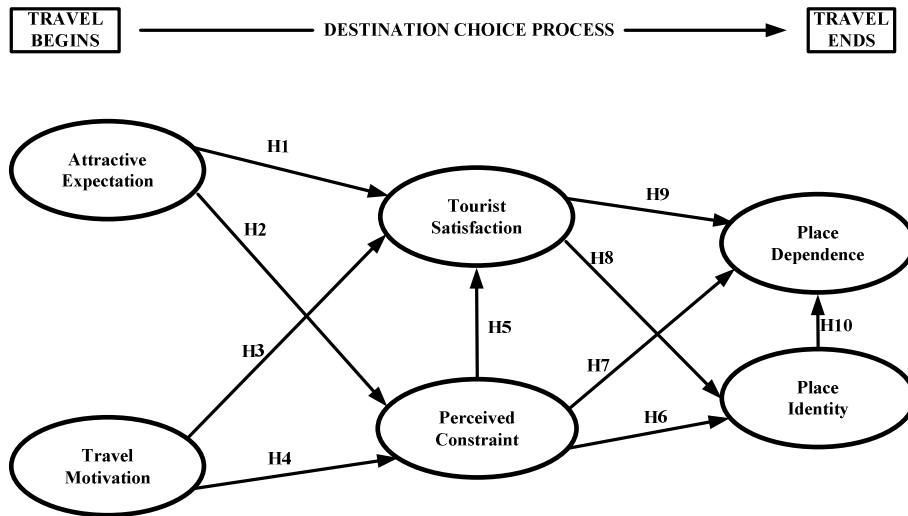
Tourists are not homogenous in the way they experience destinations. Previous experiences, different expectations and different values lead to different perceptions of services. For example, while one traveler might perceive late or bad service as a shocking experience, another can perceive the shortcomings as an expected event. While certain tourists allow for more risk, and expect less, their inherent motivations and expectations also differ (Williams and Soutar, 2005).

Tourists' behaviors in choosing a particular destination involve several dimensions (Klenosky, 2002). Sociocultural, economic and safety dimensions are commonly related to selecting a specific destination. In addition, choice of destination depends on specific biographical characteristics such as age, income (Kozak, 2002) or geographical distance (Kozak, 2002; Nicolau and Mas, 2004, 2006). Others refer to determinants such as situational inhibitors (Hong *et al.*, 2006), climate (Hamilton and Lau, 2004), prices (Goossens, 2000; Nicolau and Mas, 2004, 2006; Barros *et al.*, 2008), quality (Goossens, 2000), partner (Hudson, 2000; Nyaupane and Andereck, 2008), fear (Hudson, 2000) and health (Fleischer and Pizam, 2002; Nyaupane and Andereck, 2008). Moreover, researchers distinguish between both pull and push motives (e.g., Kozak,

2002; Nicolau and Mas, 2004; Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005; Valle *et al.*, 2008; Yoon and Uysal, 2005) as determining factors for destination choice. In any case, a tourist develops a risk perception, expects value for money and reflects upon certain choice criteria. These criteria can be based on earlier experiences, stories told by others or even brochures and materials from websites provided by representatives at the destination.

Most of the previous studies on tourists' behaviors which used complex models to deal with visiting specific destinations have focused more on Western and Asian countries (e.g., Alexandris *et al.*, 2008; Bosque *et al.*, 2009; Chi and Qu, 2008; Pesämaa *et al.*, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2009; Yoon and Uysal 2005). Relatively few studies have looked into tourists' behaviors towards visiting Africa and particularly Tanzania (i.e., Lindi, 1999 unpublished). Barros *et al.* (2008) reported that Africa is an emerging destination choice that has not previously attracted applied research. Thus, this study presents a model of travel consumer behavior (see Figure 1) specifically to study choice behavior towards Tanzania based on the from a literature search. Potential tourists develop their experiences in a path order that is early or even at the stage of planning the travel, during their stay and finally when building their attachment as well as future choices towards the destination (Jonsson-Kvist and Klefjo, 2006).

