PUSH- AND PULL FORCES WITHIN OUTBOUND DESTINATION CHOICE

BY

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DECLARATION

I, Daniel Petrus Ferreira, hereby declare that:

- The content of this dissertation entitled “Push- and Pull Forces within Outbound Destination Choice” is my own work;
- All sources used or quoted, have been acknowledged and documented by means of references; and
- This dissertation has not been submitted previously for a degree at any other tertiary intuition.

DANIEL PETRUS FERREIRA

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ABSTRACT

Push- and pull forces are considered the most important motivational factors in driving tourism demand. Push forces are motivational forces that arise due to the individual's need to travel, while pull forces are destination attributes which pull the traveller to the specific destination and in doing so they satisfy the need of the traveller. Understanding why people travel, how they go about selecting their holiday destination and why one country is preferred to the other, is vital to the continued success of the tourism industry. The needs and wants of travellers are constantly changing, therefore, it is imperative that tourism businesses excel at developing new products and services which are better suited to the needs of consumers.

The primary objective of this study was to determine the push- and pull forces that influence outbound destination choice in Nelson Mandela Bay Metropole. The study investigated and analysed how the independent variables (push- and pull factors) influence destination choice (dependent variable). From a comprehensive literature review, a hypothetical model was developed to test the relationships between push- and pull forces and destination choice. Twelve hypotheses were formulated to test the relationship between four push forces, eight pull forces and destination choice.

The study sought the perceptions of Nelson Mandela Bay Metropole residents and utitised the quantitative research paradigm. A survey was conducted with the aid of a structured self-administered questionnaire, distributed via e-mail and as a hard copy. A combination of convenience- and snowball sampling was utilised. The final sample comprised 302 respondents. The validity of the measuring instrument was ascertained by using exploratory factor analysis. The Cronbach's alpha values for reliability were calculated for each of the factors identified during the exploratory factor analysis.

The top ten destinations visited and intended to be visited were indicated. United Kingdom was the most visited international destination for both leisure and business purposes, while The United States of America was the most popular international destination to visit next for both leisure and business purposes. Pearson product-moment correlation and multiple regression analysis were used to test the correlation

and significance of the relationships hypothesised between the various independent and dependent variables. Three statistically significant relationships were found between the push forces (physical and stature motivators and destination accessibility) and destination choice. Four statistically significant relationships were found between the pull forces (events, natural attractions, political issues and general infrastructure) and destination choice. The empirical findings further confirmed that an inter-relationship between push- and pull forces within destination choice does exist. However, pull forces influence push forces to a larger extent.

Analysis of variance calculations were used to identify if significant relationships exist between the twelve demographic variables and nine reliable and valid independent variables. Furthermore, post-hoc Scheffè tests identified where the significant differences occurred between the different categories. Cohen’s d-values were calculated in order to assess the practical significance of the mean scores. A total of sixteen practical significant relationships were identified.

Travel companies should compile travel packages and tours that serve the needs of both leisure- and business travellers. They can use social media as a communication- and promotion tool to entice travellers to specific destinations. The business travel packages should be all inclusive and include transportation, accommodation and even entries to events. The visual aids, utilised within the marketing material, should entice travellers to want to visit these destinations, and outline the favourable general infrastructure available. When marketing outbound destinations, travel service providers must pay attention to demographical variables such as gender, age, ethnical affiliation, income and marital status to compile travel packages that satisfy the needs of specific groups.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is in essence a series of flows and movements (George, 2007:9). Tourism is not just an industry, but a complex system with many interrelated components and involves various stakeholders (Van Mai & Bosch, 2010:1). Travelling outside the borders of one's own country has been restricted and limited in the early years of the Roman Empire (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:27). It was only in the late eighteenth century that passports were issued and international travel monitored (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:27). Since then tourism has grown at a rapid rate, and in 2011 tourism was directly responsible for 5% of the Global Gross Domestic Product (GDP), 30% of the world's services exports and one in every twelve jobs (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2011:11). In 2013 it was expected that globally international trips were expected to grow by 4%, but overnight stays would only increase by 2% (Internationale Tourismus-Börse, 2012:5). According to the Internationale Tourismus-Börse (2013:4), international trips did increase by 4% in 2013 and a 4.5% growth in the global outbound tourism market was predicted for 2014.

According to Lubbe (2005:245), the most important aspect of tourism management is to understand the key drivers of tourism and how they impact on tourism. One of these key drivers is the conventional way of addressing tourist behaviour and motivation (Lubbe, 2005:245). If planning of tourism is executed effectively and all the drivers thereof are considered, it will generate revenue and employment (Ahn, Ekinci, & Li, 2013:720; Badarned & Som, 2011:38).

The way in which tourist behaviour is addressed and motivated, is becoming seriously outdated (Graves, 2013:1; Lubbe, 2005:245; Mahika, 2011:15). Butler (1980:5) affirmed it in the eighties that over time the needs and motivators of tourists had changed. The "New Tourist" is emerging and Lubbe (2005:246) mentioned that tourists are becoming more discerning and demanding, more interested in an individual experience and special interest travel, looking for interactivity and they are more educated and want to enrich their lives and knowledge. Chen and Wu (2009:301) confer with Lubbe (2005:246), and add that tourists travel longer distances and spend more money. Understanding why people travel and take holiday trips, how they go about selecting their destinations and why one country is preferred above the other are vital to those who work in the tourism industry (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:64; Van Vuuren & Slabbert, 2011:696).

Motivation (needs) for travel is one of the most important factors that need to be considered when designing tourist packages (Lubbe, 2005:245). Why people travel and where they travel to should be the main focus of any business dealing with the selling of or offering of holiday packages (Aziz, 2009:97; Beh & Bruyere, 2007:1465). Furthermore, the destination attributes and accessibility of destinations also need consideration, as these influence the image that the tourist has of the destination (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003:38). All people differ; due to this, people will have different motivations to visit a certain destination and for choosing specific destinations (Jonsson & Devonish, 2008:398).

The next section will elaborate on the history of travel.

1.2 HISTORY OF TRAVEL

According to archaeological and documentary records, people have travelled beyond their living areas and settlements since the beginning of time (Keyser, 2009:280). Travelling is nothing new to the human race (Stark, 2002:102). People have been travelling to different places for various reasons over the last centuries, and even millennia (Lubbe, 2005:13). In prehistoric times people travelled for crucial reasons such as seeking food, escaping from adversaries, famine and diseases, obtaining relief from life pressure, the pressure of overpopulation, achieving territorial expansion, engaging in bartering type of trade and perhaps, even then, satisfying curiosity about unknown lands (Inskeep, 1991:3; McLaren, 2014:1).

In the following sections a brief history of tourism is provided.

1.2.1 Before Christ

The earliest forms of travel can be traced back to three millennia Before Christ (BC) and the Babylonian and Egyptian empires, which mostly travelled for business purposes (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:20). Around 1490 BC one of the first recorded leisure trips was that of Queen Hatshepsut, who travelled from Egypt to Somalia (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:21). Explorers on their quest for territorial expansion discovered most of the unknown world, as in the case of Marco Polo for example (Keyser, 2009:15). George (2007:20) indicates that, in the late 13th century, Marco Polo, a Venetian, travelled to China, Persia (now Iran), Tibet, and Burma (now Myanmar), while in the14th century Ibn Battuta travelled extensively and crossed the Sahara to visit Mali. Travelling in these times for any reason, was expensive, dangerous and time-consuming (Saayman, 2000:53).

1.2.2 Anno Domini

During the second century Anno Domini (AD), the Romans developed extensive, well-designed road systems (infrastructure) throughout their territory (Keyser, 2009:280). According to Saayman (2000:55), the Romans had the ability to build roads that could withstand all weather conditions, which had lead to an increase in travel. The Roman Empire at its height was perceived to be unwavering and thriving. These conditions also led to the increase of travel within the empire, as well as beyond its borders (Lubbe, 2005:15). The growth of the middle class led to more trade-based travel, thus developing the world economy (Saayman, 2000:56). Pilgrimages to ancient places of worship were common within this period, with Christian pilgrims visiting Santiago de Compostelain Spain and Rome (the Holy land), while Muslims embarked on the Hajj to Mecca (George, 2007:20; Holloway & Taylor, 2006:26; Lubbe, 2005:15). The barbarian invasion of the Roman Empire started in the late reign of the Roman Empire, and took place over centuries. This led to the slow disintegration of the Great Empire, and to what is known today as the Dark Ages (Lubbe, 2005:15).

1.2.3 Middle Ages

Many authors (Holloway & Taylor 2006; Inskeep 1991; Keyser 2009; Lubbe 2005; Stark 2002) assert that in the Middle Ages, the fall of the Roman Empire led to a decrease in trade and economic activities and the disintegration of the transport network. This led to the Dark Ages where travel became dangerous, unattractive and synonymous with the term travail (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:24). The meaning of travail is physical and mental hardship, since travelling was regarded a physical and mental burden as it was dangerous and exhausting in those times.

In this era, tourism came to a virtual stop as most people left the cities and returned to their hometown (Saayman, 2000:55). Leisure as it is known today was not for the general population and only the rich travelled during these times (Keyser, 2009:280). It was during this period that passports were introduced. From 1388, King Richard II required that all pilgrims carry passports (McIntosh, Goeldner & Ritchie, 1995:47). People who sought to travel before the sixteenth century only had three modes of transport available, namely (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:25):

- Walking regardless of the distance was the only mode available for the poor;
- Horse riding; and
- Carrier wagons (horse-drawn) which was a slow and uncomfortable mode of transport.

Only the aristocrats and a few other citizens with a second home in the country travelled for leisure purposes. This continued well into the eighteenth century (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:25).

1.2.4 Renaissance

The Renaissance was a period of about two centuries (ending at the end of the seventeenth century). This period was characterised by increasing freedom of creativeness and the blooming of music, art and architecture (Lubbe, 2005:17). This period is also referred to as the Golden Period of Europe. Due to the developments of the Renaissance, in the 17th and 18th centuries, the Grand Tour arose. The Grand Tour was instrumental in the development of tourism as it started tours with a pure educational focus (Lubbe, 2005:17). The Grand Tour was undertaken by wealthy young men (predominantly British), mostly from royal heritage (George, 2007:21; Holloway & Taylor, 2006: 26; Lubbe, 2005:15). Young men would generally follow an itinerary over three years, visiting various cities in Europe, with, in most cases, tutors accompanying them. The generally accepted itinerary included France, Italy, Germany and the Low Countries (Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg); these countries are collectively also known as the Benelux countries. According to George (2007:20), the Revolutionary- and Napoleonic Wars ended the Grand Tour in the early 19th century. This in turn made way for the Industrial Revolution. Keyser (2009:283) affirms that travel frequency before the Industrial Revolution was linked to social class.

1.2.5 Industrial revolution

The Industrial Revolution started in the mid to late eighteenth century (Stark, 2002:102). According to Inskeep (1991:6), the Industrial Revolution set the course for modern development in tourism. The Industrial Revolution was a shift from the traditional farming economy to that of machine-based production of large scale goods (Keyser, 2009:284). This led to the growth in economic activity, which in turn led to improved labour productivities, better education, fast growth in the middle class, improved transportation networks and more spare time and demand for leisure activities (Inskeep, 1991:6). These activities led to the development of spas and seaside resorts and large city hotels in the early nineteenth century (Inskeep 1991:6). The first hotel was opened in London in 1774 (Coltman, 1989:68). Rail development started in the early 1800s and increased throughout the eighteenth century - a passengers-freight locomotive was, for example designed in 1829 (Keyser, 2009:284).

1.2.6 Twentieth century

In the early twentieth century the improvement in the road networks led to mass production and widespread use of the motor vehicle, while air travel commenced in the late 1920s (Inskeep, 1991:8). Thomas Cook is known to be the first travel agent. He compiled the first rail travel tour in 1841. By the 1850's, Cook's London based travel agency offered guided tours of Europe (Keyser, 2009:285). Since World War II tourism according to Inskeep (1991:8), has grown to become a major socioeconomic activity of the world due to several influencing factors, amongst others:

- Greater disposable income available for travel;
- Fewer working hours, paid holidays and annual vacations, for a large number of employees thus providing the leisure time for travel;
- Rapid and dispersed economic development leading to greatly increased business travel; and
- Major improvements in transportation including in air travel services and highway networks.

Since 2002, tourism has occurred due to various types of business activities, which provide products and services to tourists (O'Shannessy, Minett & Hyde, 2002:3). Tourism has become one of the largest and fastest growing industries in the world (Saayman, 2000:95).

International tourism, the movement across international boundaries, has dramatically increased over the last two decades (Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994:135). Tourism represents one of the biggest economic industries in the world. Since the start of the new millennium everyone from national governments to local communities has been engaged in tourism (Clarke & Godfrey, 2000:1).

In the next section the problem statement will be highlighted.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Tourism is of significant importance to the South African economy as it contributes approximately 4% directly to the country's GDP (R 93, 3 billion) (9% directly and indirectly) and employs 4.6% (617 287) of the country's formal workforce (SAnews, 2014:1; South African Tourism, 2014:1). Global tourism grew by an estimated 7.4% in 2000, the highest growth rate in nearly a decade and almost twice the increase of 1999 (Keyser, 2009:290). In the first months of 2011 international tourist arrivals grew by close to 5% in South Africa (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2011:1). In the first two months of 2011, worldwide international tourist arrivals surpassed 124 million, with an increase from 119 million from 2010, with emerging economies growing at a faster pace than advanced ones (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2011:1). In 2012 international travel was expected to reach a new all-time high, and then continue to grow moderately in 2013, driven by emerging markets (Internationale Tourismus-Börse, 2012:4). Worldwide international tourist arrivals did grow by 5% in 2013 and reached 1.1 billion (South African Tourism, 2014:7).

Total tourist volume in South Africa, which includes inbound, outbound and domestic travel declined as a whole from 2005 to 2009 due to the weaker economic climate and global recession (Euromonitor International, 2012:1). However, due to the increase in the strength of the South African rand in the early months of 2011, travelling outside South Africa was relatively cheap (Euromonitor International, 2012:1). South Africans took advantage of this and travelled extensively overseas. Countries with emerging outbound travel markets have been identified as Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa which are collectively referred to as the BRICS's countries (World Travel Market, 2012:19). Tourists from these countries are being sought after by the world's tourism boards. The BRICS's countries are also seen as the future powerhouses of the travel and tourism industry and they have been as such included in all three world travel market industry reports.

South Africa is seen as an emerging outbound tourism market and is seen as a future powerhouse of the travel and tourism industry with regard to outbound travel (World Travel Market, 2012:19). However, very little information is available regarding South African outbound tourism (Stats SA, 2008:3). There is a lack of information on factors motivating tourists to visit international destinations and the factors that influence the destination choice (Van Vuuren & Slabbert, 2011:695). Understanding the forces that affect peoples' choices with regard to holiday destinations can play a vital role in activities being planned more efficiently by tourism authorities (Kassean & Gassita, 2013:1).

No prior research has been done on push- and pull forces within outbound destination choice within the South African context. However, authors such as Saayman (2000) and Lubbe (2005) debate the topic in their works. Saayman (2000:33) state that push- and pull forces are primarily responsible for a certain destination to be identified as a tourist attraction; these forces are what drive an individual out of his state of inertness. Lubbe (2005:35) concludes that individuals working in the tourism industry should ensure that the tangible pull forces of the tourism product match up with intangible push forces of the tourist. The potential tourist will only become a client if the individual realises that the product on offer will be able to satisfy a need.

In literature, factors are identified that could influence destination choice in the form of push- and pull forces (Mohammad & Som, 2010:41). However, these push- and pull forces have not been identified for the South African outbound market. Furthermore, little is known about the push- and pull forces that influence Nelson Mandela Bay Metro (NMBM) residents' international destination choices.

This has led to the research in question:
What are the push- and pull forces that drive the Nelson Mandela Bay Metro (NMBM) residents to travel to international destinations?

In the next section the research objectives of the study are highlighted.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this study is to determine the push- and pull forces that influence outbound destination choice. To give effect to the primary objectives of this study, the following secondary research objectives have been formulated:

- To conduct a literature study on tourism demand and the push- and pull forces impacting on outbound destination choice;
- To establish empirically where NMBM residents travel to and would like to travel to;
- To determine empirically the top ten destination choices of NMBM residents;
- To identify empirically the push- and pull forces that impact outbound destination choice;
- To determine empirically if there is an inter-relationship between push- and pull forces;
- To determine empirically whether there is a relationship between the demographic profile of travellers and the push- and pull forces motivating their destination choice; and

- To provide guidelines to tourism businesses on how to utilise the identified push- and pull forces to lure NMBM residents to certain destinations.

In the next section the concepts used in the study will be clarified.

1.5 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

In the next section the concepts used in this study are defined and clarified.

1.5.1 Tourism

According to The World Tourism Organisation, (2004:1) tourism can be defined as the activities of people travelling to, and staying in, places outside the individual's usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity compensated for within the place visited. Holloway and Taylor (2006:5) define tourism as an impermanent short term movement of people to destinations outside the place where they normally reside, and activities during their stay at these destinations; it includes movement for all purposes, as well as day visits or excursions. It is clear from these definitions that for tourism to occur there must be some sort of movement or displacement such as travelling to places outside the individual's usual environment, thus indicating a movement away from the individual's place of residence (home town or city). Keyser (2009:232) states that the movement from one geographic area (origin) to another (destination) is the key distinguishing characteristic of tourism.

For the purpose of this study, tourism will be regarded as the movement between the origin country and the destination and all the activities involved in this movement or displacement for not more than one consecutive year- activities for which there should be no compensation within the destination visited.

1.5.2 Destination

An individual should have a destination (outside his/her town/ city of residents) to travel to, before tourism can occur. Keyser (2009:404) defines a destination as a spatial area comprising of a mix of tourism resources, created facilities and support services and infrastructure that is managed, marketed and consumed under a single brand identity. On the other hand, George (2008:480) defines a destination as a place including a physical or perceived location consisting of primary and secondary attractions and supporting amenities that entice people to visit it. Leiper (1995:87) defines a destination as a place where people travel to and where they choose to stay for a while in order to experience certain features or characteristics.

In this study, destination refers to the place to which the tourist is travelling to, so as to visit and participate in activities.

1.5.3 Outbound tourists

Outbound tourism refers to any person who travels to a country other than the one the individual resides in for a period not exceeding twelve months and whose main purpose of the visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the country visited (Keyser, 2002:40). George (2008:21) defines outbound tourists as tourists who visit international destinations outside the borders of their country of origin. In this study, outbound tourists will be regarded as tourists who travel to predetermined international destinations, outside the borders of their home country for a period less than twelve months, which excludes activity compensated for within the destination visited.

1.5.4 Pull forces

Pull forces are the factors that pull tourists to a specific destination (Airey, Butler & Portia, 2004:19). Pull forces are connected to the external, situational or cognitive aspects of motivation (Yoon & Uysal, 2005:46). Pull forces are generally considered attractions or destination attributes (Mohammad & Som, 2010:41). In this study, pull forces will refer to the external facets of motivation which are destination attributes.