Figure1: **Proposed model of the study**



The proposed model includes several theoretical constructs from consumer behavior and their sets of indicators chosen as testable. These are depicted in a sequential order reflecting tourists' experiences from expectations and motivations into two components of place attachment, which are place dependence and place identity. Earlier studies have, in other contexts than Africa, identified the image, satisfaction and loyalty relationship (Pesämaa *et al.*, 2009). These insights build the basis to conceptualize and propose a general theoretical framework for Tanzania. In addition, the framework includes constraining factors to explain the process that leads to a particular choice of

destination. The inclusion of constraints is one of the key contributions in the literature on explanations of destination choice. The proposed order of the model is that perceived constraints and satisfaction depend on expectation and travel motivation and that these two may further influence and predict place identity and place dependence.

## **1.2. Theoretical background of constructs and hypotheses**

### ***1.2.1. Expectation***

Expectation is defined as the probability of a certain attitude that can lead to positive or negative advantages, therefore allowing the isolation of determining factors of behavior and, moreover, identifying how expectation and value can be combined in order to make choices (Fishbein, 1967). Exploring tourists' expectations is important because they have a chance to significantly influence tourists' behavior and their decision-making process.

Expectations arise early in the planning stage and many times prior to selecting a destination to visit (Jonsson-Kvist and Klefsjö, 2006). Prior to selecting a destination to visit, travelers establish an expected result of the potential choice, which may or may not be met depending on the reality of the vacation (Correia *et al.*, 2007). An individual can have a belief that a certain action will lead to some clear outcomes while at the same time they may also doubt its success. As a result, an individual can perceive the possible consequences of actions without necessarily executing those actions. Several studies have proven the positive relationship between expectations and satisfaction in tourism contexts (e.g., Bosque *et al.*, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed for this study:

H1: Tourist expectations of visiting a destination have a positive effect on satisfaction.

There is little attention given to studying perceived constraints in the tourism context. This is one of the key contributions of this study in the relevant scientific discourse. The authors are not aware of any study that has investigated the relationship between expectation and intrapersonal constraints. Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Tourist expectations of visiting a destination negatively affect intrapersonal constraints.

### ***1.2.2. Travel motivation***

Motivation is one of the important parts of travel consumers' behaviours. Motivation refers synonymously to concepts such as reason, cause, propelling force and purpose to move in a certain direction. In selecting a final destination, tourists pursue one or several reasons (Dann, 1981; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Given that a temporal stay has associated time and financial limitations, visitors are careful in matching their choices and needs with preferences they are likely to find at a destination. This selective process forms reasons to attain fresh insights and experiences that cannot be found in tourists' usual environments. This behavior motivates escape from established roles and routines to new environments, and for search of new insights in other contexts and

cultures. Understanding what motivates an individual's travel behavior and destination choice is vital in predicting their travel decisions and future travel patterns (Jang and Wu, 2006) and it can be used to develop more appropriate strategies to attract them.

Although there are several factors (e.g., tourists expectation, destination image, perceptions) influencing tourist behavior in destination choice, "motivation is still regarded as a crucial indicator and force which answers why tourists behave in certain ways" (Meng *et al.*, 2008, p. 43). Researchers have studied travel motivation for many decades; however, there are still limited models that investigated motivation with other behavioural constructs. Few studies have empirically examined the interrelationships among motivation and other destination choice determinants. Empirical studies have proved a relevant relationship between tourist motivation and satisfaction with a destination (e.g., Meng *et al.*, 2008; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed for this study:

H3: Role of escape motives positively affect tourist satisfaction,

H4: Cultural value confirming motives positively affect tourist satisfaction.

Less attention has been paid to the relationship between travel motivation and perceived constraints. Today, empirical studies on the relationship between perceived constraints and other constructs are very limited in the tourism context. Botha *et al.* (1999) found underlying factors of both travel motivation and perceived constraints that influenced destination choice; however the relationship between the two constructs was not examined. Huang and Hsu (2009) also examined travel motivation and perceived constraints with other behavioral (repeat behavior) constructs; however in their model both travel motivation and perceived constraints were exogenous variables and no relationship was proposed between them. With this in mind, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H5: Role escape motives have a negative effect on intrapersonal constraints,

H6: Cultural value confirming motives have a negative effect on intrapersonal constraints.

### ***1.2.3. Perceived Constraints***

Perceived constraints emerge around certain activities that potentially constrain tourists (e.g., feelings of fear and danger) from traveling to a certain destination (Crawford and Godbey, 1987; Crawford *et al.*, 1991). Such constraints add risk but it is assumed that in learning about the destination, the perception of certain risks will diminish and be overcome. Consequently, tourists choose the final destination that has the fewest perceived constraints among the small number of alternatives in the late consideration set. Even a destination offering strong attractions may not be enough to encourage a potential tourist to visit, particularly if the trip involves the perceived constraints of long-haul international travel.

Similarly, the constraints to business tourism are diverse such as lack of promotion, lack of time, lack of skills, economic factors, and finding a partner. Moreover, there are constraints such as fear, health considerations and language barriers. Previous studies have underlined the constraining factors, but there is limited research in the tourism context which explains the destination choice process including tourists constraints related to other constructs. Few studies found that perceived constraint was related to satisfaction (e.g., Yuksel and Yuksel 2007; Tseng *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed for this study:

H7: Intrapersonal constraints of visiting a destination negatively affect satisfaction.

Huang and Hsu's (2009) study proposed that perceived constraints of visiting a destination had a negative effect on individuals' intentions to revisit and it was revealed that the proposition was partially supported by the data. Alexandris *et al.*'s (2008) study found that constraints significantly influenced loyalty. It is argued that place dependence and place identity are two manifestations of travelers' loyalty and also components of place attachment. The concepts are linked with the gaps being addressed by the hypotheses in the current study. The authors are not aware of any study that has investigated the relationship between intrapersonal constraints and place attachment components. Thus, the hypotheses below are proposed:

H8: Intrapersonal constraints negatively affect place dependence,

H9: Intrapersonal constraints negatively affect place identity.

#### **1.2.4. Satisfaction**

Satisfaction provides a significant contribution in planning marketable tourism services and products. Once a destination establishes a level of satisfaction and understands where satisfied tourists come from – they can satisfy them even more. Tourist satisfaction influences the choice of destination, the consumption of services and products and the decision to revisit or return to a destination, thus it is important to successful destination marketing (Kozak and Rimmington, 2000). Maximizing tourists' satisfaction is a significant factor in successful destination management (Machado *et al.*, 2009).

In this study the two theoretical components, tourist satisfaction and place attachment, are related. George and George (2004) reported that previous research implicitly assumes that place attachment and satisfaction are complementary constructs in certain significant ways; however this association was not explicitly defined or examined in a destination context. Satisfaction with a destination could lead to a sense of place attachment (i.e., high levels of satisfaction with a place, based in part on the place's characteristics which facilitate social relations or participation in a preferred recreation activity, may lead to a formation of attachments) (Brocato, 2006; Lee *et al.*, 2007).

Yuksel *et al.* (2010) found that a statistically strong and meaningful relationship existed between place attachment and customer satisfaction. In their study, place attachment had a strong effect on satisfaction, while no significant effect was found between place dependence and satisfaction. In this study, it is argued that tourist satisfaction is critical

to establishing place identity and place dependence. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H10: Satisfaction positively affects place dependence,

H11: Satisfaction positively affects place identity.

### ***1.2.5. Place attachment – Place identity and Place dependence***

Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001) define place attachment as the affective link between people and a specific place. Several researchers met complexity in dealing with the study of place attachment. This is due to the diversity of approaches available at the theoretical and empirical levels (Hidalgo and Hernandez, 2001). Researchers have agreed that place identity and place dependence are two measurements of place attachment (Backlund and Williams, 2003; Bricker and Kerstetter, 2000; Hoe *et al.*, 2005; Moore and Graefe, 1994).