1.5.5 Push forces

Push forces are the intangible or basic desires of the individual traveller to partake in travelling (Kassean & Gassita, 2013:2; Mohammad & Som, 2010:41). Push forces are mainly associated with the intangibles such as the motives, need and interests of the traveller (Kim & Chalip, 2004:701; Moutinho, Ballantyne & Rate, 2011:93). Push forces are the factors that influence the decision to travel (Airey *et al.,* 2004:19). In this study, push forces will refer to the desire of the tourist to partake in travel.

The next section will elaborate on the conceptual models supporting this study.

1.6 CONCEPTUAL MODELS SUPPORTING THE STUDY

The following models will be used to compile the hypothetical model of this study:

- Leiper's (1990) basic tourism system model;
- Saayman's (2000) push- and pull force model;
- McIntosh and Goeldner's (1984) three category motivation model;
- Keyser's (2006) visitors' profile model;
- Richards and Wilson's (2004) backpacker travel model; and
- Alghamdi's (2007) integrated model of explicit motives.

These models will be discussed in the following sections.

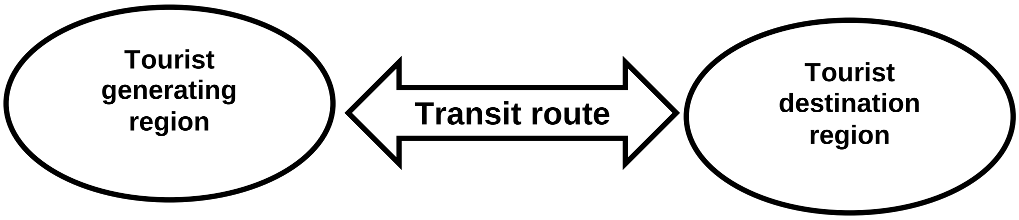
1.6.1 Leiper's (1990) basic tourism system model

In order to understand tourism better, Leiper's (1990) basic tourism system model will be considered. Leiper (1990) identified the tourism industry as a 'system' with three distinct regions, comprising of a:

- tourist generating region (TGR) which includes mainly tour operators and travel agents;
- transit route region which includes all forms of transportation for moving tourists to and from their destinations; and
- tourist destination region (TDR) which includes accommodation and all visitor attractions, leisure and entertainment.

Figure 1.1 illustrates this model. This model will assist in dividing the complex tourism system in smaller parts.

Figure 1.1: Leiper's basic tourism system model



Source: Adapted from Leiper (2004:53)

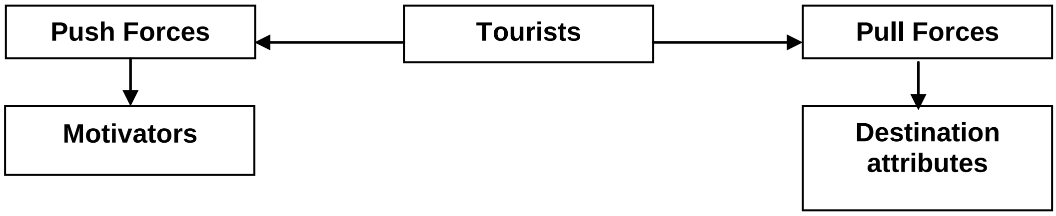
Within this model, the tourist generating region (TGR) and the tourist destination region (TDR) form the two basic components of the system and the transit routes refer to the method of travel between the two areas. The TGR is the country or region of origin of the tourist. Leiper (2004:53) indicates that the TGR can also be referred to as the market or origin region. In this region there will be certain 'push' forces that will push people to travel. Within this region the marketing activity takes place, as well as the consumers search for travel products and eventually booking the holiday.

Leiper (2004:122) describes transit routes as the linkage between the two areas; the tourist has left his place of origin but has not yet reached his destination. The TDR represents the destination to which the tourist is travelling. Leiper (2004:128) states that a tourist destination is a place to where tourists choose to travel.

1.6.2 Saayman's (2000) push- and pull forces model

According to Saayman (2000:33), if forces that attract tourists to destinations are taken into consideration, the push- and pull forces are easily identified. The forces are the primary reasons why tourist destinations are identified. These forces that move tourists outside their normal places of residence are represented in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2: Saayman's (2000) push- and pull forces model



Source: Adapted from Saayman (2000:33) quoted Dann (1977)

Figure 1.2 identifies push forces as motivators and pull forces as destination attributes. Push forces in tourism are the motivators (needs) that drive a person to visit a specific destination or country. Examples of push factors may include: curiosity on the part of tourists; tourists travel to places that they hear or read about; and the origin syndrome, where tourists travel to countries from which they are descended.

Pull forces are the destination attributes that pull the tourist to a specific destination. Saayman (2000:35-37) identifies the following pull factors:

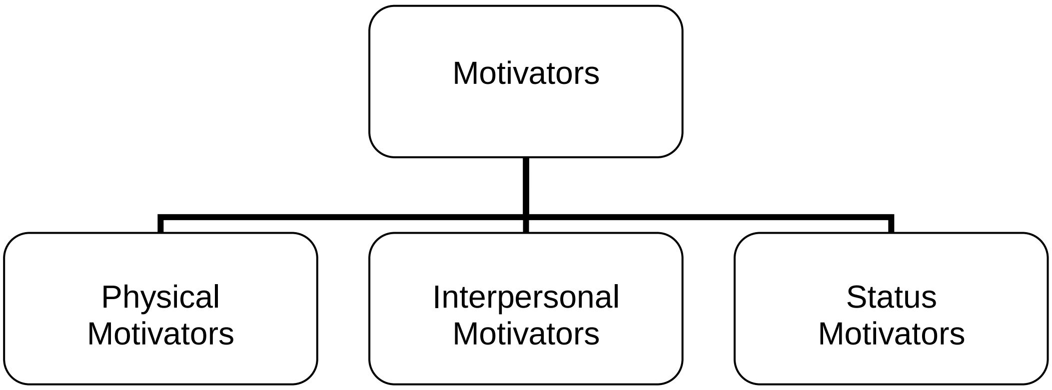
- Cultural messages that consist of history, archaeology and politics;
- Traditions that include art, handcraft, lifestyle, music, dance, festivals and religion;
- Weather and the climate, which consist of sights worth seeing and wildlife; and
- Amusement and entertainment which include sports and recreation, catering, nightlife, amusement parks and gambling activities.

Saayman (2000:40) also identifies reasons as to why people will not choose a certain destination; these are; finance, time and safety. Finance can be viewed as the biggest factor that will limit travel and participation in leisure and recreational activities. Besides finance, time is also a major factor that will limit the decision to travel because so many people do not find the time to travel. Safety concerns associated with political instability, wars and coups may leave tourists feeling unsafe in countries where these circumstances prevail, and tourists will not travel to those locations, especially if unsafe circumstances occur regularly (Saayman, 2000:41).

1.6.3 McIntosh and Goeldner's (1984) three category motivation model

The motivation to travel is a very complex matter, the reason for this is that all people are different and therefore have different needs, and also satisfy these needs differently. Therefore motivations for travel will differ from person to person even if they visit the same destination. McIntosh and Goeldner (1984:49) divide motivation into three main groups as can be seen in Figure 1.3.

Figure 1.3: McIntosh and Goeldner's (1984) three category motivation model



Source: McIntosh & Goeldner (1984:49)

Figure 1.3 identifies the three category motivation model as identified by McIntosh and Goeldner (1984). Physical motivators are associated with reduction of stress through physical activities, such as, sport, relaxation and resting. Interpersonal motivators are associated with maintaining and prolonging personal relationship, for example, visiting family and friends. Status motivators are associated with ego needs and personal development, for example, business trips (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1984:49).

1.6.4 Keyser's (2006) visitors' profile model

Keyser (2006) developed visitor profiles to assist the process of tourism development. These visitor profiles and their indicators can be seen in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Visitor profile model

The visitor	The visit	The visitor experience
• Country of residence • Age • Sex • Group size • Occupation • Occupational status • Income • Family-composition/lifecycle stage • Values, attitudes, and preferences	• Period of visit (time of year) • Mode of transport • Purpose of visit • Duration of stay • Accommodation used • Places/destination visited • Sources of destination information • Travel arrangements (tour or independent); and expenditure	• Service levels • Facilities and services • Infrastructure • Safety and security • Repeat visit • Recommendation to other tourists.

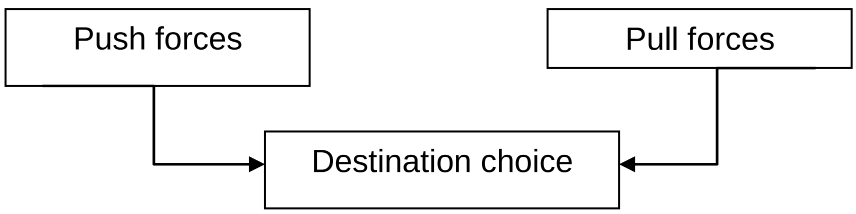
Source: Adapted from Keyser (2006:49)

Table 1.1 distinguishes between the visitor, the visit and the visitor experience. Information regarding the visitor and the visit itself is required by a destination's national tourism organisation in order to target its marketing activities, add to destination planning and report any problems experienced by tourists (Keyser, 2006:48). This information is not just useful to a destination's national tourism organisation, but also to the tour operators and agents in the TGR. It is imperative that these organisations have the same information about their clients regarding the TDR. They need to be aware of the experience and satisfaction levels of their clients in order to address any problems and develop new products for their clients.

1.6.5 Richards and Wilson's (2004) backpacker travel model

Richards and Wilson (2004) investigated the motivation for choosing certain destinations as illustrated in Figure 1.4.

Figure 1.4: Richards and Wilson's (2004) backpacker travel model



Source: Adapted from Richards & Wilson (2004:9)

It is clear from Figure 1.4 that push- and pull forces influence destination choice. The push- and pull forces theory states that people are firstly pushed by the internal factors or emotional factors such as the need to escape, to relax, for adventure and knowledge. After they have already been pushed by internal factors, they are pulled by external factors such as the natural attractions, the outdoor activities and the cultural and historical attractions. The pull forces are thus used to explain the selection of a destination. Richards and Wilson (2004) state that there are push- and pull forces at play when considering a destination. Richards and Wilson (2004:8) pose the following questions about tourists:

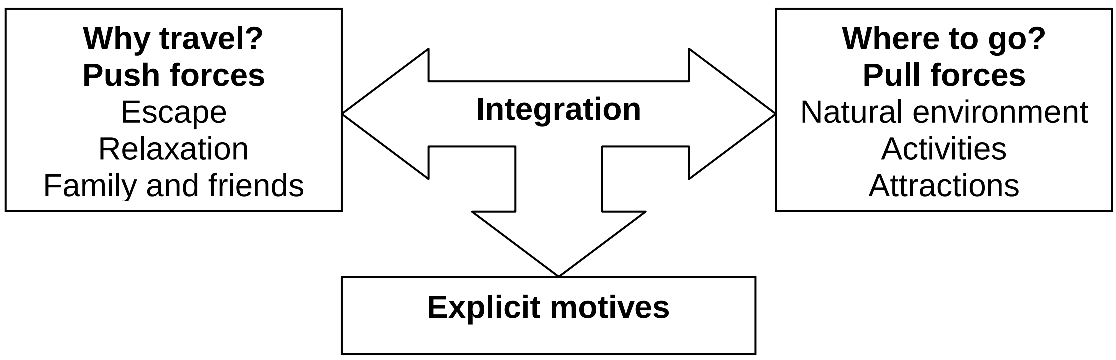
- Which destinations do they visit?
- How do they travel?
- What are their motivations for choosing specific destinations and travel routes?
- What sources of information do they use on their travels?

Richards and Wilson (2004:8) state that the answers to these questions have value to a wide range of tourism policy makers and marketers.

1.6.6 Alghamdi's (2007) integrated model of explicit motives

Figure 1.5 shows the push- and pull factors identified by Alghamdi (2007) which provide the reasons or motives as to why people want to travel.

Figure 1.5: Alghamdi's (2007) integrated model of explicit motives



Source: Adapted from Alghamdi (2007:87)

Figure 1.5 indicates that push forces are the reasons or motives as to why people want to travel; pull forces are concerned with the destination and its attributes. The

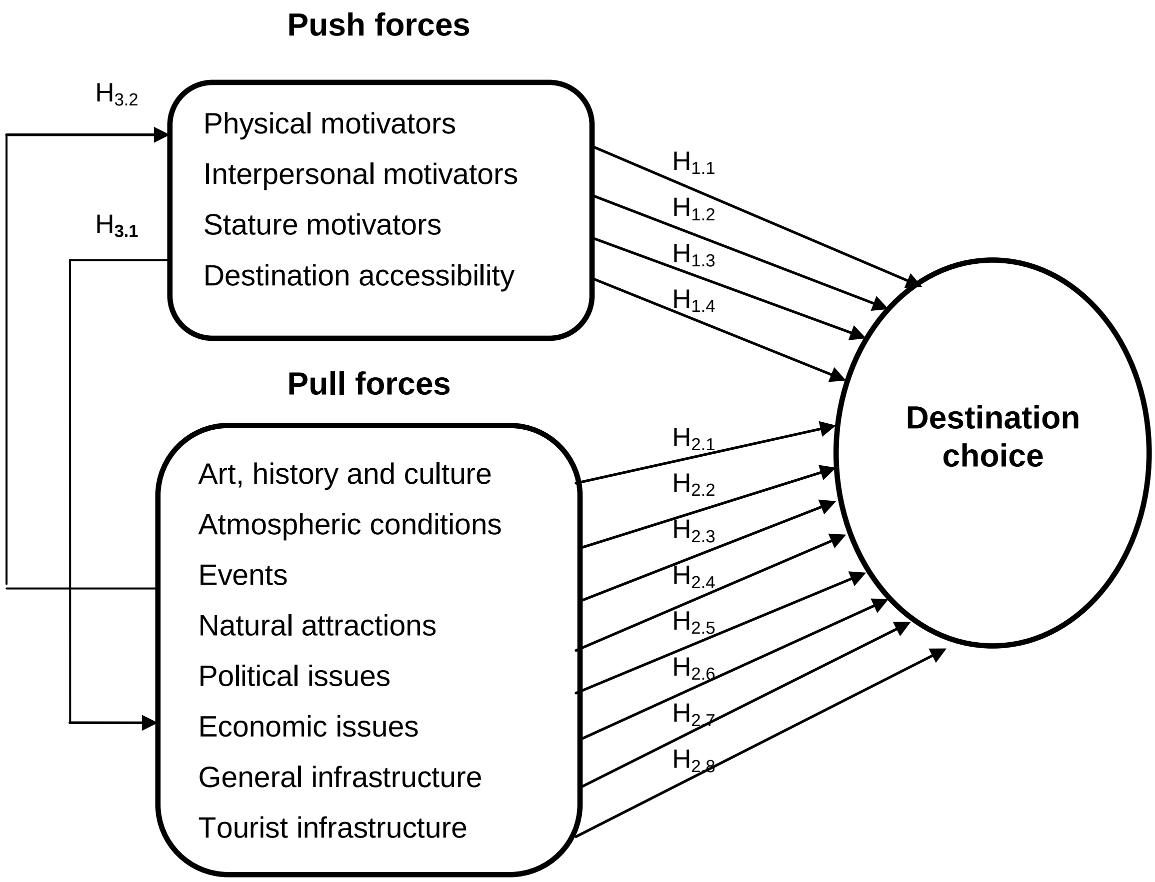
Alghamdi (2007) model differs from that of Saayman (2000) and Richards and Wilson (2004) as it illustrates that there should be a linkage (integration) between push- and pull forces. A destination choice is not just based on one force, but on both push- and pull forces. Pull forces refer to destination attributes that the tourist will take into consideration after the initial push force has been realised.

The proposed hypothetical model of this study which is based on the conceptual models discussed in the previous sections will now be presented.

1.7 PROPOSED HYPOTHETICAL MODEL

Based on the previous models, the proposed hypothetical model for this study has been constructed. The model includes various aspects of the previous models. This model is represented in Figure 1.6.

Figure 1.6: Hypothetical model of the study



Source: Researcher's own construct

Figure 1.6 indicates the variables which can influence destination choice. The models of Saayman (2000), Richards and Wilson (2004) and Alghamdi (2007) indicate that push- and pull forces play a role in destination choice. Figure 1.6 also incorporates information from Leiper's (1990) basic tourism system model, McIntosh and Goeldner's (1984) three category motivation model and Keyser's (2006) visitors profile model.

The hypothetical model (Figure 1.6) proposes physical motivators, interpersonal motivators, stature motivators and destination accessibility as push forces that can influence destination choice. The physical motivators may include: escape motive, adventure and excitement, relaxation, cuisine, sport and outdoor activities, and desire and curiosity. The interpersonal motivators may include: visiting friends and relatives, meeting new people and meeting people one met on social media and family getaways. Stature motivators may include; prestige, status, increasing knowledge and personal development. Destination accessibility may be determined by length of travel, visa requirements, vicinity of secondary destination and health requirements.

The pull forces may include; art, history and culture, atmospherics, events, sightseeing, natural attractions, political factors, economic factors, general infrastructure and tourist infrastructure. Prayag and Ryan (2011:122) argue that the push force or motivation is first realised; thereafter the pull force or destination attribute will influence the choice of destination, thus a inter-relationship exist between push- and pull forces. This inter-relationship between push- and pull forces was also confirmed by Ali Shan, Fakhr, Ahmad and Zaman (2010:168).

The influence that these push- and pull factors has on destination choice as depicted in the hypothetical model, will be tested by means of a structured questionnaire and analysed using exploratory factor analysis.

In the next section of the research, the research hypotheses will be formulated.

1.8 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Based on the hypothetical model (Figure 1.6) the variables that can possibly influence destination choice are divided into three sets of hypotheses namely push- and pull forces and the inter-relationship between the two forces. These variables identified to test the pull- and push forces are validated by secondary sources.

First set of hypotheses: The effects of push forces on destination choice

- $H_{1.1}$: Physical motivators influence choice of destination.
- $H_{1.2}$: Interpersonal motivators influence choice of destination.
- $H_{1.3}$: Stature motivators influence choice of destination.
- $H_{1.4}$: Destination accessibility influences choice of destination.

Second set of hypotheses: The effects of pull forces on destination choice

- $H_{2.1}$: Art, history and culture of a country influence choice of destination.
- $H_{2.2}$: Atmospheric attributes influence choice of destination.
- $H_{2.3}$: Events influence choice of destination.
- $H_{2.4}$: Natural attractions influence choice of destination.
- $H_{2.5}$: Political attributes influence choice of destination.
- $H_{2.6}$: Economic attributes influence choice of destination.
- $H_{2.7}$: General infrastructure influences choice of destination.
- $H_{2.8}$: Tourist infrastructure influences choice of destination.

Third set of hypotheses: The inter-relationship between push- and pull forces and its influence on destination choice.

- $H_{3.1}$: Push forces are affected by pull forces in destination choice.
- $H_{3.2}$: Pull forces are affected by push forces in destination choice.

In the next section the research design and methodology are outlined.

1.9 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Research design can be seen as a blueprint for the study which will guide the research towards its objectives (Aaker, Day & Kumar, 2007:760). In the following sections the research paradigm and approaches followed for this study will be discussed. The sampling strategy for collecting data will be referred to. The data analysis procedures will be elaborated on and it will be indicated how reliability and validity was ensured for this study.