Place identity engages deeper connections to a place with which a person's personal identity is linked (Proshanky, 1978). According to Hou *et al.* (2005) place identity refers to the idea that tourists may develop rich memories and feelings toward a particular destination and may hold those feelings central to their definition and expression. It has to be noted that the environment of place identity includes physical settings and social elements. Similarly, the concept of place identity develops from affective and cognitive processes (Smith *et al.*, 2010). In contrast, place dependence refers to the collection of social and physical resources that meet the requirements of visitors' particular activities and that represent the exceptional qualities of a place (Bricker and Kerstetter, 2000; Kyle *et al.*, 2004). Place dependence occurs when visitors show a functional need for a place and space. The term *genius loci* (*sense of place*) defines this deep aspect of bonding and attachment to a place. Sense of the place reflects feelings of fulfillment and may be exemplified in sentiments such as eg. "I have always searched for this", or "here I feel at ease", or "I have found my destiny /or/ home". Such places are not substitutes. (Stokols and Shumaker, 1981). These preferences or rather, convictions also develop from behavioral and functional processes (Smith *et al.*, 2010). Place dependence is derived from a transactional view that suggests people assess places in relation to alternatives (Yuksel *et al.*, 2010). Based on this point of view, people assess places according to how well their functional needs are met in those places.

Smith *et al.* (2010) found that place identity and place dependence had a high correlation; however, the direction of effect was not examined. Hou *et al.* (2005) also examined these two place attachment components related to other constructs in a case of Hakka and non-Hakka Taiwanese visitors to Pei-Pu. Their study found that place identity was the strongest construct in defining place attachment for Hakka visitors. Conversely, place dependence was the strongest for non-Hakka visitors. These two dimensions were used as composites.

The present study suggested that these two concepts should be included as separate constructs. On the one hand, this concept is consistent with previous literature by Qian *et al.* (in press) who reported that place dependence is a dimension independent of

place identity in the context of the destination city (Guangzhou). On the other hand, Qian and colleagues found that place dependence significantly affected place identity in context of migrants. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H12: Place identity has a positive effect on place dependence.

## 2. METHODOLOGY

### 2.1. Sample design and data collection

The data were collected in August and September, 2010. Data were gathered from tourists who visited the Northern Tourist Circuit (NTC) of mainland Tanzania. This area has Tanzania's most spectacular and unique attractions and was chosen for the study because tourism is mostly concentrated there. In addition, a number of accommodation facilities are located in the NTC especially in the Kilimanjaro and Arusha regions. Respondents were asked to take about 10 minutes of their time to complete the questionnaire.

The majority of respondents were found in areas surrounding tourist accommodation facilities. Other tourists were found from different attractions. A convenience sampling technique was employed. A total of 700 questionnaires were self-administered to different international adventure tourists, in which 504 usable responses were retained for further analysis.

Table 1: Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristics	Distribution of answers
Gender	Male:45%; Female:55%
Age	≤20:7.7%; 21-30: 42.9%; 31-40:25.4%; 41-50:11.3%; 51-60:8.1%; >60:4.6%
Education level	Primary school:1%; High school:15.9%; 2-3 years (college):7.6%; 4 years (univ.):40.0%; Postgraduate:35.5%
Occupation	Student:23.2%; Self-employed:12.5%; Employed:57.1%; Retired:5.6%; Unemployed:1.6%
Marital status	Single: 50.5%; Married: 43.7%; Divorced: 4.2%; Widowed: 1.6%;
Income (\$)	<1000:7.4%; 1000-2000:17.5%; 2001-3000:21.6%; 3001-4000:19.7%; 4001-5000:14.5%; 5001-6000:12.1%; >6000:7.2%
Household	One person:23.0%; 2 people:48.4%; 3 people:16.6%; 4 people:6.4%; ≥ 5 people: 5.6%
Nationality	American:14.5%; English:22%; Germany:12.9%; Dutch:8.1%; Australian:6.2%; French:5.4%; Canadian:5.2%; Spanish: 4%; Other nationalities:21.7%
Length of stay until survey (days)	Three:7.7%; Four:9%; Five:9.5%; Six:15.4%; Seven:25.3%; Eight: 12.2%; Nine:7.0%; Ten:9.9%;