1.9.1 Research paradigm

There are two research paradigms namely the quantitative- and qualitative paradigms. The quantitative paradigm is concerned with data in numerical form. Bless and Higson-Smith (2004:38) state that working with numbers has its advantages as numbers means exactly the same to every person. Numbers can also be analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2004:38). On the other hand, in some cases numbers cannot accurately quantify a variable and for those studies, language is used to describe them more accurately (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2004:38). The qualitative paradigm is concerned with qualities and non-numerical characteristics. Qualitative data is thus represented in the form of words rather than numbers (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:85). Qualitative data can be observed but not measured, quantitative data can be measured (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:220).

For this study the quantitative research paradigm was regarded as best suited as the results will be subjected to statistical analysis in particular descriptive and inferential statistics.

1.9.2 Research approach

Three research approaches can be followed namely a descriptive-, exploratory- or a causal approach. Descriptive research as the term implies, is concerned with describing the characteristics of a given population, whereas exploratory research is concerned with clarifying ambiguous problems or gaining a better understanding of a problem (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffen, 2009:54). Causal research is conducted to identify a cause-and-effect relationship between variables (Coldcrest & Herbst, 2004:11). For the purpose of this study both exploratory- and descriptive research will be utilised. The study will be descriptive as it will describe the push- and pull forces impacting destination choice. The research will also be exploratory as it aims to acquire insight into and develop an understanding for which push- and pull forces impact destination choice.

1.9.3 Sampling

A population can be either a body of people or a collection of items (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:193). For this study, the population was the residents of the Nelson Mandela Bay Metropole. Collis and Hussey (2003:155) state selecting a sample forms a fundamental part of a quantitative study. A sample consists of some of the members of a population (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:193). The sample of this study has only included residents of the Nelson Mandela Bay Metropole older than 18 years who are in possession of a senior certificate. A sampling frame can be defined as a complete list from which the sample should be drawn (Kothari, 2004:153; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007:208). The data base of Nelson Mandela Bay tourism was utilised to reach respondents. Travel agents within the Nelson Mandela Bay Metropolis were contacted to enquire if the questionnaire could be distributed to walk-in clients.

Leedy (2001:211) categorises sampling into probability and non-probability sampling. With probability samples, the chance or probability of each case being selected from the population is known and equal. Probability sampling is associated with survey- and experimental research strategies. For non-probability samples, the probability of each case being selected from the total population is unknown (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009:213). According to several authors (Aaker *et al*., 2007:386; Wiid & Diggines, 2009:200; Zikmund, 2003:380), non-probability sampling includes: convenience, judgment, snowball- and quota sampling methods, while probability sampling includes: simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling and multi-stage sampling.

The sampling method used in this research is a combination of convenience- and snowball sampling. The rationale for a convenience sampling is that NMBM-residents are conveniently available to the researcher. An advantage of convenience sampling is that a large number of completed questionnaires can be gathered quickly and economically (Zikmund, 2003:381). The Eastern Cape Province is regarded as the poorest province within South Africa and as the researcher resides in this province, a cost-effective research method was needed (Lund, 2014:1; The Human Sciences Research Council, 2014:1). With snowball sampling, respondents provide the researcher with the names of other potential respondents (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:384).

1.9.4 Data collection

Data can be collected from both primary and secondary sources (Aaker *et al*., 2007:84; Bless & Higson-Smith, 2004:97; Wiid & Diggines, 2009:34; Zikmund, 2003:63). Secondary data can be gathered from a number of sources, which include documents, the workplace, the internet, field notes, questionnaires and taped social interaction or interviews (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:84.) The secondary data collection will be obtained from various forms of printed material, including academic journals, published books, previous and related research about the topic through databases such as EBSCOhost and academic search engines such as Google Scholar. Primary sources are new data while secondary sources are information that is readily available (Zikmund, 2003:63). Primary data can be collected using several methods such as pilot studies, focus groups, experiments, and surveys (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:84).

A pilot study is used to collect data in the initial stages of the main study to determine if the measuring instrument is reliable (Zikmund, 2003:63). This study utilised a self-administrated questionnaire and the questionnaire was distributed via e-mail to the identified individuals for completion. In turn these individuals distributed the questionnaire among friends and colleagues for completion.

1.9.4.1 Research instrument

A research instrument is a scale, survey, rating or tool designed to measure the variables of the study (Arvin, 2013:1). The questionnaire is a data collection instrument that poses questions to respondents when searching for answers to a research question (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:106). When research involves an analysis of the implicit assumptions relating to outbound tourism, it is regarded as suitable to utilise a five-point measurement scale (Alghamdi, 2007:148). This will limit respondents' bias in terms of having too many options to choose from. The 5-point Likert Scale utilised in this study ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The questionnaire used within this study was newly constructed based on the information obtained from the literature chapters consulted during this study.

Data analysis will be discussed in the following section.

1.9.5 Data analysis

Data analysis is conducted to detect constant patterns within the data (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2004:137). Various statistical data analysis methods exist such as: reliability analysis, frequencies and percentages, means, factor analysis, Pearson product-moment correlation, multiple regression, analysis of variance (ANOVA), post-hoc Scheffè test and Cohen's D (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:444; Wiid & Diggines, 2009:240).

Wiid and Diggines (2009:242) state that descriptive statistics is associated with percentages and the measurement of central tendencies. Percentages within research reveal the importance of variables within the study and show the relative relationships between variables (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:242). In this study, the researcher made use of descriptive statistics to analyse and describe the results in an understandable manner. The results were presented in the form of percentages, means and standard deviation.

The validity of the study was ensured by utilising exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to test the validity of the information and data obtained from the questionnaire (Collis & Hussey, 2003:173). Both face-and content validity were used in this study as items in the questionnaire were based on the literature study and subjected to expert judgement. Construct validity ensured that the intended construct was measured, rather than irrelevant constructs, as items with a factor loading less than 0.4 were deleted in the exploratory factor analysis. However, should a variable load with a factor loading of 0.4 or higher and that same variable load onto a different factor (cross-loading), that variable was disregarded for further statistical analysis.

One of the most commonly used reliability measures is Cronbach's alpha (Gliem & Gliem, 2003:83). Cronbach's alpha coefficient is a reasonable indicator of the internal consistency of instruments using scales such as rating or Likert Scales (George & Mallery, 2003:231). For this study, the Cronbach's alpha cut off point was 0.6. George and Mallery (2003:50) state that a Cronbach's alpha of 0.6 and higher is considered acceptable. A pilot study of 30 respondents was conducted to determine the initial reliability of the measuring instrument.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient measures a linear relationship between two variables (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:509). The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient enables the researcher to measure the strength of the linear relationship between two tiered or calculable variables (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:450). For the purpose of this study, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to measure the relationships between the push forces, pull forces and destination choice.

The purpose of multiple regression is to gain knowledge about the relationship between several independent or dependent variables (Kothari, 2004:130). For the purpose of this study, multiple regression was used to determine which independent variable (push- and pull forces) has a significant relationship with the dependent variable (destination choice). Multiple regression was be utilised to determine which of the hypotheses constructed for this study (Figure 1.6) was supported or not supported by the findings of the questionnaire. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003:142), when a t-value of a factor is less than 1.96 at a significance level of 0.05 or less than 3.09 at a significant level of 0.001, the null hypothesis is then rejected.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistical analysis that examines significant variances among means. ANOVAs dissect the inconsistency in the data among the different factors (Veal, 2005:268). For the purpose of this study, ANOVAs were calculated to identify which demographic factors predict push- and pull forces. To assist the data analysis process further, post-hoc Scheffè tests were completed to identify where the significant differences occurred between the different categories (Lund Research, 2013:4). Cohen’s d-values were also calculated in order to assess the practical significance of the mean scores (Cohen, 1988:59; Walker, 2008:1).

Next the scope of the research will be discussed, which is followed by ethics and the structure of the research.

1.10 SCOPE OF RESEARCH

The sample of the study was limited to NMBM residents only. No residents under the age of eighteen years were interviewed. All respondents were in possession of a senior certificate. This study only focused on outbound international travel and not domestic travel. This study only explored the push- and pull forces and demographic variables that can influence outbound international destinations.

The rationale for the respondents to be eighteen years and above was to ensure the maturity of the respondents; according to South African Law, an individual is considered a major when he/she reaches eighteen years. The respondents should be in possession of a senior certificate so that the respondents have a sufficient level of education to understand the questionnaire and supply relevant answers. The reasoning why respondents should have travelled at least once abroad, is to ensure that actual outbound tourists are sampled.

1.11 ETHICS

Research ethics approval is a very important process to carry out in order for the researcher to protect the rights of the respondents. A pro-forma ethics clearance form was completed and submitted to the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University Business and Economic Sciences Faculty Research Technology and Innovation committee to ensure that sensitive information and data be treated in a confidential manner and that transparency is present with regards to the researchers' intention of using the information and data collected from the questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed via e-mail and in a hard copy. However, after data analysis had been completed, no respondent could be linked to a specific response.

1.12 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH

The study comprises of the following seven chapters:

- Chapter one provides an overview of the study.
- Chapter two provides an overview of the tourism industry and the sectors within the industry.
- Chapter three discusses the motivations for travel. Attention will be paid to the push- and pull forces.

- Chapter four examines the hypothetical model of this study.
- Chapter five describes the methodology followed in the study.
- Chapter six presents the empirical results of the study.
- Chapter seven provides a summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations.

In the following chapter, the tourism industry and the sectors within the industry will be discussed. The characteristics of the tourism industry and the various forms of tourism will also be highlighted.

CHAPTER 2
OVERVIEW OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 provided the introduction and background to this study and focused on the tourism industry and the history of tourism. The problem statement, research objectives and the proposed hypothetical model supporting this study were presented. The conceptual models utilised within the proposed hypothetical model were also presented and discussed in detail. Chapter 1 also presented a blueprint of the chapters to follow.

What makes the tourism industry distinctive, and to which other industry it can be compared, have been debated frequently (Saayman, 2000:3). George (2007:3) and Page and Connell (2006:4) concur that the tourism industry is characterised by continuous change and development. Gee, Makens and Choy (1989:4) affirmed in the eighties that the tourism industry can be closely linked to the characteristics of manufacturing- and production-based enterprises. Tourism is a form of human activity which is initiated by economic activity and the preference of the consumer (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:91). According to Holloway and Taylor (2006:8) and Keyser (2009:205), the tourism industry should be regarded as part of the service industry. Atilgan, Akinci and Aksoy (2003:414) posit that among the service industries, tourism is noteworthy due to its sensitivity to quality issues and the impact the industry has on national economies.

In this chapter, the tourism industry and the sectors within the industry will be discussed, and reference will be made to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation. The characteristics of the tourism industry will be identified so as to establish what makes the tourism product unique. The various forms of tourism will be referred to and attention will be given to special interest tourism.

2.2 TOURISM INDUSTRY

The tourism industry is dependent upon the social-, cultural- and natural environment in which it resides; therefore the success of the industry is reliant on the environment in which it operates (George, 2007:35). The tourism industry in all its complexity literally involves thousands of organisations; these organisations plan, develop, and promote the functions within destinations (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012:71). As tourism becomes more and more sophisticated, competitive and global, the public and private sectors will be compelled to keep up with the rapidly changing market. International tourism organisations provide a means for those involved in tourism to accomplish this (Gee & Fayos-Solá, 1997:105). This study focuses on outbound tourism and the most recognised and renowned tourism organisation, The United Nations World Tourism Organisation, which is elaborated on in the following section.

2.2.1 The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO)

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) is the United Nations agency responsible for the promotion of responsible, sustainable and universally accessible tourism (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2013a:1). The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) is the most renowned and leading international organisation in the field of travel and tourism (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012:71). UNWTO plays a leading role in gathering and assembling statistical information on international tourism, the publication of their data allows for comparisons to be made on the flow and growth of tourism on an international scale (Holloway, Humphreys, & Davidson, 2009:174).

The organisation's headquarters are situated in Madrid, Spain (Gee & Fayos-Solá, 1997:309). Their membership includes a hundred and fifty-four countries, six territories, one permanent observer, one special observer and over four hundred affiliated members representing the private sector, educational institutions, tourism associations and local tourism authorities (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2013a:4). According to Gee and Fayos-Solá (1997:309), UNWTO engages in a wide variety of activities especially designed to assist developing countries in addressing the following areas:

- Inventories of existing and potential tourism resources; setting national tourism development master plans; formulation of policies, plans and programmes for development of domestic tourism;
- Institutional framework of national tourism administrative structures; tourism development corporations; legislation and regulations;

- Evaluation of the impact of tourism on the national economy and on the environment;
- Statistics, forecasting, statistical analysis, market research, market analysis; promotion, publicity and public relations;
- Training; feasibility studies for tourism and hotel schools and management development;
- Planning and management of national, social and cultural goals of tourism;
- Area development, development of new tourist sites, and development of particular tourism products;
- Planning, location, operation and improvement of tourist accommodations and hotel classification systems;
- Sources and methods of finance for tourism investments; pre investment studies, feasibility studies of investment projects and cost/benefit analysis; and
- Safety of tourists and tourist facilities.

The important role of the UNWTO in assisting the tourism industry in developing countries is clear. The statistics published by UNWTO, assist tourism businesses in forecasting and market analysis. The UNWTO also assist in organising the financial affairs for tourism developments by means of investments, feasibility studies and cost/benefit analysis. The following section will discuss the different sectors within the tourism industry to attempt to clarify the complexity of this interlinking industry.

2.3 THE SECTORS WITHIN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

The tourism industry does not produce a single product but a diverse range of products and services which interact (Cooper & Hall, 2008:243). However, several authors (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006:5; Keyser, 2002:129; Keyser, 2009:194; March, 2003:1) state that the tourism industry cannot be seen as a single definable industry with detailed boundaries. The reasoning behind this is that the tourism industry encompasses many different activities with the aim of satisfying the needs of the tourists (Keyser, 2003:129; Keyser, 2009:194). According to several authors (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012:4; Holloway *et al.,* 2009:21; Keyser, 2002:134; Saayman, 2000:8), the tourism industry can be divided into a variety of different sectors. However, for the purpose of this study only the core sectors of the tourism industry will be discussed as identified by Pender (2005:8). Pender (2005:8) identified the core sectors of the tourism industry as:

- accommodation;
- transportation;
- attractions; and
- travel services.

These sectors within the tourism industry will now be discussed in more detail.

2.3.1 Accommodation

Accommodation can be defined as all establishments offering overnight stays on a commercial basis to all groups of tourists (Middleton & Clarke, 2001:387). The accommodation sector covers all forms of accommodation establishments ranging from all inclusive hotels to camping and self-catering chalets. Perlitz and Ellitiott (2000:2) concur that accommodation is the most basic aspect of any individual's travel arrangements. According to Goeldner and Ritchie (2012:43), the earliest forms of guest rooms formed part of private dwellings. Guests staying in these guest rooms were welcomed and treated like family. Accommodation provides the tourists with the necessary facilities so they can engage in their primary reason for travel (George, 2004:22).

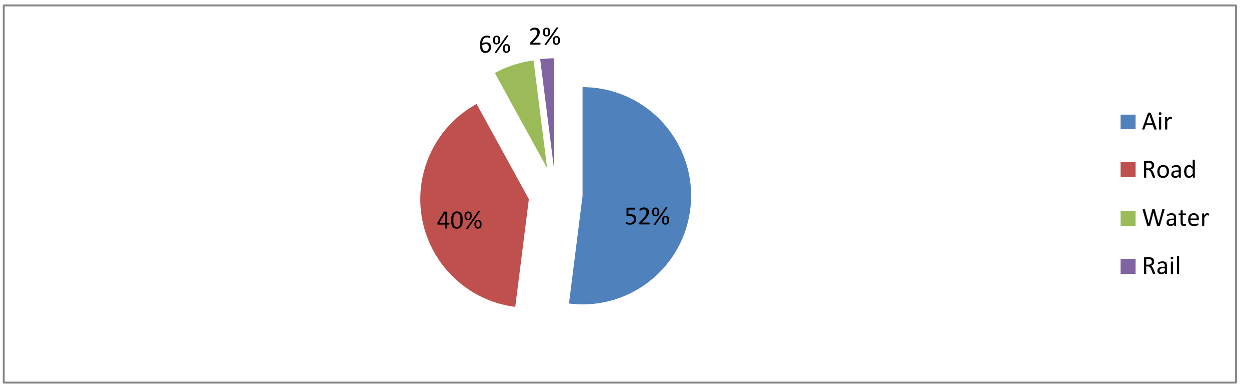
The accommodation sector of the tourism industry is the biggest operational section within the industry (Lubbe, 2005:114). The economic grasp of the accommodation sector is exceptionally broad: its supply chain produces business activities for many other sections of the economy and, in particular, for the retail, recreation, transport and restaurant sectors (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2011:7). The accommodation sector is a major global growth industry; there are about 12.7 million hotel rooms around the world and another 1.3 million were under planned construction during 2011 (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2011:7). The hotel subsector of accommodation is extremely diversified in the types of businesses that operate under its umbrella; the largest hotel chain in the world includes portfolios that cover more than 6 000 hotels and each employs more than 150 000 people (International Labour Organization, 2010:7).

2.3.2 Transportation

Transportation is seen as the lifeblood of the tourism industry as it fills the gap between the destination and the region of the origin (Lubbe, 2005:128). How tourists get to, from and within a certain destination falls within the responsibility of the transportation sector of the tourism industry (Gee & Fayos-Solá, 1997:13). The transportation sector can be seen as an essential part of the tourism industry (Ali, 2012:300; Rodrique, 2013:1). Transportation within tourism aids the tourists to reach their destination as well as their mobility within the destination (Campbell & Ortíz, 2011:42; Lubbe, 2005:128). Goeldner and Ritchie (2012:96) state that tourism and transportation are indistinguishably linked. Access is ultimately the goal of transportation (Litman, 2003:31). The cost of transportation plays an important role in the international tourism market as demand is greatly influenced by cost variations (Rodrique, 2013:1).

The transportation sector can be divided into four subcategories namely; air-, rail-, water-, and road transportation (Holloway *et al*., 2009:13; Keyser, 2002:134; Rowe, Smith & Borein, 2002:8). Figure 2.1 illustrates the market share of the transportation sector for 2012 based on international inbound arrivals.

Figure 2.1: International inbound tourism by means of transport 2012



Source: Adapted from United Nations World Tourism Organisation (2013:5)

It is evident from Figure 2.1 that air travel (52%) is the most used means of transport, thereafter road transportation (40%) and water transportation (6%). The least used form of transportation recorded was rail (2%). These transportation types will now be discussed briefly.

2.3.2.1 Air

Air transportation is seen as an essential element of tourism development, particularly on an international level where destination choice may be more inhibited by time, cost and accessibility factors (Debbage, 2005:28). Gee and Fayos-Solá (1997:53) concur that from an international tourism perspective, air travel is the most important link between tourists and destinations. There are two basic categories of air travel namely:

- Scheduled service providers' flights; and
- Chartered service flights.

Scheduled service providers are airlines that operate on defined routes both nationally and internationally and they have published timetables, whereas chartered services do not operate according to published timetables. They are reserved by a group of people exclusively for their own use and operate on time schedules agreed upon between the group and the charter company. (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:315-317).

2.3.2.2 Rail

Rail travel dominated the land-based travel market worldwide from its beginning in the 19th century until the first half of the 20th century. Since then the market share for rail travel has declined tremendously due to new transport development technology (Lubbe, 2005:135). Towards the end of the 20th century, it became apparent that something needed to be done to improve the market share of rail travel. Two options were put forward: either privatise most rail travel, or agree upon a programme of massive state investment to improve the appeal of rail travel (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:390). Many rail companies were privatised and new privately-owned rail companies emerged. The development of 'fast trains' has improved the market share of the rail industry; these trains regularly achieve 200 miles per hour and can even reach above the 300 mile per hour mark (Davies, 2012:1). The railway systems of numerous countries, particularly in Europe, have seen enormous investments for long-distance routes and high speed services (Rodrique, 2013:1).

2.3.2.3 Water

For centuries the only way of crossing the ocean was going to the nearest port to find a cargo ship going in the direction of an individual's desired destination and negotiate a price with the captain of the ship (Perlitz & Ellitiott, 2000:140). Ship crossings for the main purpose of transporting people were totally unheard of prior to the nineteenth century as shipping was mostly utilised for transporting cargo. Since then, water-based transport has shown significant growth and is considered one of the most memorable ways for tourists to travel to and from a destination (Sustainable Tourism Online, 2010:1). According to Page and Connell (2006:161), water-based transport can be subdivided into cruising, ferries, and pleasure craft.

(a) Cruises

Cruises are mostly focused on relatively short sea voyages of about a week. Cruising has become an important player within the tourism industry. Big cruise liners are like floating resorts where guests can enjoy luxury and entertainment while moving between their multiple destinations (Rodrique, 2013:1). Cruising can take many different forms ranging from small scale specialist ships taking niche market tourists to Antarctica and the Galapagos Islands to enormous mass-entertainment cruise ships that within themselves are the attraction (Page & Connell, 2006:161). The main cruise regions include the Caribbean and the Mediterranean. Alaska and Northern Europe is popular during the summer months in the Northern Hemisphere. The cruising industry is dominated by Carnival Corporation and Royal Caribbean Cruises that have about 70% of the market share (Rodrique, 2013:1).

(b) Ferries

The high speed passenger ferries industry has shown tremendous growth from 2004 since the introduction of the catamarans, surface-effect ships and hydrofoils to satisfy the increasing demand for short and medium range routes (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:375). Ferries are most commonly used to cross water where it creates a barrier to travel by land. The busiest water way is the English Channel and ferry travel has been recorded there since Roman times. (Page & Connell, 2006:163).

(c) Pleasure crafts

According to the Collins Dictionary (2013:1), a pleasure craft is defined as a boat used for recreational purposes. There has been an increasing demand for holidays onboard a seagoing pleasure craft, a demand which is now being met by small specialist operators and hire companies offering holidays onboard a small chartered sailing ship or steamboat (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:386). Pleasure crafts form the basis for a variety of other marine recreational activities such as diving, water-skiing, sightseeing and whale watching (Orams, 1999:17).

2.3.2.4 Road

Land travel did not develop much further than horseback riding up until the early 19th century, when improvements in roads and coach design made land travel more comfortable for passengers (Gee & Fayos-Solá, 1997:46). The post war period in the Western industrialised society gave rise to more car ownership which had a major effect on travel patterns (Page & Connell, 2006:154). According to Lubbe (2005:133), road transport can be subdivided into the following types:

- the private car;
- rented cars; and
- luxury buses and coaches.

Car travel is seen as an independent mode of travel as the driver can decide where, when and how he or she is going to get to his or her destination (Rodrique, 2013:1). Lubbe (2005:133) states that travelling by private car strictly speaking does not form part of the commercial tourism industry, however, it is still a form of transport that tourists use to get to their destination. According to Perlitz and Ellitiott (2000:54), Australia has the most car rental companies in the world and most of these are small locally-operated rental companies. Long-haul coach travel provides a cheaper alternative to air and rail travel (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:403).

The section above has discussed transport as a sector in the tourism industry. Transport is considered the lifeblood of the tourism industry and without transport tourism will cease to exist. The various forms of transportation are also highly dependent upon one another. The next section will discuss attractions as a sector in the tourism industry.

2.3.3 Attractions

The attractions of a destination are considered to be the most influential element within the supply side of the tourism industry as these attractions entice, lure and draw tourists to the destination (Ho & Ap, 2009:2). The attractions within the destination are usually what attract or motivate the tourist to visit the destination (George, 2007:59). Any type of feature the destination has, including places, venues or activities which lures tourists, can be classified as an attraction (Ho & Ap, 2009:3). Swarbrooke (2002:3) states that if it were not for attractions, the tourism industry and travel-related services would not exist. Goeldner and Ritchie (2012:173) concur and add that attractions are the main motivators for travel; if not for attractions luring tourists to destinations, there would be little need for any other tourism services such as accommodation and transportation. The aims of attractions are to (Ho & Ap, 2009:3):

- Attract visitors, including locals and tourists, and manage them accordingly;
- Provide pleasurable and enjoyable experiences for visitors to spend their leisure time;
- Develop an attraction which is inviting and for the enjoyment of visitors;
- Manage visitors' satisfaction;
- Provide facilities and services to meet and cater to the needs of visitors; and
- Charge or not charge an admission fee.

Destinations regularly comprise of more than one attraction, although key attractions (such as the Great Wall of China) can be either the sole or the primary attraction of a destination. However, secondary attractions also need consideration. Ho and Ap (2009:23) concur that secondary attractions are smaller sites at which tourists stop on their way to and from their primary attractions, and tourists usually spend less time at secondary attractions. Rieder and Jacquemin (2011:2) concur that the vicinity of different attractions within a geographical area is important for tourism development as this aids in attracting tourists. Dwyer and Kim (2003:381) state that the vicinity of secondary attractions to primary attractions of the destination plays an important role in the choice of destination. The more secondary attractions available at the destination, the more appealing the destination becomes.

According to Swarbrooke (2002:5), attractions in general can be categorised into the following three main groups:

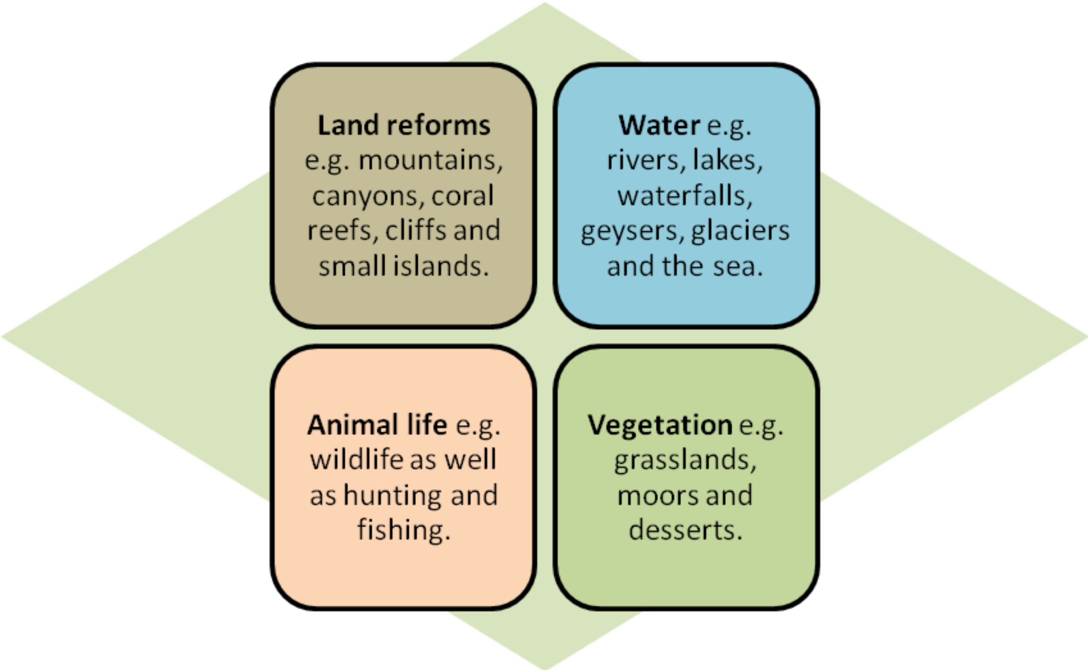
- natural attractions;
- man-made structures either not intended for tourism or specifically designed for tourism; and
- special events.

These four categories of attractions will be briefly discussed and examples of each provided.

2.3.3.1 Natural attractions

Page (2007:278) defines natural attractions as the features that the physical environment consists of like the landscape, climate and forests, including plants and wildlife. These types of attractions are primarily concerned with exceptional natural beauty and interest; they are the oldest forms of attractions and include geological formations, mountains, natural spas and scenic beauty (Lubbe, 2005:105). Examples of natural attractions include: Table Mountain in South Africa, the Grand Canyon in The United States of America and The Great Barrier Reef in Australia. Figure 2.2 provides a summary of natural attractions.

Figure 2.2: Classification of natural attractions



Source: Adapted from Raina (2005:77)

It is evident from Figure 2.2 that the four categories of natural attractions are: land reforms, water, animal life and vegetation. Land reforms are attractions that were created by nature for example through erosion or volcanic eruption. Water refers to the bodies of water which include rivers and waterfalls. Animal life and vegetation goes hand in hand as there will be no animal life without vegetation (Raina, 2005:77). These factors act as the catalyst to attract tourists to destinations where these attractions are present.

2.3.3.2 Man-made structures

In some cases some man-made structures were not originally intended as a tourist attraction. However, over time they became visitor attractions due to their uniqueness (George, 2007:60). Examples of man-made structures not intended for tourism include; The Great Pyramids of Giza in Egypt, The Great Wall of China in China, Sydney Harbour Bridge in Australia, The Tower of London and Windsor Castle in England.

Man-made structures specifically designed for tourism were premeditated to attract visitors and are purpose-built to accommodate the needs of the tourist (Peters &

Weiermair, 2000:23). These attractions were built by man specifically for the purpose of becoming visitor attractions (Lubbe, 2005:105). Examples of man-made structures specifically designed for tourism include: theme parks, casinos and aquariums.

2.3.3.3 Special events

Special events are perceived to be temporary by nature and these events may be constructed by man (Klein Karoo National Arts Festival) or can be natural events (Serengeti wildebeest migration) (Page, 2007:278). Special events, in some cases, can be seen as the primary attraction, around which theming, image building, and packaging are done. (Peters & Weiermair, 2000:23). Examples of special events include: the Rio Carnival in Brazil, the running of the bulls in Spain, the October Beer Fest in Germany and a variety of other festivals and sporting events. Table 2.1 provides a summary of the different types of special events found in the tourism industry.

Table 2.1: Basic types of special events

Type of special event	Example
Sports events	• Olympic Games • World Championships (various sports) • World Cup Soccer Games • Formula One Motor Racing
Arts and culture	• Edinburgh Festival • Cannes Film Festival • Mardi Gras (Rio de Janeiro, New Orleans) • Hong Kong Arts Festival
Commercial events	• World Wine Fair • Munich Beer Festival • Hong Kong Food Festival • World Expo

Source: Adapted from Ho & Ap (2009:17)

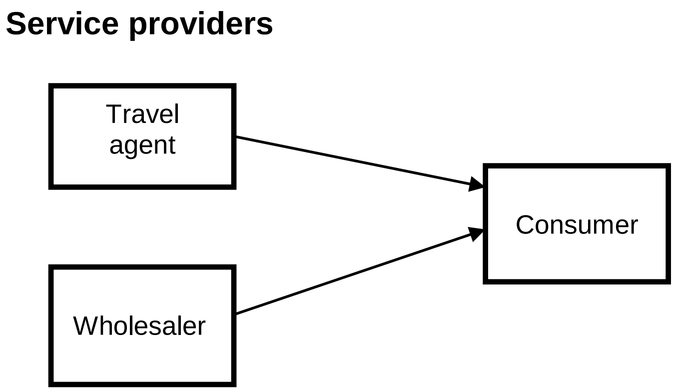
It is evident from Table 2.1 that special events can be divided into three basic types: sporting events, arts and cultural events and commercial events. Special events have the ability to generate economic benefits for the destination including job opportunities and foreign exchange income (Ho & Ap, 2009:17).

The section above has discussed attractions as a sector within the tourism industry. An attraction is what attracts tourists to certain destinations and can be the reason why certain tourists prefer one destination to the other. Travel services as a sector in the tourism industry will be discussed in the next section.

2.3.4 Travel services

Travel services comprise of those organisations which produce (package) travel, and/or sell travel and/or arrange travel, or arrange meetings, conventions and exhibitions which include all the related travel arrangements (Doswell, 1997:67). Figure 2.3 outlines the business to consumer distribution channel.

Figure 2.3: Business to consumer distribution channel



Source: Adapted from Perlitz & Ellitiott (2000:161)

Service providers form the core of the tourism industry (Lubbe, 2005:121). Saayman (2000:28) identifies the following as service providers:

- Transport providers – includes local travel operators, the terminal that facilitates travel and major transport providers;
- Destination providers – include accommodation, catering, shopping and activities that can be undertaken at the destination; and
- Tourism retail providers – include travel agencies and intermediaries who facilitate travel.

The main purpose of the tour wholesalers is to combine various tourism services into a package that can be sold to the consumer via the travel agent; mostly tour wholesalers do not deal directly with the consumer unless they operate at retail level

(Lubbe, 2000:273). Tour wholesalers assemble travel packages generally aimed at the leisure market. These packages include accommodation, transport as well as transfers between the hotel and airport and the package may also include meals and entertainment (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 1999:457; Lubbe, 2005:122). Within the tourism industry, wholesalers generate a large part of the revenue; they buy in bulk and this in turn increases their buying power and capability to negotiate discounts; the cost saving negotiated is eventually passed to the consumer by making the tour package available at lower prices than the prices of those packages consisting of components bought separately at retail level (Gee & Fayos-Solá, 1997:100). Kotler *et al.* (1999:457) concur that when wholesalers develop a package, they reserve a specific number of seats on an airplane and book a specific number of rooms at a hotel, thus ensuring quantity discount. Wholesalers make travel convenient for the consumer. Examples of tour wholesalers are Contiki Tours, Trafalgar Tours and Thompson Tours (Perlitz & Ellitiott, 2000:160).

A travel agency can be seen as the middleman, a business or individual selling the tourism industry products and service of the tourism industry individually or as a combination to the consumer (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012:151). Gee and Fayos-Solá (1997:105) concur that the travel agent is the visible intermediary in the supply chain retailing transportation, accommodation, activities, attractions, and other tourism services directly to the consumer. The travel agent brings the globally diverse tourism market to the consumer in a convenient way at retail level (Kotler *et al.,* 1999:455).

The service providers represent the accommodation establishments, transportation companies and attraction operators. The tour wholesalers buy products or services from them in bulk, where in turn they receive quantity discounts. These discounts are passed down the chain via the travel agents who sell the package to the consumer at a cheaper price, than if the consumer had to buy it individually. The consumer will be the tourist who purchases the product from either the travel agent or tour operator at retail level. (Perlitz & Ellitiott, 2000:162).

The section above has discussed travel services as a sector in the tourism industry. It is apparent that travel services are co-dependent upon one another so as to deliver a service of added value to the tourist. To illustrate the uniqueness of tourism products, the characteristics of tourism products and services will be discussed in the following section.

2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF TOURISM INDUSTRY PRODUCTS

The characteristics of the tourism industry are the fundamental determinants of modern-day tourism (Jadrešić, 1998:447). Keyser (2002:141) concurs that tourism products have certain characteristics that make them different from typical products purchased. Okumus, Altinay and Chathoth (2010:25) add that tourism products have certain unique features. Keyser (2002:140) and George (2008:26) identify the following as characteristics of tourism products:

- Tangibility and intangibility;
- Inseparability;
- Perishability;
- Heterogeneity;
- Seasonality; and
- Parity.

These characteristics will now be discussed.

2.4.1 Tangibility and intangibility

The tourism industry offers a combination of tangible and intangible products (Albayrak, Caber & Aksoy, 2010:140; Doswell, 1997:49; Perovic, Stanovic, Moric & Pekovic, 2013:63). Intangibility in this case, refers to something that cannot be touched, smelled or felt before purchase whereas tangibility refers to just the opposite (George, 2004:23). Intangible products are referred to as services (Smith, 1994:588). Saayman (2000:237) is of the opinion that tourism products are primarily a service. The intangible elements of the tourism industry is said to give the tourism product its joy and excitement (Doswell, 1997:50).

A meal at a restaurant possesses both tangible and intangible qualities (Okumus *et al.*, 2010:27). On a flight, the consumer only has an airline ticket and a promise of a safe journey to their destination (Kotler *et al*., 1999:42). According to Perovic *et al*.

(2013:63), great attention has been drawn, in tourism literature, to the tangible characteristics of the tourism product such as accommodation, food, drink, transportation and attractions of the destination. In essence, however, these products are experiences and after the consumption has taken place, the experience only exists in the memory of the consumer (Keyser, 2002:142).

Intangible products or services require additional marketing approaches as they differ significantly from tangible products (Kotler *et al.,* 1999: 44). For tourism marketing to be successful, the marketer should be aware of what typically forms part of the specific tourism product's tangible and intangible elements (Albayrak *et al.,* 2010:140).

2.4.2 Inseparability

George (2004:24) describes inseparability, within the tourism context, as occasions where service and delivery occur at the same time with both supplier and customer involved in the delivery process. Kotler *et al*. (1999:43) agree that with service inseparability, the customer forms part of the product. Most tourism products cannot be taken to the consumer, but instead the consumer must be brought to the product or services themselves (George, 2007:27; Holloway & Taylor, 2006:9; Saayman, 2000:237; Sharply, 2002:300). Usually products are firstly produced, then sold and then consumed; however, within the tourism industry products are first sold, then production and consumption occur at the same time and place (Keyser, 2002:142). Within the tourism industry, the consumer needs to be present and an active participant in the service delivery, which is not common within the manufacturing industry (Okumus *et al*., 2010:26; Smith, 1994:592).

A challenge of service inseparability is the high level of interaction between the provider and consumer. The quality of this interaction will provide the perception the consumers have of the experience (Keyser, 2002:143). This high degree of interaction between the provider and consumer will influence product consistency. The quality of the experience will depend greatly on the service provider's skill and performance at the time of the exchange (Kotler *et al*., 1999:43). Therefore it is difficult to ensure the overall satisfaction of all consumers, as every situation wherein the product is produced, perpetually differs from each other (Keyser, 2002:143).