Characteristics	Distribution of answers
	Eleven:1%; Others: 3.0%
Expected total length of stay (days)	Five:1.4%; Six:2.0%; Seven:6.7%; Eight:7.8%; Nine:8.7%; Ten:15.9%; Eleven:9.8%; Twelve:18.0%; Thirteen:12%; Fourteen:13.5%; Others: 2.2%
Number of visit to Tanzania	Visited once:7.3%; Visited twice:2.0%; >Twice:5% ; First time visit:85.7%
Purpose of travel	VFR:9.6%; Leisure:32.6%; MICE:3.5%; Nature:44.0%; Study:4.7%; Work:0.8%; Volunteering: 4.0%

Initially, data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 15.0) and later to test the full proposed model, a SEM approach was used. Table 1 reports relevant characteristics of the collected cross-sectional sample.

## 2.2. Measurement

In the first section of the questionnaire “Expected Attractiveness” was included in the destination. The scales were adopted from the work of Hou *et al.* (2005). The original ideas and assumptions for these measures came from the work of other researchers (i.e. Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Thach and Axinn, 1994). In Hou and colleagues’ study, 17 items were used through which they generated five factors by exploratory factor analysis (varimax rotation). These five factors were later used as observables (i.e. composite measures) to reflect “Destination Attractiveness”. In their study they went from the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to a confirmatory factor analysis. They retained four composites and omitted their fifth dimension, “Peripheral Services”, because the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) indicated a problem with residuals. The objective of this study is to use a full Structural Equation Model approach and thus, the judgement may differ. A different interpretation was used here and took out factor three that Hou *et al.* (2005) labelled as “Events” because it consisted of only two items and one of them did not meet the criteria of loadings, i.e., exceeding .60. The theoretical insight of “Event” was used by including it as part of peripheral services. Respondents were asked about expectations on their visit to Tanzania on a five-point Likert scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree (Neutral), 4 = Agree and 5 = Strongly agree. Four dimensions were kept: (1) Key Tourism Services; (2) Natural and Cultural Attractiveness; (3) Information Services; and (4) Peripheral Services. In the current study, loadings were acceptable according to the criteria exceeding .60 (loadings varied between .65 - .85).

In the second section of the questionnaire, motivation measures were developed. When developing this section, one scale from consumer research (Babin *et al.*, 1994) and four theoretical constructs from tourism literature (Hou *et al.*, 2005) were used. One construct was pretested based on the current study which took into account the contextual situation of Tanzania. Note that Hou *et al.* (2005) used composites so that the underlying 12 observables became four reflecting one construct labelled “Enduring Involvement”. The latter was changed so that its items could measure travel motivation as related to their theoretical perspective. Respondents were asked to share their travel motivation by indicating the importance of the following motivations in terms of traveling to Tanzania by circling the correct alternative for each statement on a five-

point Likert scale where: 1 = Not important at all, 2 = Not important, 3 = Neither important nor unimportant (Neutral), 4 = Important and 5 = Very important. Six dimensions were kept: (1) Utilitarian Motives; (2) Social Associations Motives; (3) Role of Escaping Motives; (4) Value Confirming; (5) Cultural Distance Motives; and (6) Natural Attractions Motives. In this study, loadings were acceptable according to the criteria exceeding .60 (loadings varied between .64 - .77).

In the third section of the questionnaire, perceived constraints measures were developed. These measurements were developed by Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter's (2002) and later modified by Huang and Hsu (2009). Respondents were asked to indicate which of the following constraints would likely minimize the probability of Tanzania being chosen as the future destination to visit by circling one number for each statement: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree (Neutral), 4 = Agree and 5 = Strongly agree. Three dimensions were kept: (1) Intrapersonal Constraint; (2) Interpersonal Constraint; and (3) Structural Constraint. In the current study, loadings were acceptable according to the criteria exceeding .60 (loadings varied between .61 - .92).