2.4.3 Perishability

Within the tourism industry, the products are produced and consumed at the same time; therefore, if the products are not sold, they perish (Okumus *et al*., 2010:27). Keyser (2002:143) provides the following examples of perishability; an airline has a certain number of seats to sell on a flight or a hotel has a specific number of rooms available per night, and if these are not sold on that specific day they cannot be sold again. The products cannot be stored or saved for later sale as with tangible products (Holloway & Taylor, 2006:9). George (2008:26) states that if a plane takes off, the empty seats on the plane cannot be sold later. What is really being sold here, is time in the room or in the aircraft; if not booked that day, the revenue is lost for that specific day and cannot be recovered (George, 2004: 25; Holloway & Taylor, 2006:9).

Another issue regarding perishability is consumer demand. Demand can be much higher over weekends than in the week or in summer rather than winter, but companies cannot sell more than the specific number available in high demand periods (Okumus *et al.,* 2010:27). Due to the perishable nature of the tourism products, products are regularly discounted, especially at the last moment to increase sales (George, 2004:25; Holloway & Taylor, 2006:9; Page, 2007:214). Within the tourism industry, price promotions are used to stimulate and increase short term sales (Martinez & Guillén, 2006:269; Page, 2007:214). The perishable nature of the tourism product puts much responsibility on the management of these firms to allocate their resources appropriately and effectively (Okumus *et al.,* 2010:27).

2.4.4 Heterogeneity

Heterogeneity is described as the potential for high inconsistencies in service and product delivery (Keyser, 2002:143). Kotler *et al.* (1999:43) indicate that the quality of the service is dependent upon where and to whom the service is delivered. Due to the fact that production and consumption happen simultaneously, quality control is limited. Pröll and Retschitzegger (2000:183) add that another problem is the complexity of both the type of provider used and the destination in question.

Understanding how heterogeneity influences visitors' experience and their perceptions of certain destinations and products is very important in managing the quality thereof (Keyser, 2009:200). What heterogeneity encompasses is that the quality and core of tourism service delivery can vary from product to product, destination to destination, from establishment to establishment and from day to day in the same establishment (Keyser, 2002:143). This inconsistency in the delivery of the tourism product is the biggest cause of dissatisfaction to the consumer (Kotler *et al.,* 1999:43).

2.4.5 Seasonality

Seasonality and its interrelated social, economic and environmental impact is a major problem for the tourism industry (Lee, Bergin-Seers, Galloway, O'Mahony & McMurray, 2008:2). Seasonality causes a fluctuation in the number of tourists that consumes a tourism product or visits a certain destination which leads to some destinations having more tourists than they can accommodate at certain times and too few at other times (Lee *et al.,* 2008:1). Most products within the tourism industry are seasonal (Keyser, 2002:143). Seasonality is influenced by consumer demand (Okumus *et al.,* 2010:27; Saayman, 2000:235). George (2008:27) adds that a common characteristic of tourism demand is that of fluctuation during certain periods of the year. Saayman (2000:237) continues that the consumer has no control over these seasonal variations that take the form of school-, factory- and office holidays. Bull (1995:4) observed in the nineties that tourism has the highest seasonal patterns of demand. The challenge seasonality poses to the marketing of tourism products affected by seasonality, is to ensure revenue during off-peak times (Keyser, 2002:144).

2.4.6 Parity

According to Keyser (2002:144), parity refers to competing establishments offering the same basic product. Tourism businesses are confronted with the challenge to prove to the consumer that their product is somewhat different to that of their competitor, although in essence they offer the same basic product (Keyser, 2002:144). This is especially difficult within transport and accommodation sectors of the tourism industries (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:124). These sectors try and avoid parity by adding benefits to their services such as loyalty points or frequent flyer points (Keyser, 2002:144).

Olde, Schwartz and Ryan (2012:2) are of the opinion that parity between currencies can also influence tourism demand. When a country's currency value increases, outbound tourism becomes more appealing than domestic tourism. An example would be that of Australia during 2009, when the currency was paired to the United States Dollar, and the majority of Australians chose outbound travel rather than domestic travel. Another example is that of South Africa where the increase in the strength of the South African rand in the early months of 2011 made outbound travel more appealing and as a result South Africans travelled extensively to international destinations rather than locally (Euromonitor International, 2012:1).

It is clear that the tourism industry has characteristics that distinguish it from other industries. The tourism product has both tangible and intangible features, but it is dominated by intangible features and therefore considered a service. The uniqueness of the tourism industry has played a large role in the development of different forms of tourism. Different forms of tourism exist so as to satisfy the diverse needs of the tourism consumer. The different forms of tourism will be discussed in the following section.

2.5 FORMS OF TOURISM

The tourism industry has evolved through the years and is currently one of the most differentiated, tailored and specialised industries (MedTi, 2013:1). The different types or forms of tourism development that exist at destinations are influenced by the multitude of reasons and motivations for travel (Keyser, 2002:245). According to Holloway *et al.* (2009:186), these forms of tourism development also assist destinations greatly in their marketing activities as they can distinguish themselves from other destinations. The following forms of tourism will be discussed in more detail:

- Urban tourism;
- Business tourism;
- Cultural tourism;
- Marine tourism;
- Nature-based tourism;
- Pink Tourism; and
- Special interest tourism.

2.5.1 Urban tourism

Urban tourism is a stay in the city with the main purpose of enjoyment; one can explore historical landmarks, architecture, artwork, and enjoy life in the city (Molokáčová & Molokáč, 2011:2). Keyser (2009:269) concurs that urban tourism takes place in large cities and towns. Urban tourism is perceived to be one of the earliest forms of tourism, but a major shift from urban tourism to coastal-, rural- and mountain destinations was observed in the 1950s until the 1980s. Urban tourism is thus not an emerging tourism market but rather a re-emerging one (Smith, MacLeod & Robertson, 2010:178).

The demand for travel to large cities and towns has significantly increased since 2012. Tourists may travel for business or convention purposes, and others are travelling at leisure to learn about new cultures, to improve their specific interests, and to seek entertainment (Estelaji, Sadeghian & Beyhaghi, 2012:17). Smith *et al.* (2010:180) divide urban tourism destinations into the following typologies:

- Global/world cities (e.g. London, New York);
- National capitals (e.g. Ankara, Bucharest);
- Cultural capitals (e.g. Budapest, Prague, Vienna, Paris);
- Heritage cities (e.g. Venice, Oxford, Rome, Cairo);
- Art cities (e.g. Florence, Madrid);
- Creative cities (e.g. Helsinki, Barcelona);
- Industrial cities (e.g. Glasgow, Bilbao);
- Sport cities (e.g. Melbourne, Cardiff);
- Festival cities (e.g. Rio, New Orleans); and
- Futuristic cities (e.g. Dubai, Tokyo).

Urban tourism plays an important role in justifying historic preservation and improvements to infrastructure and it can be seen as the force behind inner-city redevelopment and revitalisation (Keyser 2002:270). Urban tourism is seen as a particularly important world-wide form of tourism (Ashworth & Page, 2010:1).

2.5.2 Business tourism

Business tourism can be described as trips where the purpose is related to the traveller's employment or business interests (Davidson & Cope, 2002:3). This kind of tourism usually takes place during work hours and the costs are normally covered by the employer (Molokáčová & Molokáč, 2011:2). The primary objectives of business tourism are business meetings, congresses, fairs and exhibitions (Molokáčová & Molokáč, 2011:2). The acronym MICE are frequently used within the business tourism environment, pointing to meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions (Smith *et al.,* 2010:23). Business tourists are considered to be mostly non-discretionary tourists, as their travel habits and destinations are determined by the company for which they work (Keyser 2002:248). The term non-discretionary refers to people who are not influenced by someone’s judgment or preference.

Business tourism is a very lucrative, yet competitive sector of the tourism market (Smith *et al*., 2010:23). To business tourists, price is not a major issue. Business tourists spend on average twice the amount of what their leisure counterparts will be inclined to spend (Keyser, 2002:248). Business tourists represent a fast-growing segment of the international tourism market and business tourism is considered one of most favourable forms of tourism development worldwide (Dragićević, Jovičić, Belšić, Stankov & Bošković, 2010:312).

The most important business tourism characteristic is the influence it has on seasonality as this form of tourism consequently lengthens the tourism season and increases the occupancy rate of accommodation establishments in low season periods since business meetings and conferences are not affected by seasonality (Davidson & Cope, 2002:25).

2.5.3 Cultural tourism

Csapó (2012:205) defines cultural tourism as "the movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs". Culture is one of the most important factors which attract tourists to destinations as people are curious to experience foreign countries and their cultures (National Institute of Open Schooling, 2013:1). Cultural tourism is seen as one of the oldest forms of tourism, and still draws many tourists to different parts of the world (Richards & Munsters, 2010:1). Cultural tourism is an important part of the global tourism market (Richards, 2011:32). Table 2.2 provides an outline of the three categories of cultural attractions.

Table 2.2: The three categories of cultural attractions

Natural	Cultural	Building
Rural scenery	Festivals	Historic homes
	Arts and crafts	Monuments
	Traditional practices	Industrial sites
	Products	

Source: Adapted from Nicholls, Vogt & Jun (2004:41)

As can be seen from Table 2.2, cultural attractions have been divided into three main groups namely natural, cultural and building. Natural cultural attractions are attractions with outstanding natural and cultural value for example UKhahlamba/ Drakensberg Park (Lubbe, 2005:90). Cultural tourist attractions depend greatly upon distinctiveness and authenticity (Maitland, 2007:113). It is concerned with the culture of a specific country or region, focusing on traditional communities who have unique customs, art and social practices which distinguish them from other cultures (Collins-Kreiner & Sagi, 2011:133). According to Ho and Ap (2009:11), cultural building sites which are rich in cultural value, can lure tourists from around the world, and they list the following as examples of such sites:

- The Acropolis, Athens, Greece – sacred rock outcrop which houses the Parthenon Temple developed around the fifth century BC;
- Angkor Wat, Siem Reap, Cambodia – state temple and capital complex of the twelfth century Khmer Empire;

- Terracotta Warriors, Xian, China – tomb of the Emperor Qinshihuang (who reigned from 221-207 BC) which houses thousands of life-sized terracotta statues of soldiers and horses; and
- Lei Cheng Uk Han Tomb, Hong Kong – an early Han tomb that dates back about 2 000 years.

The majority of cultural tourists has the desire to learn as much as possible from the local people and is generally more concerned than the average tourist about the impact that tourism has on the local culture (Lubbe, 2005:89).

2.5.4 Marine tourism

Marine tourism comprises all activities related to the coast and adjacent waters (Collins, 2008:112). The ocean is an essential part of planet earth, and is a vital part of human lives, livelihoods and the environment that sustains humanity. The use of the ocean space and resources has been a crucial element of worldwide economic growth and affluence. (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2011:4). Marine tourism is perceived to be one of the oldest and largest segments of the tourism industry (Honey & Krantz, 2007:64).

According to Orams (1999:2), the marine tourism industry consists of a wide variety of business forms. These include; small one-person operations such as fishing boat operators, sea-kayak tour guides, scuba-diving instructors; moderate size companies like whale-watching cruise operators and charter-yacht companies; and large multinational corporations like cruise-ship companies. The increasing awareness of the economic and environmental significance of marine tourism, has led to substantial research being done in this field (Hall, 2001:601). Marine tourism, with specific reference to coastal and cruise tourism, will be discussed in the following subsections.

2.5.4.1 Coastal tourism

Apart from resorts themselves, coastlines have a noticeable charm for tourists, whether seen from the land via coastal footpaths, cycle ways or roadways (Holloway *et al.,* 2009:187). Travelling to coastal areas for recreational purposes has existed for as long as humans have and is widely viewed as one of the fastest growing areas of modern day tourism (Hall, 2001:601; Orams, 1999:3). Seaside resorts have for long had the most appeal along the coastline (Holloway *et al.,* 2009:187). According to Keyser (2009:259), coastal tourism is mostly concerned with the sun, sand and sea (the 3 S's of tourisms), and tourist activities include:

- sunbathing;
- swimming;
- boating;
- surfing and windsurfing;
- water-skiing;
- parasailing;
- snorkelling;
- scuba-diving; and
- sport-fishing.

Humans are land-based beings; therefore many of the activities that are centered around the marine environment actually occur on land, but the motivation behind the activities is based on marine attractions (Orams, 1999:9). The coastal areas have been attracting men since ancient times as these areas were the main field for their food-collecting activities such as fishing (Moira & Mylonopoulos, 2010:139).

2.5.4.2 Cruise tourism

Cruising combines leisure, entertainment and accommodation on board with calls to various different ports, satisfying the need of the tourist to discover new places and come in contact with different cultures (Mylonopoulos, 2004:108). A cruise ship or cruise liner is a floating passage vessel used commercially for pleasure and leisure voyages (Morgan & Power, 2011:276). Cruise tourism is well established in the Caribbean, Mediterranean and Pacific Islands (Keyser, 2002:258). Cruise ships are designed with open spaces and decks so that leisure and sport activities can take place on board (Boniface & Cooper, 1996:49). According to Perlitz and Ellitiot (2000:143) cruises are perceived to be one of the most relaxing holidays available and value for money as it is inclusive of the following:

- transport;
- accommodation;
- all meals;
- entertainment;
- visits to foreign countries (shore excursions not included); and
- onboard facilities such as cinemas, games and sport.

Cruising vacations is one of the fastest growing segments of the leisure travel industry – with ship sizes and numbers, passengers, ports, and profits all on the rise. In 1970 only an estimated 500 000 people took a cruise holiday; however, more than 12 million people went on cruise vacations in 2006 (Honey & Krantz, 2007:44). The cruise market has emerged progressively to a point where the ultimate goal for a cruiser is a round-the-world trip (Holloway *et al.,* 2009:406).

2.5.5 Nature-based tourism

Nature-based tourism involves travelling to certain destinations for activities and experiences based entirely on nature (Keyser, 2002:266). Nature-based tourism is revolutionising businesses and prompting economic development in rural areas across the world (Irshad, 2010:2). Plagued by isolation and underdevelopment, rural areas have limited choice in economic development (Liu, 2006:878). Tourism, however, helps to boost the rural economy and specifically adds value by creating a commercial network for local produce, as well as by aiding the rural areas to develop infrastructure in these areas (Drăgulănescu & Druţu, 2012:197; Liu, 2006:878; Roberts & Hall, 2001:6). Nature-based tourism includes rural tourism, ecotourism and agritourism (Irshad, 2010:2). The lines between these forms of tourism are often blurred (Rodriguez, 2013:1), therefore a brief discussion of each form will be provided in the following subsections.

2.5.5.1 Rural tourism

According to Irshad (2010:5), rural tourism is concerned with enjoying the country experience which incorporates a wide range of attractions and activities that take place in non-urban areas. The important characteristics include wide-open spaces, low levels of tourism development, and opportunities for visitors to interact with the natural environment. Motivations that support rural tourism are; a longing for the country side due to the stresses of modern-day life, a desire to conserve and experience a traditional rural lifestyle, and booming natural food markets (Ertuna & Kirbaş, 2012:18). The search for rural peace, rest and recreation is becoming a general trend within the current tourism market at regional, national, and international levels (Drăgulănescu & Druţu, 2012:196).

2.5.5.2 Ecotourism

According to Keyser (2009:267), ecotourism refers to any form of tourism which:

- provides a first-hand active experience of the place;
- provides an educational experience that develops visitors' understanding and appreciation of the place visited, and promotes appropriate behaviour and a conservational ethic;
- is environmentally responsible and which uses various strategies to minimise impact; and
- maximises returns to the local community.

Ecotourism developed due to the increased demand for an authentic tourist experience and the popularity of environmental conservation (Keyser, 2009:266). The concept of ecotourism has strong ties with sustainable tourism development, ethical tourism and adventure tourism (Smith *et al*., 2010:49). Zeiger and McDonald (1997:85) concurred in the nineties that ecotourism is a multifaceted science, which incorporates the tourism industry with the natural environment wherein it aims to educate the tourists rather than earn maximum profits.

However, ecotourism has received negative feedback as it is perceived to be only a buzz-word to make a profit and exploit the local community (Myburgh & Saayman, 2002:1). Keyser (2009:267) agrees and states that the term ecotourism has been misunderstood by planners, operators and marketers and that they market a range of products that does not fit the criteria under the banner of ecotourism.

2.5.5.3 Agritourism

Agritourism can be described as tourism that has a low impact on the environment, is small-scale, and educationally focused (Chesnutt, 2013:1). There are a wide variety of agritourism products available: agricultural festivals, special events and festivals, the celebration of the villages historical sites, outdoor adventures, country fairs, navigating a corn maze, picking fruit, feeding animals, agricultural travel routes that feature themes and buying fresh produce directly from a farm stand (Irshad, 2010:2; Rodriguez, 2013:1). The diversity of agriculturally-based leisure attractions is only realised when an individual considers the relationships that exist between agriculture and, for example, a botanical garden or a farmer's roadside fruit stand or a strawberry processing plant that offers tours to visitors (Cox & Fox, 2003:49).

2.5.6 Pink Tourism

Pink tourism refers to the gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender tourist market segment within tourism (Hughes, 2006:2). Major companies within the tourism industry have realised the substantial amount of money (also known as the "pink dollar" or "pink pound") that can be generated by this market segment, and have, therefore, made it a point to align themselves with this market segment (Walters, 2003:10). Destinations worldwide are also recognising the benefits of attracting the so-called “pink pound or dollar” (Smith *et al.,* 2010:80). Many destinations and accommodation establishments are vigorously promoting themselves to the gay tourism market (Karantzavelou, 2012:1; Southall & Fallon, 2011:223). Cities with the reputation of being gay-friendly are San Francisco, Sydney, London, Madrid, Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town (Smith *et al*., 2010:81).

In 2003, Philadelphia launched a campaign called ’Philadelphia get your history straight and your nightlife gay’ (Strauss, 2004:1). In 2006, Britain launched a campaign to attract gay tourism with the caption, “With our proud gay history, cutting-edge culture and fashion, flamboyant cities and pulsing nightlife, is it not time you come out to Britain?” (Smith *et al.,* 2010:81). However, most destinations popular for gay tourists, were popularised by means of reputation and word of mouth. Destinations like Sitges and Mykonos are prime examples (Hughes, 2006:174). Gay pride events have significant economic value to the tourism industry and at these events the power of the ‘pink pound’ is at its strongest (Southall & Fallon, 2011:224).

Gay Europeans spend up to R650 billion on tourism each year (Karantzavelou, 2012:1). According to Smith *et al*. (2010:80), gay men, within the gay and lesbian travel market, travel more frequently, spend more money and have the largest amount of disposable income. Waitt and Markwell (2006:9) argue that there is a serious lack of academic research with regard to this type of tourism, and refer to it as the 'gay gap' in literature. Puar (2002:937) mentions that where literature does exist, it is mainly focused on the gay male. However, pink tourism or gay tourism has also been linked to sex tourism (Bennett, 2004:42). Gay males, in particular, have been travelling for many years to destinations where they could find sexual services without the distress of legal persecution (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2004:306).