In the fourth section of the questionnaire, satisfaction measures were developed. These measurements were developed by Arnould and Price (1993) and later modified by Pesämaa (2008). Respondents were asked to indicate their satisfaction with the adequacy of the factors/attributes of Tanzania in meeting their needs on a five-point Likert scale where: 1 = Not at all satisfied, 2 = Dissatisfied, 3 = Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (Neutral), 4 = Satisfied, and 5 = Very satisfied. Five dimensions were kept: (1) Atmosphere Satisfaction; (2) Basic Public Facilities Satisfaction; (3) Accommodation Satisfaction; (4) Food Satisfaction; and (5) Transportation Satisfaction. In this study, loadings were acceptable according to the criteria exceeding .60 (loadings varied between .68 - .95).

In the final section of the questionnaire, place identity and place dependence measures were developed. As mentioned earlier, place identity and place attachment are two dimensions of place attachment. Thus, the concept of place attachment was incorporated which was adopted from the work of Hou *et al.* (2005). The original ideas and assumptions for these measures came from the work of Bricker and Kerstetter (2000), Moore and Graefe (1994), and Shaw and Williams (2000). Respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed with the following statements by circling one number for each statement on a five-point Likert scale where: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree (Neutral), 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly agree. Two dimensions were kept: (1) Place Identity and (2) Place Dependence.

"Place identity" was adopted from the work of Hou *et al.* (2005), and the question set followed a five-point Likert scale. Hou *et al.* (2005) used a six-item scale to measure "Place identity" but we omitted the sixth item from this original scale because loading was below the recommended level of .60 as suggested by Bagozzi and Yi (1988). A reason for the poor loading in the original study could be because people identified themselves with the place they came from. Yet, visitors share and understand cultures and may even search for differences to explain who they are. Thus five items from the

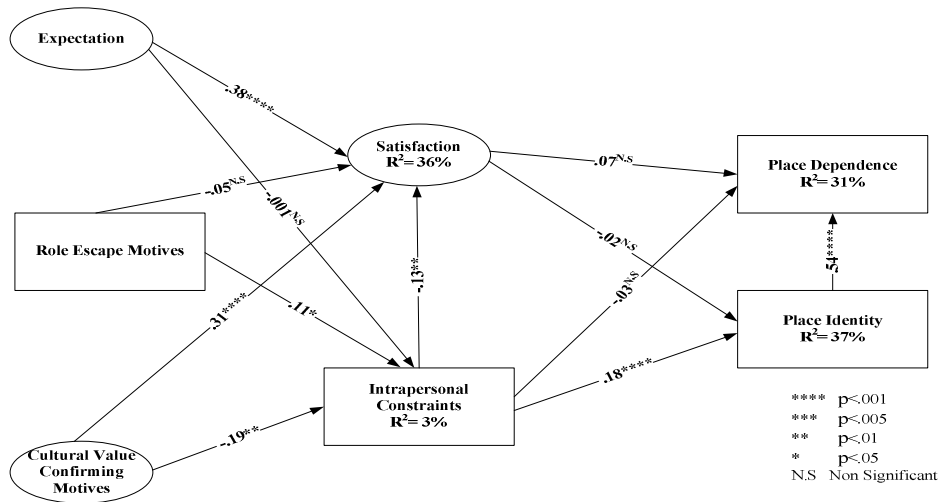
original scale of Hou *et al.* (2005) were retained, and the study Cronbach alpha level of .83 indicated an acceptable reliability. In this study, loadings were acceptable according to the criteria exceeding .60 (loadings varied between .66-.89).

“Place Dependence” was adopted from the work of Hou *et al.* (2005) as a component of place attachment. Questions followed a five-point Likert scale that was used in the original study. The Hou *et al.* (2005) study used six items to measure “Place Dependence”, but the fifth and sixth items were deleted from this original scale of Hou *et al.* (2005) because these exhibited poor loadings, which perhaps measured more levels of services than place dependence. In the original study of Hou *et al.* (2005) this scale had a Cronbach alpha level of .79 indicating an acceptable reliability. In this study, loadings were acceptable according to the criteria exceeding .60 (loadings varied between .65-.73).