2.5.7 Special interest tourism

New trends in the tourism industry market have influenced the appearance of specific types of tourism referred to as 'special interest tourism'; these forms are different from the traditional forms of tourism (Vujadinović, Šabić, Joksimović, Golić, Gajić, Živković & Milinčić, 2013:99). The term special interest tourism has conventionally been associated with the forms of tourism which attract a relatively small number of extremely dedicated visitors (Smith *et al.,* 2010:160). The rise of special interest tourism was based on the changing demand of the consumer (Vujadinović *et al*., 2013:99). The following forms of special interest tourism will be discussed in more detail;

- Medical tourism;
- Sport tourism;
- Adventure tourism;
- Dark tourism;
- Sex tourism;
- Paleo-tourism;
- Religious tourism;
- Gastronomic tourism;
- Pop-Culture tourism and film tourism;
- Disaster tourism;
- Ghost tourism;
- Backpacker tourism; and

- Slum tourism.

2.5.7.1 Medical tourism

Medical tourism is a new tourism niche (special interest tourism) that has grown significantly over the past decade (Paffhausen, Peguero & Roche-Villarreal, 2010:7). West Europeans and Canadians sidestep the long waiting periods associated with their national health plans by getting medical treatment elsewhere. Medical tourists search for doctors in the international health market and, as a result, enjoy cost savings over the alternative at home (Bookman & Bookman, 2007:2).

In the following subsections two types of medical tourism will be discussed namely health- and assisted suicide tourism.

(a) Health tourism

Undertaking or participating in tourism has always had a link to the benefits associated with health, well-being and rejuvenation (Tresidder, 2011:266). Keyser (2002:265) defines health tourism as tourism that includes a range of activities that relate to the promotion of health and well-being. Health tourism includes activities such as leisure and recreation in the form of beauty treatments and pampering in spas, holistic activities such as yoga and meditation, and medical wellness where the tourist is focused on improving his/her health rather than curing a current ailment (Smith *et al*., 2010:90). Tresidder (2011:266) concurs and ads organ transplants to the list. The elderly are the most common users of health-related goods and services. A shift in trends has been noted from merely living a disease-free life to striving for flawless health (Yeoman, 2008:63).

Health tourism is concerned with health protective and treatment activities under professional supervision (Molokáčová & Molokáč, 2011:2). Smith *et al*. (2010:91) indicate that health tourism includes operations either for cosmetic or dentistry in clinics or hospitals; therapeutic treatments for the purpose of rehabilitation and healing; and medical wellbeing where the tourist/patient is treated for a specific medical condition. Countries undertaking vigorous health tourism sector developments by means of government assistance include: Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia, India, Korea, Israel, Jordan, Cuba, South Africa, Lithuania, Austria, Dubai, Argentina, Philippines, Hong Kong, China, and the Caribbean nations (Taiwan Institute of Economic Research, 2007:1). Health tourists are mostly from The United Kingdom, The United States of America, Hong Kong, Canada, Belgium, Holland, Germany and Israel (George, 2004a:245). The biggest motivation behind health tourism is saving costs and the availability of health care (George, 2004a:245).

(b) Assisted suicide tourism

A very controversial form of medical tourism is assisted suicide tourism. According to Higginbotham (2011:178), academic literature focusing on assisted-suicide from a pure tourism perspective is in essence non-existent. However, Huxtable (2009:328) gives the following definition of assisted suicide tourism; "assisting the suicidal individual to travel from one jurisdiction to another, in which s/he will (or is expected to) be assisted in his/her suicide by some other person/s". Whether or not health-care professionals should partake in purposely causing the death of a patient, and whether society as a whole must ethically accept this practice, has been debated in various countries and states (Vilela & Caramelli, 2009:263). However, Higginbotham (2011:178) concurs that Switzerland is the only country in the world that allows foreign citizens to pursue physician-and non-physician-assisted suicide in their country. McLaughlin (2011:1) states that since 2011 euthanasia has also been legal in Luxembourg, Belgium, The Netherlands and Oregon, the only state within The United States of America which permits it.

There are currently a great number of moral, ethical, and legal arguments surrounding the practice of assisted suicide (Belford, 2012:1). Assisted suicide, in theory, can be seen as a form of medical treatment; therefore assisted suicide tourism can be both a niche segment of medical tourism and also a subcomponent of international tourism (Higginbotham, 2011:178). Spain, Belgium, Sweden and Italy, unlike the rest of the European countries, have seen a remarkable growth in the acceptance of assisted suicide (Cohen, Marcoux, Bilson, Deboosere, Van der Wal & Deliens, 2006:745). According to Cohen, Van Wesemael, Smets, Bilsen and Deliens (2012:847), euthanasia should be seen as a matter between physician and patient. Cohen-Almagor (2013:8) mentions that knowledge and expertise of the average physician in euthanasia is very limited, as most physicians have no or very little training in euthanasia. The number of foreign visitors travelling to Zurich for the purpose of assisted suicide has increased from three in the year 2000 to fifty-five in the year 2002 (Dyer, 2003:271). The Swiss company, Dignitas, has had 1 138 cases of assisted suicide between the years 1998 and 2011 (McLaughlin, 2011:1).

2.5.7.2 Sport tourism

Sport tourism is another form of special interest tourism (Škorić, 2008:68). Ross (2001:3) notes that travelling to a destination to engage in or view sport-related activities, is an important market within the tourism industry. The concepts of tourism and sport are interrelated as sport is an important activity within tourism and tourism is a significant characteristic of sport (Hinch & Hignam, 2001:48).

Sport tourism is a multifaceted leisure phenomenon which can be classified as passive-, active- and nostalgic sport (Roberts, 2011:146). Hall (1992:147) makes the following distinction between passive and active sport tourism: passive sport tourism refers to travelling to a destination to observe sport, whereas active sport tourism refers to travelling to a destination to participate in sport. Nostalgic sport tourism refers to visiting halls of fame and museums dedicated to sport, visiting famous sport stadiums and having sport-themed vacations with sporting professionals (Gibson, 2002:113).

Delpy (1998:25) identifies the major motivations for sport tourism as fun, team interest, socialisation, national pride, relaxation, stress reduction, thrill-seeking, interest in players and entertainment. Sporting events such as football and rugby World Cups, Olympic Games, Formula 1, Commonwealth Games and The Wimbledon Tennis Championships attract the largest crowds (Baum & Lockstone, 2007:29; Green & Chaplip, 1998:276).

2.5.7.3 Adventure tourism

Adventure tourism is an outdoor leisure activity that usually takes place in an isolated or wilderness setting, it often involves some form of alternative means of transportation and tends to be related to low or high levels of physical activity (Heneghan, 2006:1; Weber, 2001:361). Keyser (2002:247) affirms that adventure tourists expect to experience varying degrees of risk, exhilaration, serenity as well as the desire to be personally tested.

Adventure tourism can be classified as either hard or soft adventure tourism. Hard adventure tourism refers to having some experience in the activity undertaken and the ability to cope with risks and unforeseen situations, the participant should be physically and mentally fit. Hard adventure tourism includes activities such as hang-gliding, rock-climbing, white-water kayaking and wilderness survival (Millington, Locke & Locke, 2001:68). Soft adventure tourism refers to activities involving very low levels of risk and anyone with reasonable fitness levels can participate (Shephard & Evans, 2005:203). Soft adventure tourism includes activities such as horse-riding, rafting, snorkelling, hiking, camping and sea-kayaking (Millington *et al*., 2001:68).

2.5.7.4 Dark tourism

The term 'dark tourism' was first used in 1996 (Molokáčová & Molokáč, 2011:2). Dark tourism is concerned with sites or attractions renowned for suffering, misery and death (McDougle, 2012:1). Dark tourism has become both widespread and diverse (Dale & Rodinson, 2011:207; Stone & Sharpley, 2008:574). Saayman (2000:34) states that dark tourism is associated with the negative parts of world history. Places associated with dark tourism include the following: cemeteries, battlegrounds, sites of death and genocide, prisons and torture sites (Smith *et al.,* 2010:35).

Travelling to and visiting places connected with death is not a new phenomenon. Places such as the Roman catacombs have been popular tourism destinations for centuries (Molokáčová & Molokáč, 2011:3; Stone & Sharpley, 2008:574; Strange & Kempa, 2003:387). In 2011, 1.4 million people from all over the world travelled to and visited the previous Nazi concentration camp at Auschwitz (Baran, 2010:1).

Other significant dark tourism destinations include Ground Zero in New York City, Hiroshima Peace Memorial Park, Rwanda's Murambi Genocide Museum, Ghana's Cape Coast Castle and the International slavery museum in Liverpool in The United Kingdom (Nedelcu, 2010:1).

The inquisitive connection between the sad and the bad and their touristic depictions has generated academic and ethical debate about the ways in which leisure and pleasure are mixed with tragedy (Rojek, 1993:170; Tunbridge & Ashworth, 1996:112). Dobbs (1999:36) states that sites like prisons and sites associated with torture provide unparalleled opportunities for spiritual and political reflection.

2.5.7.5 Sex tourism

Sex tourism is a large industry worldwide. There are many people actively travelling to destinations for the sole purpose of satisfying their sexual desires (Saayman, 2000:34). Sex tourism has been treated as a peripheral and almost an out of bounds topic in tourism literature until recent years (Smith *et al.,* 2010:153).

Amsterdam and Bangkok are international tourist destinations notorious for their sex industry. Within Amsterdam, the so-called ‘red light’ districts have developed almost into a mainstream cultural tourism attraction in its own right (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2004:311). New sex tourism destinations are emerging continuously. One such destination is Cape Town, seemingly with the implicit approval of the local tourism authority (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2004:311; Thompson, 2013:1).

Sex tourism is not just 50-something men paying for sex with barely adolescent girls (Jo, 2013:1). It is becoming increasingly common for Western women to visit places such as Gambia, the Caribbean and even India for the purpose of sex. (Smith *et al.,* 2010:154). Fehr (2008:1) and Jo (2013:1) mention that it is mostly older and relatively wealthier western female tourists who travel to Gambia for the purpose of having sexual relationships with younger Gambian men.

2.5.7.6 Paleo-tourism

Travelling around the world to visit early fossil sites and visiting museums housing original fossils (Paleo-tourism) are becoming increasingly popular (Haliland, Walrath, Prins & McBride, 2008:155). Sites that are rich in archaeological value are perceived to attract visitors from around the world (Ho & Ap, 2009:11). Bondesio (2009:1) concurs that paleo-tourism is becoming a niche market. One of the most important Paleo-tourism sites is the Cradle of Mankind found in South Africa (Planetware, 2013:1) The Cradle of Mankind is not one specific site, but it consists of Sterkfontein, Swartkrans, Komdraai and environs (Diggens, 2004:59). Dr Robert Broom discovered an adult ‘ape-man’ skull in the Sterkfontein Caves in 1947 (Joyce, 2004:336). The skull was nicknamed 'Mrs Ples' short for Plessianthropus Transvaalensis. The most recent discovery was that of 'Little Foot' in 1999, a fossilized foot of a hominid who had lived roughly 4.2 million years ago (Joyce, 2004:336). In the Swartkrans Caves the earliest-known deliberate use of fire has been dated back to around 1.3 million years and at Bolt's Farm the remains of three sabre-tooth cats were found in a pit that had trapped the animals. Their fossils date back to the same time (Newbould & Newbould, 2009:257). In 2009 The Cradle of Mankind consisted of around 40 different fossil sites, thirteen of which have been excavated (Newbould & Newbould, 2009:257).

2.5.7.7 Religious tourism

Religious tourism is considered part of special interest or niche tourism (Bookman & Bookman, 2007:41). Religious tourism is difficult to define. The term pilgrimage-, spiritual-, faith- and religious tourism can be used interchangeably, referring to the same form of tourism (Smith *et al*., 2010:140). Religious tourism helps destination marketers to identify and promote unique aspects of a certain destination, and they can then use these aspects to market the destination in an increasingly homogeneous global tourism market (Wiltshier, 2011:249). When investigating the roots of tourism, one will find that it has its origins in religious travel especially pilgrimages (Collins-Kreiner, 2010:155). Nolan and Nolan (1992:69) divide religious tourist attractions into the following three groups:

- pilgrimage shrines – places that serve as the goals of the religiously-motivated journeys from beyond the immediate locality;
- religious tourist attractions – structures or sites of religious significance with historic and/or artistic importance; and
- festivals with religious association.

Popular religious destinations around the world are Jerusalem in Israel, Mecca in Saudi Arabia, Santiago de Compostela in Spain, Fatima in Portugal, Lourdes in France and the River Ganges in India (Tarlow, 2010:1).

2.5.7.8 Gastronomic and wine tourism

Gastronomic tourism can be defined as the trips made to specific destinations where the local food and beverages are the main motivating factor and this type of tourism includes food- and drink-related activities in the formation of unforgettable experiences (Kivela & Crotts, 2006:355). The human race is the only life form on earth that ceremonially prepares and eats food together and this is a habit shared by all human beings across every culture (Povey, 2011:233). Gastronomy is an important feature of the tourist's experience at any destination. Driven by the growing tendencies for authenticity and the need to have a first-class experience, food is shaping gastro destinations such as France and Italy (Yeoman, 2008:195). Food products and culinary specialists in gastronomic tourism is becoming the vehicle for a closer understanding of cultures as they act as indicators of people and territories (Lòpez & Martín, 2006:166).

Gastronomic tourism in the sense that travellers have been eating meals in locations which are not their home is not a new trend. However, travelling with the main motivation to learn more about a specific region's cuisine, to sample new food, purchase produce and engage in cookery courses is a relatively new trend (Smith *et al.,* 2010:75). Hall and Mitchell (2005:74) categorised gastronomic tourists as follows:

- Gourmet tourists - visit expensive or highly rated restaurants or wineries;
- Gastronomic/culinary tourists - interested in wider issues such as the culture and landscape which produce food and wine; and
- Cuisine tourists - interested in specific cuisines from a country or region.

Wine tourism is a subset of gastronomic tourism (Smith *et al*., 2010:76) and can be classified as a form of special interest tourism, which is experienced in wine districts (Shor & Mansfeld, 2009:381). Getz and Brown (2006:150) define wine tourism as the development and marketing of wineries and wine estates as places for tourists to visit, and of destinations based on the appeal of wine and wine-making. Hall, Longo, Mitchell and Johnson (2000:151) include visits to wine festivals and wine exhibitions for the main purpose of tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a grape wine as part of wine tourism. Charters and Ali-Knight (2002:312) suggest that the wine tourism experience can be provided in various ways, the most prominent being events and festivals, cultural heritage, dining, hospitality, education, wine tasting and winery tours.

The phenomena of wine tourism on a global level is fast growing and considered to be a big incentive too economic and social development in rural areas (Presenza, Minguzzi & Petrillo, 2012:46). Wine tourism is both beneficial to the wine and tourism industries (Hall, Sharples, Cambourne, Macionis, Mitchell & Johnson, 2000:1).

2.5.7.9 Pop-culture tourism and film tourism

Pop-culture tourism involves travelling to destinations with connections to popular books, films, television shows and a particular celebrity (Nedelcu, 2010:1). Pop-culture is perceived to be that which is popular within the current societal context and commonly accepted among society (Collins-Kreiner & Sagi, 2011:131). The Da Vinci Code by Dan Brown is a prime example of how pop-culture can influence the popularity and visitor numbers of certain destinations and attractions (Silva, 2011:1). The Louvre Museum in Paris received an all-time high number of visitors in 2005 (7.3 million). From Spring 2002 to Spring 2006 visitation quintupled to the Temple Church in London. A 26% increase in visitation was recorded at the Lincoln Cathedral in Lincolnshire for the period April 2005 to April 2006 and the visitors to the Rosslyn Chapel in Scotland has been doubling every year since the book was published (Silva, 2011:1).

The media has been influencing tourism in many ways, especially in the twenty first century, and tourism and the media are becoming more intrinsically connected. One such form of media that is acquiring recognition for its ability to increase tourism is film (O'Connor, Keating, Malone & Murphy, 2007:125). Table 2.3 illustrates the effect film has had on tourism demand and trends.

Table 2.3: Impact of film on tourism

Film	Location	Impact on visitor numbers
Braveheart	Wallace Monument, Scotland	300% increase in visitors the year after release
Mission: Impossible 2	National parks in Sydney	200% increase in the year 2000
Dances with Wolves	Fort Hayes, Kansas	25% increase compared to 7% for previous four years
Close Encounters of the Third Kind	Devils Tower, Wyoming	75% increase in 1975, 20% visit now because of the film
The Lord of the Rings	New Zealand	10% increase from United Kingdom every year from 1998 to 2003
Harry Potter Saga	Various locations in United Kingdom.	All locations saw an increase of 50% or more
Gorillas in the Mist	Rwanda	20% increase in 1998
The Beach	Thailand	22% increase in youth market in the year 2000
Notting Hill	Kenwood House, England	10% increase in one month
Saving Private Ryan	Normandy, France	40% increase in American tourists
Troy	Canakkale, Turkey	73% increase in tourism
Captain Corelli's Mandolin	Cephalonia, Greece	50% increase over three years

Source: Adapted from Hudson & Ritchie (2006:389)

From Table 2.3 it becomes clear how film has influenced the growth of tourism at destinations and attractions where filming took place and the term film-induced tourism has gained popularity (O'Connor, Flanaga & Gilbert, 2008:424). On the negative side, some tourists might be disappointed with their experience at some of these sites popularised by film as their perception of the site is based on a mixture of real places, film sets and digital enrichments (Smith *et al*., 2010:74). Furthermore, some of these destinations do not always have the necessary infrastructure to accommodate the sudden increase in tourism; therefore, to the local community the sudden increase in tourists can become an annoyance (Beeton, 2005:30).

2.5.7.10 Disaster tourism

Disaster tourism can be defined as the observation of the aftermath of disasters (Nedelcu, 2010:1). Tourists often feel a deep need to see the aftermath of disaster and devastation wherever they strike in the world (Baran, 2010:1). Disaster tourism is to some extent a paradox, as most people avoid or try to escape natural disasters and only a slim minority wants to witness the disaster or observe the aftermath (Nedelcu, 2010:1). The world has been plagued by disasters during the course of its history from the extinction of the dinosaurs, the lost Kingdom of Atlantis, the devastation and entombment of Pompeii by Mount Vesuvius, to the modern-day catastrophes that blight our planet (Disaster Tourism, 2009:1). Memorial sites dedicated to disasters that are still visited today are Mount St. Helens National Volcanic Monument, Oklahoma City National Memorial and the Johnstown Flood National Memorial (Landsel, 2013:1).

There has been a significant increase in interest in storm chasing (Schwirtz, 2013:1). Storm chasing can be broadly defined as the pursuit of any severe weather condition, regardless of the intention, which can be curiosity, adventure, scientific exploration, or for news and media coverage (Glickman, 2000:5). Cantillon and Bristow (2001:234) concur that since the movie "Twister" in 1995, there has been an increased interest in storm chasing and that it can be attributed to sensation seeking. Sensation seeking is “a trait defined by the seeking of varied, novel, complex and intense sensations and experiences, and the willingness to take physical, social, legal and financial risks for the sake of such experience” (Zuckerman, 1994:27). Storm Chasing Adventure Tours (2013:1) affirm that the company has been offering professional storm chasing tours for over ten years and it seems if one is searching for adventure and thrill in one’s holiday, storm chasing might be the solution.

2.5.7.11 Ghost tourism

Ghost tourism can be defined as travelling to certain destinations in search of the paranormal (Nedelcu, 2010:1; Winkler & Boyer, 2013:1). Almost every city claims to have a haunted mansion, cemetery or asylum and moreover, almost all have at least one organisation offering ghost tours (Radford, 2007:1). The belief in the supernatural and especially ghosts or the spirit world, has been a continuous and universal feature of the human race (Thompson, 2010:79). Ghost tourism can be seen as a type of ‘heritagization’, in which cultural resources are transformed into products for consumption (Inglis & Holmes, 2003:56).

Cities with mystic allure are Salem, Massachusetts; New Orleans, Louisiana and Edinburgh, Scotland (Keller, 2010:1; Radford, 2007:1). Salem, Massachusetts exploits its notorious witch trials of the 1690s (Purdy, 2007:1; Radford, 2007:1). New Orleans, Louisiana is associated with the widespread beliefs in Voodoo queens, tormented souls and vampires (Smith, 2001:1). Edinburgh, Scotland has a rich history of medieval torture, plagues, and ancient mysteries (Keller, 2010:1). Halliday (2000:109) states that Scotland is perceived to be one of the most haunted places in the world with every kind of supernatural being from fairy-folk to the Loch Ness monster in all places. Hence Scotland's heritage is frequently presented to tourists as involving paranormal and ghostly matters (Inglis & Holmes, 2003:51).

2.5.7.12 Backpacker tourism

Backpacker tourism can be defined as an independent and low budget way of travelling (Walsh, 2013:1). A typical backpacker is classified as an individual who is budget-conscious with a flexible tourism style and who travels alone or in small groups (Scheyvens, 2002:145). Backpackers were originally identified as hippies with the drug culture of the sixties and seventies (Smith *et al.,* 2010:74). Walsh (2013:1) states that previously backpacking was regarded in social terms as something unusual or different, however, these days it is seen as a rite of passage for many travellers, mostly Western travellers. Pearce, Murphy and Brymer (2009:10) identify backpackers as individuals who:

- make use of budget accommodation;
- are involved in longer rather than very brief holidays;
- are predominantly under 40 years of age;
- have flexibility in their itineraries; and
- show a willingness to be involved in social and participatory holiday activities.

The increase in accessibility of information via the internet has aided this sector to grow at a fast pace in the twenty-first century (Smith *et al.,* 2010:74).

2.5.7.13 Slum tourism

The term 'slumming' is a tourist experience that comprises of visiting urban areas characterised by poverty, filth and violence (Dűrr & Jaffe, 2012:114). Slums are generally found in urban areas as many people are inclined to move to cities in search of a job and a better life (Chege & Mwisukha, 2013:94). According to Naluyaga, (2013:1), slums are places in urban areas where an estimated one billion people in the world lived in 2013 and the number is expected to double by 2030 due to increased rural-urban migration. The largest slum areas in the world include Neza-

Chalco-Itza in Mexico, Orangi in Karachi, Dharavi in Asia, Khayelitsha in Cape Town and Kibera in Nairobi (Chege & Mwisukha, 2013:95).

Guided slum tours are becoming increasingly popular in the cities of the deveveloping countries and emerging nations (Rolfes, Steinbrink & Uhl, 2009:11). Slum tours are offered on a big scale in the metropolis of the Indian cities of Calcutta, Mumbai and Delhi, Rio de Janeiro in Brazil and within the South African cities of Johannesburg and Cape Town (Rolfes *et al*., 2009:11). Films like Slumdog Millionaire (Mumbai), City of God (Rio de Janiero), and District 9 (Johannesburg) that portray slum life, have become international hits (Ma, 2010:3). Within South Africa the term 'township tourism' is used instead of 'slum tourism' (Nkemngu, 2012:106). It was only after the democratic elections of 1994 that township tourism was considered in South Africa (Ramchander, 2004:201).

The sections above referred to the different forms of tourism. If one should consider the number of forms available for tourists to choose from, it becomes apparent that tourists' needs differ from one another. If that was not the case, only one form of tourism would have satisfied the needs of all tourists. Having taken that into consideration, it is clear that all tourists have different needs when partaking in travel and tourism activities.

2.6 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the tourism industry with all its interlinked and interdependent components. The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) was referred to as this organisation is perceived to be the most widely recognised and leading international organisation in the field of travel and tourism. It is clear that the sectors within the tourism industry play a vital role as these sectors are interlinked and one sector cannot function without the other. These sectors were identified as accommodation, transportation, attractions and travel services; without these sectors tourism would not have existed. If there were no attractions, tourists would not have travelled.

With regard to the characteristics of the tourism industry, the first characteristic discussed was that of tangibility and intangibility. Products and services are different and sometimes it is hard to differentiate between them. It was found that products are usually tangible while services are intangible. Services also have a shorter shelf-life while products can be stored for a long period of time. This is also very important in terms of perishability. If tourism products are not consumed at the time of delivery, they perish. This is why inseparability plays an important role in the tourism industry; most products within the tourism industry is produced and consumed at the same time. The human element also plays a vital role in the delivery of products and services. The human element is responsible for high inconsistencies within the industry as service delivery will differ from person to person and from day to day.

When one considers the vast number of forms of tourism available, it becomes apparent how the needs of the consumer vary within the tourism industry. The forms of tourism cover the basic forms such as urban- and nature-based tourism to more specialised forms which cater for the niche market in the form of special interest tourism. The tourism industry caters for every need; from active participation for example adventure tourism to leisurely enjoying the ocean while sunbathing, coastal tourism and even the more controversial forms such as sex- and assisted-suicide tourism. The tourism industry is an ever-changing industry, and will continue to change as the needs of the consumers evolve. The success of the tourism industry is based on the ability of the industry and its stakeholders to adapt to changes within consumer demand and to develop new special interest forms of tourism. At the baseline of the changing consumer demand are needs; the needs are what spurs the consumer to travel and visit certain destinations. In the next chapter, factors influencing tourism demand will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3
FACTORS INFLUENCING TOURISM DEMAND

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 discussed the tourism industry in general and reference was made to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation and its main objectives. The main sectors within the tourism industry were identified and discussed to determine the supply of tourism and how demand is met. It was noted that the sectors within the tourism industry are co-dependent upon one another and will not be able to function should one sector not exist. The characteristics of the tourism industry and various forms of tourism were identified and discussed.

Tourism demand plays an important role within the tourism industry and without demand the tourism industry will not exist. Tourism demand is driven by various motivational factors (needs) (Rosenbaum & Spears, 2009:315). It is commonly accepted that understanding travel needs is important for forecasting future travel patterns (Yuan, Cai, Morrison & Linton, 2005:43). Motivational needs are the psychological influences that affect an individual's decisions (George, 2008:170). A wide range of needs exists that motivates a consumer to purchase tourism products and services (Oana & Mihai, 2010:278). Marketers need to understand why consumers want certain products, and to a lesser extent, why some consumers reject certain products (George, 2008:170). The theory on which motivation is based is that once a person's needs have been satisfied, the needs subside, and the individual returns to a state of normality before new needs arise again (Kunc, 1992:365).

This chapter will discuss the classification of tourism, and indicate which individuals are excluded from the term 'tourist'. The different types of tourism demand will be identified and discussed. The forces which drive tourism will be discussed in the form of push- and pull forces and reference will be made to the inter-relationship between the two forces. In addition, needs driven travel forces and other travel forces will be identified and discussed. These forces can be regarded as either push- or pull forces.

3.2 CLASSIFICATION OF TOURISM

According to The World Tourism Organisation (2004:1), tourism can be defined as the activities of persons travelling to, and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited. 'Usual environment' excludes trips within the area of usual residence, every day and/or regular trips between the home and place of work, and other communal trips of a routine nature (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012:5). For tourism to occur, a tourist does not need to travel to international destinations. A great deal of tourism actually occurs within the borders of one’s home country (Rowe *et al*., 2002:4). However, it is evident that for tourism to occur, there must be a destination to which one travels and there must be a motivation behind the visit. According to George (2008:21), tourism can be classified as:

- *domestic tourism* which occurs when a resident of a specific country travels within the borders of the country of which he/she is a resident;
- *outbound tourism* which occurs when a resident of a specific country travels to a different country from the one he/she lives; and
- *inbound tourism* which occurs when a resident of a specific country enters a different country.

These classifications clearly distinguish between domestic, outbound and inbound tourism. This in turn, makes it easier to refer to the correct classification of tourism and not to tourism as a whole. To ensure that this study focuses solely on tourists, travellers who are excluded from the term 'tourist' will be discussed in the following section.

3.3 TRAVELLERS EXCLUDED FROM THE TERM 'TOURIST'

All tourism includes some sort of travel, but not all travel is tourism. People travel for a wide variety of purposes of which tourism is only one (Hall & Page, 2006:76). Several authors (Bécherel & Vellas, 1995; George, 2008; Keyser, 2002; Lubbe, 2005; Saayman, 2000) have focused not only on motivation to travel or the types of tourists who travel, but also on what excludes people from being considered tourists.

Bécherel and Vellas (1995:4) exclude the following types of travellers from the term 'tourist' for reasons other than residency:

- Refugees or people travelling for political reasons;
- People travelling for political or professional reasons, such as migrants, members of the armed forces, and embassy staff and diplomats;
- People travelling for professional reasons, such as nomads, border workers and couriers;
- People sent abroad by their governments; and
- Transit passengers and permanent immigrants.

If one should consider the travellers who are excluded from the term 'tourist', it becomes apparent why they are not classified as tourists. These travellers are not travelling to a specific destination to partake in leisure or recreational purposes. The assumption can be made that it is the motivation behind the visit that plays a vital role in a person being classified as a tourist or not. Tourism demand will be investigated in the following section.

3.4 TOURISM DEMAND

The term 'demand' can be very confusing as it is a multidisciplinary term and it should be seen in the light of the discipline being researched (Boniface & Cooper, 2009:22).

3.4.1 Types of demand

As this study is based on the tourism industry, tourism demand will be investigated. According to Inkson and Minnaert (2012:60), tourism demand can be divided into three basic elements namely:

- no demand;
- suppressed demand; and
- actual demand.

These basic elements of tourism demand will be discussed in more detail in the following section.

3.4.1.1 No demand

No demand comprises of those people of the population who have no desire to travel and those who are unable to participate in travel (Page, 2007:69). Lubbe (2005:108) concurs and adds that some people just have no interest to participate in travel. Goeldner and Ritchie (2003:319) and Saayman (2000:40) identify the reasons why people do not travel, as follows:

- Disability and illness may limit mobility and therefore the person will not travel. The severity of the disability or illness can also affect the primary caretaker of a family member or person/friend who cannot travel if the person he/she is caring for becomes ill;
- The stage the family is in also plays a role as parents of young children often do not travel because of family responsibilities and inconveniences in travelling with children. Widows/widowers and single people sometimes do not travel because of the lack of a travelling companion;
- Hermits who live alone and do not leave their homes will not travel;
- Safety concerns associated with political instability, wars, coups, outbreaks and epidemics of disease may leave tourists feeling unsafe in countries where these circumstances prevail, and tourists will not travel to those locations, especially if unsafe circumstances occur regularly;
- Lack of interest, ignorance about travel destinations that would bring pleasurable satisfaction, will prohibit a person from travelling;
- Real or imaginary fears; these include the fear of flying, of being attacked, of becoming lost and of not understanding a foreign language. These factors could prohibit a person from travelling;
- Finance can be viewed as the biggest factor that will limit travel and participation in leisure and recreational activities; and
- Besides finance, time is also a major factor that will limit the decision to travel because so many people do not find the time to travel;

Generally speaking, there will always be some part of a population that does not partake in tourism; reasons may vary from financial constraints (which may be resolved later in life) to no desire to travel away from home; whichever the reason, this part of the population represents no demand for tourism (Page & Connell, 2006:45).

3.4.1.2 Suppressed demand

Suppressed demand consists of those individuals of the population who are incapable of travelling due to certain circumstances (Page, 2007:69). According to Lubbe (2005:108) suppressed demand can be subdivided into potential- and deferred demand. Both these demands refer to people who do not participate in travel for some reason; this reason becomes the distinguishing factor between the two (Page & Connell, 2006:45).

Potential demand refers to individuals who will travel in the future if their circumstances change, for example, having more disposable income (Boniface & Cooper, 2009:23). On the other hand, deferred demand refers to the reason for the suppression of the demand as being on the supply side; this can take the form of no accommodation available, transportation failure or unfavourable weather conditions in the selected destination; therefore the demand is deferred to a new date (Page & Connell, 2006: 45). Once these problems have been resolved, the deferred demand can move upwards to actual demand (Inkson & Minnaert, 2012:60), which will be discussed next.

3.4.1.3 Actual demand

Lubbe (2005:108) concurs that when people are actively partaking in travelling, this constitutes actual demand. The number of people within the generating region who engage in tourist activity are the people that make up actual demand (Boniface & Cooper, 2009:23). Actual demand is the number of people that partake in tourism, usually expressed as the number of travellers; tourism demand is generally measured by tourism statistics typically in the form of departures from countries and arrivals at destinations (Page, 2007:68).

To get an idea of which countries tourists are attracted to and thus creating tourism demand, the following subsections will highlight the most frequently visited global destinations and outbound international South African departures.

(a) Most frequently visited destinations

Table 3.1 indicates the most visited destinations in the world in 2012, according to international tourist arrivals.

Table 3.1: Top 10 world destinations based on tourist arrivals

Rank	Destination	Million
1	France	83.0
2	United States of America (USA)	67.0
3	China	57.7
4	Spain	57.7
5	Italy	46.4
6	Turkey	35.7
7	Germany	30.4
8	United Kingdom (UK)	29.3
9	Russian Federation	25.7
10	Malaysia	25.0

Source: United Nations World Tourism Organisation (2013:6)

It is evident from Table 3.1, that France is by far the most visited destination in the world, followed by The United States of America (USA). Table 3.2 presents the top destinations travelled to in the world between the years 2009 and 2012.

Table 3.2: Top world travel destinations between 2009 and 2013

Country	Rank				
	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
France	1	1	1	1	1
United States of America	2	2	2	2	2
Spain	3	4	3	3	3
China	4	3	4	4	4
Italy	5	5	5	5	5
Turkey	6	7	6	6	6
United Kingdom	7	6	7	8	7
Germany	8	8	8	7	8
Malaysia	9	9	9	10	-
Mexico	10	10	10	-	-
Russian Federation	-	-	-	9	9
Thailand	-	-	-	-	10

Source: Adapted from South African Tourism (2011:11); United Nations World Tourism Organisation (2013:6); United Nations World Tourism Organisation (2014:6)

From Table 3.2, it can be seen that France was the most visited destination (in 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013). The top 10 destinations had an identical ranking in

2009 and 2011 with a slight variance in ranking in 2010. In 2012, a new country, the Russian Federation, entered the top 10 destinations in 9th place. Mexico did not feature among the top 10 destinations in the year 2012. In 2013, Thailand entered the top 10 destinations in 10th position. The Russian Federation moved up to 9th position, both Mexico and Malaysia did not feature among the top 10 world destinations for 2013. The information in Tables 3.1 and 3.2 will be explored in the South African context in this study in the second section of the study where respondents will be required to indicate their most travelled to destinations as well as which destinations they would still like to travel to. Leading outbound tourism destinations for South African citizens are indicated in Table 3.3. Only the statistics of the top four destinations statistics was available.

Table 3.3: Leading outbound South African holiday destinations

Country	Rank	Percentage
United Kingdom	1	24
United States of America	2	7
Mauritius	3	6
Australia	4	5

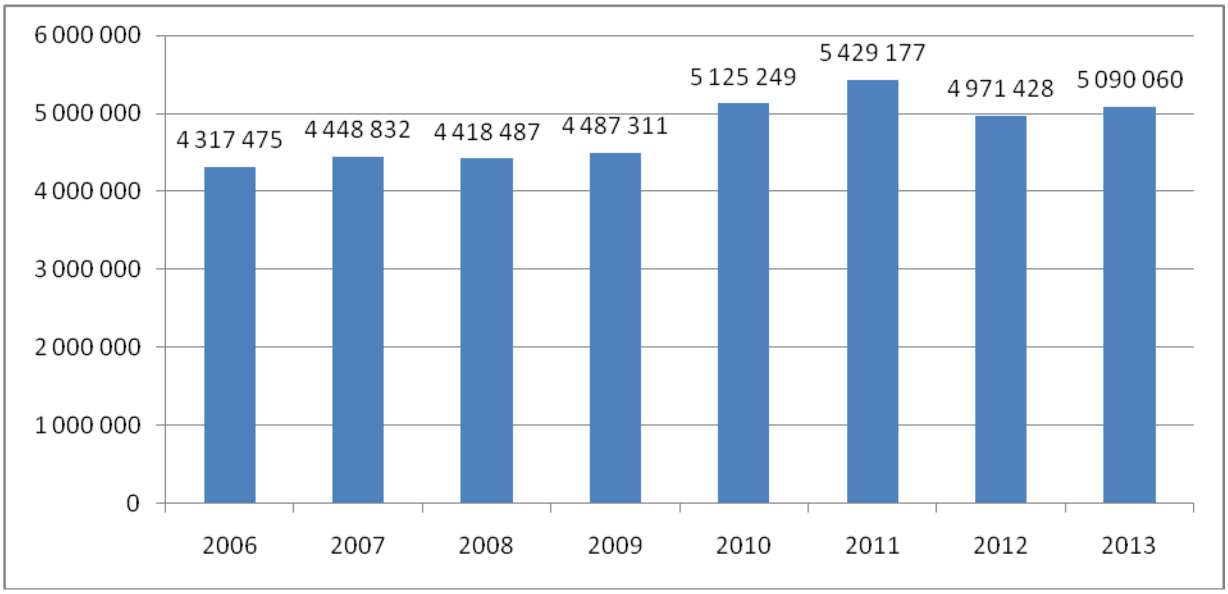
Source: StatsSA (2004:xiii)

From Table 3.3, it is evident that the United Kingdom (UK) is the most visited destination by South African residents, followed by the USA. It is interesting to note that for South African residents, their second destination of choice is USA as was the case in the global ranking in Table 3.1. However the UK only had a 6th place global ranking according to Table 3.1. Mauritius and Australia ranked 3rd and 4th as a preferred destination for South African residents, but is not included in the global top ten ranking destination. The number of international departures from South African will be highlighted in the next section.

(b) Outbound international South African departures

International outbound tourists are the number of tourist departures from their country of residence to any other country, for any purpose other than a remunerated activity in the country visited (Quinn, 2003:97). It must be noted that the data on outbound tourists refer to the number of departures, not to the number of people travelling. Thus a person who makes several trips from a country during a given period is counted each time as a new departure (Tradingeconomics, 2012:1). Figure 3.1 indicates the growth in international departures from South Africa from 2006 to 2013.

Figure 3.1: International departures from South Africa from 2006 to 2013



Source: Adapted from Indexmundi (2013:1); Stats SA (2014:23)

From Figure 3.1, it is evident that there has been a significant growth in international outbound departures. The figure indicates that from 2006 to 2013, there has been a growth in the number of South African departures from 4 317 475 to 5 090 060. This can indicate a need for more outbound travel research so that travel and tourism organisations can become more knowledgeable regarding these sought-after destinations. Knowledge will enable travel and tourism organisations to effectively plan and create travel packages that can satisfy the needs of their clients (tourists).