### 3. STRUCTURAL MODEL RESULTS

In testing the structural model for the overall sample, the analysis started by evaluating goodness-of-fit indices. The model met the recommended guidelines for goodness of fit ( $\chi^2/df=2.52$ ,  $p<.000$ , CFI=.95, SRMR=.044, RMSEA=.055). The model for the complete sample explained 3% of the variance in intrapersonal constraint, 36% of the variance in satisfaction, 37% of the variance in place identity and 31% of the variance in place dependence.

Figure 2: Destination choice model results



$\chi^2 = 133.31$  (p-value .000); D.F. 53;  $\chi^2 / D.F = 2.52$ ; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .055; SRMR = .044

The study found a positive relationship between expectation and satisfaction ( $\beta = .38; p < .001$ ). This hypothesized relationship (H1) was supported. The study also examined the negative effect of expectation on intrapersonal constraints. The relationship was negative but not significant ( $\beta = -.001; p > .05$ ; H2) and thus, this hypothesis was not supported. The relationship between the role of escape motives and satisfaction was negative and not significant ( $\beta = -.05; p > .05$ ; H3) and therefore this hypothesis was not supported. Another motivation factor was that of cultural value confirming motives. There was a positive relationship between cultural value confirming motives and satisfaction ( $\beta = .31; p < .001$ ; H4), thus the hypothesis was supported. The study went further to investigate the negative relationship between the role of escape motives and intrapersonal constraints. There was a significant but positive relationship between the role of escape motives and intrapersonal constraints ( $\beta = .11; p < .05$ ; H5) thus, this hypothesis was not supported because a negative effect was expected. Furthermore, the study found that cultural value confirming motives negatively affected intrapersonal constraint ( $\beta = -.19; p < .01$ ; H6) and the hypothesis was supported.

When the negative relationship between intrapersonal constraints and satisfaction was tested, the findings reported a significant relationship between these constructs (intrapersonal constraints and satisfaction) ( $\beta = -.13; p < .01$ ; H7), thus the hypothesis was supported. Further, no significant relationship was found between intrapersonal constraints and place dependence ( $\beta = -.03; p > .05$ ; H8), thus the hypothesis was not supported. Conversely, there was a significant relationship but positive (+) between intrapersonal constraints and place identity ( $\beta = .18; p < .001$ ; H9), however, this hypothesis was not supported because a negative effect was expected. When satisfaction was tested with place attachment components, no relationship was found between satisfaction and both place identity and place dependence ( $\beta = .07; p > .05$ ; H10 and  $\beta = -.02; p > .05$ ; H11) respectively, thus, both of these hypotheses were not supported. Finally as expected, place identity had a positive and strong effect on place dependence ( $\beta = .54; p < .001$ ; H12), therefore this hypothesis was supported.

#### 4. DISCUSSION

This study was inspired by the need to learn more about the behaviors and preferences of international adventure tourists in choosing Tanzania, and how they later form attachment to the destination. The findings provide evidence that tourist expectations, travel motivations, perceived constraints and satisfaction are determinant factors for destination choice. It also shows how these factors predict place identity and place dependence, which are viewed as components of place attachment. To start with, it was found that tourist expectation had a positive significant effect on tourist satisfaction (H1). The finding was consistent with what Bosque *et al.* (2006) and Wang *et al.* (2009) describe, that is, tourist expectation has an influence on tourist satisfaction.

It was also found that cultural value confirming motives, which measures the extent a tourists value correspond towards the visiting country, had a positive significant effect on tourist satisfaction (H4). The general concept of the findings was consistent with previous studies showing that motivation had an effect on satisfaction (e.g., Meng *et al.*, 2008; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). In contrast, cultural value confirming motives were

found to have a negative significant effect on intrapersonal constraints (H6). The authors are not aware of any study that has investigated the relationship between cultural value confirming motives and intrapersonal constraints. Therefore, the results could not be validated by previous studies. This is one of the important contributions of this study.

Furthermore, it was found that intrapersonal constraints had a negative effect on satisfaction (H7). The findings were consistent with Tseng *et al.* (2009) who explored the relationship between crowding and satisfaction in recreational boating. Their study revealed that safety had a positive influence on recreational satisfaction in which, in their case, unsafe recreational activities diminished the satisfaction level. This implies that if tourists perceive more constraints towards a destination or activities performed at the destination, their satisfaction level may diminish instantly. It has to be noted that even a destination offering strong attractions may not be enough to generate travel to visit if tourists perceive more constraints toward that destination.

Interestingly, role escape motives had a positive significant effect on intrapersonal constraint, and intrapersonal constraint also positively affected place identity. Conceptually, since Tanzania is an adventure destination, tourists could “purposely take calculated and controlled risks by their willingness to explore and experience a new natural environment” (Williams and Soutar, 2005) and cultural activities. Thus, a positive effect between intrapersonal constraints and the two constructs (satisfaction and place identity) has been confirmed in this study. The findings imply that regardless of the perceived constraints, visitors would still be motivated to travel to Tanzania because they are willing to take a calculated risk perceived at the destination.

Finally, place identity was noted to have a strong positive effect on place dependence (H12). This result was consistent with Smith *et al.* (2010) who found a high correlation between place identity and place dependence. Qian *et al.* (in press) found that place dependence significantly affected place identity in the context of migrants. This implies that the mutual effect of place identity and place dependence may differ depending on the context. Hou *et al.* (2005) used place attachment in terms of two dimensions which they labeled place identity and place dependence. In their study the dimensions were used as composites. Qian *et al.* (in press) also reported that place dependence was a dimension independent of place identity in the context of the city (Guangzhou). In this study it was confirmed that place identity and place dependence were two different variables in which place identity strongly predicted place dependence.

## 5. MANAGERIAL IMPLICATION

Regarding the positive association between tourist expectation and tourist satisfaction, destination managers will need to focus more on managing tourist expectations whilst making their performance better to meet tourist expectation and thus result in more satisfied visitors. The positive significant relationship between cultural value confirming motives and satisfaction will assist destination planners and marketers in organizing marketing activities (such as promotion activities) and in developing tourism products by nurturing cultural value confirming motives in order to enhance

satisfaction and likelihood of the destination being chosen as unique. Likewise, findings may evade directing resources to irrelevant motivational factors. The study also found that intrapersonal constraint had a negative effect on cultural value confirming motives and satisfaction. This should encourage tourism planners and other stakeholders to take proactive measures in their efforts to reduce the effects of intrapersonal constraints (i.e., fear of crime and health concerns while being in Tanzania) and thus increase satisfaction with the cultural experiences offered. Finally, the findings support the idea that tourism policymakers and other stakeholders would be wise to consider corresponding expectation, motivation, perceived constraints and satisfaction towards the type of place identity and dependence associated with destination attachment.

## CONCLUSION

A destination is a combination of tourism attractions formed by products and services that offer an integrated experience to customers. A destination viewed from a marketing point of view includes perceptions, attitudes and cognitions of tourists amidst subjective experiences that are relevant in defining a destination, and not only the products and services offered. As this study confirms, tourists' behaviors in choosing a certain place are influenced by many factors such as expectations, travel motivation, perceived constraints and satisfaction, which are related to visitors' strong bonds with a destination. Previous studies in destination choice focused on Western and Asian destinations, and only a few in Tanzania. This study used an integrated destination choice model of international adventure tourists visiting the attractions of the so called Northern Circuit of Tanzania as an empirical focus of the study. The contribution of this study is that it identifies the underlying tourist behaviors as well as their interrelations in explaining destination choice. Most importantly, it proposes a logical approach for setting up a loyalty program to ensure a long-term destination success strategy. This study would then serve as the first in a series of longitudinal mixed-method studies of profiling visitor segments to establish a reliable data base for the tourism strategy developments and competitive positioning of future Tanzania. Future studies in Tanzania and elsewhere can adopt this model also in a domestic tourism context. Moreover and specifically, this model can be applied to international adventure tourism in other African destinations that are similar to Tanzania and compare the findings to the recent study in order to build more robust models.

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