This brief overview provides a general idea of tourism demand and which destinations people are attracted to. The forces driving tourism demand will be discussed in the following section.

3.5 FORCES DRIVING TOURISM DEMAND

Kassean and Gassita (2013:2) and Teja (2013:25) agree that push- and pull forces are a major incentive in tourism demand. Push forces are the reason for the trip (demand) while pull forces are concerned with the destination and its attributes (supply) (Guillet, Lee, Law & Leung, 2011:558). The concept behind push and pull forces are that people travel due to a push by their own internal forces and are pulled by the exterior forces of destination attributes (Mohammad & Som, 2010:41). The most widely applied theory in determining the reasons for travelling is push- and pull forces (Awaritefe, 2004; Crompton, 1979; Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008; Josiam, Kinley & Kim, 2005; Kozak, 2002; Lubbe, 2003; Shin, 2009; Uysal & Jurowski, 1993; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Dewar, Meyer and Wen (2001:524) state that knowing the reasons for travelling frequently results in the ability to increase tourists' enjoyment; moreover, it makes it possible to attract and retain tourists. The notion of this theory differentiates between two important factors: push forces, which refer to internal forces that create a desire to satisfy a travel need, and pull forces, which are known as destination attributes (Lubbe, 2003:1).

In the sections to follow, the reasons for travelling will be investigated by looking at push- and pull forces and other forces that influence destination choice.

3.5.1 Push forces

Several authors (Airey *et al*., 2004; Archer & Syratt, 2003; Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994) indicate that the motivators to travel have been researched extensively, and a number of reasons for travelling have been identified. In general, the reasons include visiting foreign countries, visiting friends and relatives (VFR), relaxing, and participating in sports and recreational activities. According to Keyser (2009:250), learning experiences, personality, attitudes, and tourists' self-images could also be the reasons for this. However, these reasons do not answer the deeper psychological questions about why people want to see the world and why people will fly thousands of kilometres to go and lie in the sun, in other words tourism demand is needs driven. People partake in travel because they are pushed by motivational factors into making travel decisions (Kassean & Gassita, 2013:3). Therefore it is considered that push forces are the intangible or basic desires of the individual traveller to partake in travelling (Mohammad & Som, 2010:41). When considering this, it becomes apparent that the push forces are the initial motivator that drives individuals to partake in travelling. The push forces are used to explain the desire of a person to partake in tourism (Goossens, 2000:303). Push forces are the factors that influence the decision to travel (Airey *et al.,* 2004:19).

As stated earlier, there is also another driving force at play with regard to tourism demand namely pull forces, which will be discussed in the following section.

3.5.2 Pull forces

Pull forces are connected to the external, situational or cognitive aspects of need satisfaction. These forces are inspired by the attractiveness of a destination and include: beaches, recreational facilities, cultural attractions, entertainment, scenery, shopping and parks (Yoon & Uysal, 2005:46). Pull forces are generally considered as attractions or destination attributes (Mohammad & Som, 2010:41). It has been widely accepted that destination attributes affect tourists' subjective perception, consequent behaviour, and destination choice (Shin, 2009:33). The demand for many tourism products and services is known to depend greatly on the overall impression of the destination (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2011:5).

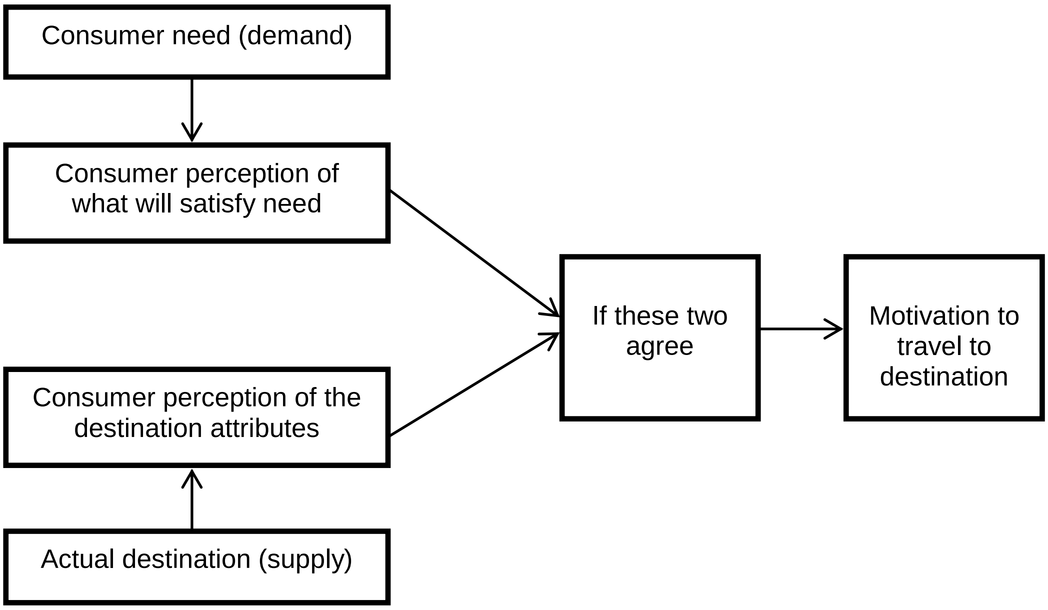
Lee, Lee and Lee (2005:841) point out that, within literature, it is generally accepted that destination attributes have an influence on destination choice. Destination image and attributes have been identified as characteristics that influence consumer behaviour and choice, and since destinations compete globally, marketers need to obtain up to date knowledge and have a greater understanding of the business and the environment in which they operate in order to control and adopt a suitable marketing mix (Kamenidou, Mamalis & Priporas, 2009:67). Tourist decision behaviour is greatly influenced by the attributes and characteristics of tourist destinations as well as past experiences (Shukla, Brown & Harper, 2006:8). It is commonly acknowledged that pull factors are measured by means of destination attributes that represent place perception (Prayag & Ryan, 2011:123).

The interrelationship between push- and pull forces will be discussed in the following section.

3.5.3 Interrelationship between push- and pull forces

McDowall (2010:40) and Petrick (2004:401) agree that a direct relationship exists between destination attributes and tourist motivation. The characteristics or attributes of the destination permit the individual to create potential in terms of satisfying their needs (Plangmarn, Mujtaba, Pirani & Puriveth, 2012:223). Figure 3.2 demonstrates the interrelationship between push- and pull forces.

Figure 3.2: Interrelationship between push- and pull forces



Source: Adapted from Holloway *et al.* (2009:62)

It is evident from Figure 3.2, that, (when dealing with tourist satisfaction) two forces are at work. The first stage involves the realisation of the need to travel and how to satisfy the need will depend on the individual's needs. This is where the destination or destination attributes come into play. If the individual finds a destination which will satisfy his/her needs (destination selection), the reason for travelling to a destination is realised.

According to Crompton and McKay (1997:428) and Keyser (2009:252), understanding the tourists' and potential tourists' reasons for travelling are important to the destination marketer for a number of reasons, amongst others:

- It forms the basis for segmentation in markets;

- It helps the destination manager make informed decisions about destination development in relation to the needs and requirements of the target market;
- It is the key to designing offers for tourists; and
- It helps the destination marketer make decisions about pricing and which distribution channels to use.

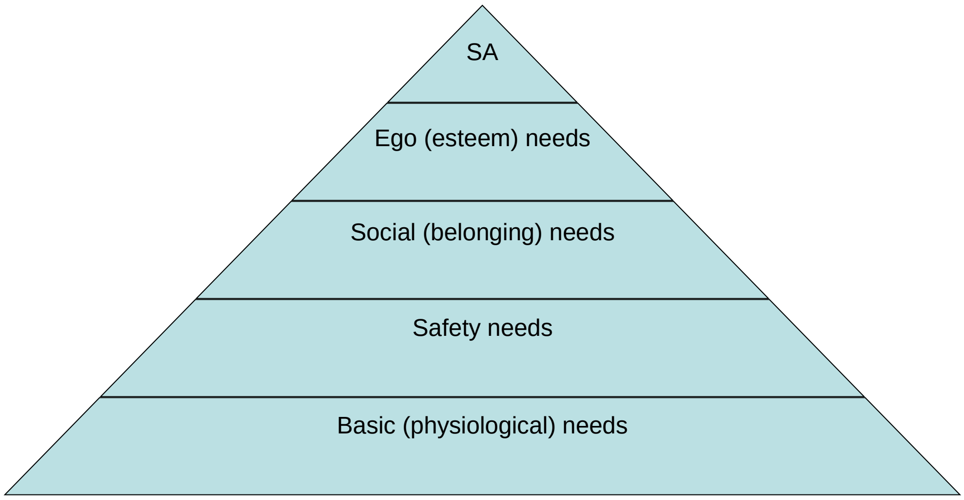
It is thus evident from the interrelationship between push and pull forces that the individuals' needs and the destination or attributes of the destination influence one another when selecting a potential holiday destination. It was established that push- and pull forces are a major force behind tourism demand. Therefore tourism demand is influenced by needs driven travel forces, which are perceived as either push- or pull forces as both these forces drive tourism demand.

In the following section, needs theories will be elaborated on with special reference to travel needs.

3.6 NEEDS DRIVEN TRAVEL FORCES

Maslow's hierarchy of needs offers insight into the ways in which a trip may satisfy different needs of tourists (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:242). Maslow's theory is that human needs can be arranged in the form of a hierarchy, from the most dominant to the least dominant; as illustrated in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Hierarchy of needs as identified by Maslow



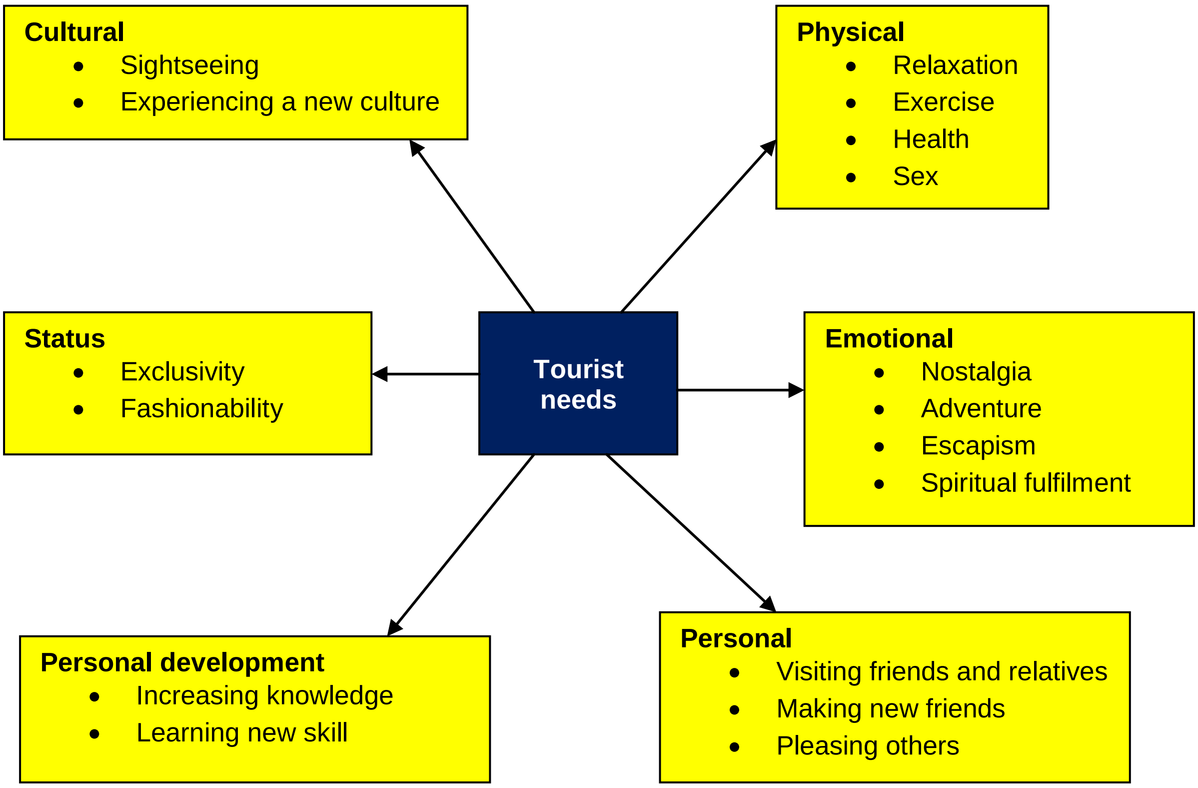
Key: SA = Self-actualisation

Source: Adapted from Hudson (2008:42)

From Table 3.3 it is clear that there must be progression to move from one level to the other. The study of tourist need satisfaction is a constant imperative within tourism; as changes in a tourist's needs affect tourism demand and supply (Mahika, 2011:15).

Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:54) identified tourist needs classification typologies. According to the Oxford Dictionary (2013:1), a typology is the classification of things according to a general construct. A typology is a group of classes used for classification; a typology normally has no overlapping groups which include all potentials so that there is only one category available for each variable and each variable only fits one category (Crossman, 2013:1). The tourist needs classification typologies according to Swarbrooke & Horner (2007) are illustrated in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4: Tourist needs typologies



Source: Adapted from Swarbrooke & Horner (2007:54)

Figure 3.4 shows six different tourist needs typology classifications namely: physical, emotional, personal, personal development, status and cultural as well as sub-classifications of each typology. As can be seen from Figure 3.4, the tourist needs are at the centre of the diagram as this represents tourist demand. The different typologies can then be seen as needs driven forces which drive tourism demand. The basic needs of Maslow can be grouped together with Swarbrooke and Horner's physical needs. Maslow's safety needs do not fit into any of the typologies provided by Swarbrooke and Horner and will therefore be discussed individually. Maslow's social needs will be grouped together with Swarbrooke and Horner's personal needs. Maslow's ego needs will be grouped together with Swarbrooke and Horner's status needs. Maslow's self-actualisation needs will be jointly discussed with Swarbrooke and Horner's personal development needs. As there is no suitable match for Swarbrooke and Horner's cultural- and emotional needs with Maslow's hierarchy of needs, these needs will also be discussed separately.

3.6.1 Physical and basic (physiological) needs

According to McIntosh and Goeldner (1984:49), physical needs are associated with reduction of stress through physical activities, such as, sport, relaxation and resting. The satisfaction of all basic needs is apparently linked to one's wellbeing through the specific motivations and behaviours that lead to the satisfaction of needs (Bodley, 2011:520). Similarly Tsephe and Obono (2013:1003) state that physical needs are directly linked to one's physical health: physical rest, participation in sports, and the need for recreation at the beach. Fields (2002:39) proposes that physical needs can be closely related to the opportunity to taste new and exotic foods. Tepanon (2006:1) states physical needs consist of physical problems and unmet sexual needs.

As shown in Figure 3.4, Swarbrooke and Horner (2003:54) indicate that physical needs include relaxation, exercise, health and sex. It is thus clear that relaxation, exercise, health, sex and the need to taste new and exotic cuisine are physical needs and will be discussed in greater detail in the following section.

3.6.1.1 Relaxation

Relaxation-based needs are grounded in the need to find peace, tranquillity, and relaxation at the destination (Jonsson & Devonish, 2008:401). Discretionary tourism is associated with rest, relaxation and leisure (Alén, Domínguez & Losada, 2012:141). How people relax and how they go about breaking their daily routine and what experiences they seek differ among individuals (Collins, Galliano, Quinn, Fairweather & Maurer, 2007:18). Rest and relaxation is still one of the fundamental needs of the human being (Esichaikul, 2012:55). According to Akyildiz, Argan, Argan and Sevil (2013:23), the relaxation need relates to all activities involved with the aim of physical and mental relaxation, getting away from the mundane everyday life and escaping from boredom. According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:59), relaxation refers to the following:

- Avoiding daily hustle and bustle;
- Relaxing physically; and
- Relaxing emotionally.

The reasons for taking a holiday results from the need for relaxation and the reduction of stress levels (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:212). Alghamdi (2007:49) argues that, within tourism literature, the notion of relaxation is usually used to indicate activities that do not lead to any stress or tension.

3.6.1.2 Exercise

Physical motives are based on the desire to be physically active (in the form of exercise), during his/her stay at the destination (Jonsson & Devonish, 2008:401). According to Ironside (2006:1), just by going on holiday, a person can reclaim up to thirty percent of a person's fitness as taking holidays forces a person to exercise by walking greater distances, swimming and by standing instead of sitting at a desk all day which all help an individual to look and feel fitter. Regular movement during the day can also boost ones circulation and increase the heart rate and immune system. Exercise can take the form of physical activity by participating in sport or just recreational activities at the beach (Tshepe & Obono, 2013:1003). One can also go on a fitness holiday which focuses on wellness through physical exercise and fun challenges (Health and fitness travel, 2013:1).

3.6.1.3 Health

At a basic physiological level, travelling can be necessary for health reasons, as in the case of travelling abroad for complex surgery or travelling to warm and dry climates to recover from illnesses such as asthma and tuberculosis (Holloway & Plant, 1992:57). The desire to travel to treat these illnesses is survival-related needs (Page, 2007:73). In addition, many people in stressful occupations also need a break from the mental or physical strain of their work to avoid a breakdown in health, and this cathartic travel is no less necessary for survival than travelling for pleasure (Holloway & Plant, 1992:57). Undertaking or participating in tourism has always had a link to the benefits associated with health, well-being and rejuvenation (Tresidder, 2011:266). Some individuals partake in travel with the aim of improving their health, rather than for pleasure purposes (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:53).

3.6.1.4 Sex

Sex is also seen as one of the basic needs within Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Hudson, 2008:42). The majority of travellers who travel for the aim of partaking in sex are from developed countries, specifically from the United States, Western Europe and Japan (Jeffreys, 2003:225). Travellers do not always express their true reasons for travelling as they fear the reason might not be seen as acceptable by others. It is much easier to express a desire to travel for relaxing and having a good time than to go on holiday with the sole aim to partake in casual sexual relations or even to have sex with prostitutes. (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:56). In the eighties, in the early stages of tourist needs research, Dann (1981:205) already in 1981 warned that tourists may be unwilling or unable to express their real travel motivation, which is a big challenge for researchers studying tourist need satisfaction.

When travelling abroad, travellers have the freedom and chance to escape the normal morals and practices society imposes on them by their local communities, and this frequently leads to incidents of amplified sexual promiscuity and casual sexual relationships (Bellis, Hughes, Thomson & Bennett, 2004:45). This is especially the case within the youth travel market where sexual risk-taking increases during holiday periods in the form of having various new sex partners and having unprotected sex (Sönmez, Apostolopoulos, Ho Yu, Mattila, Yang & Yu, 2006:895). In the early 2000's Thailand was perceived as the world's sex capital; sex is possibly the most enticing factor for tourists there with a prostitute population of between 800 thousand to two million (Coomansingh, 2003:60).

3.6.1.5 Cuisine

Food is also seen as one of the basic needs within Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Hudson, 2008:42). Tourism activity related to cuisine can include visiting gastronomic regions, for recreational or entertainment purposes, which includes visits to primary and secondary producers of food, gastronomic festivals, food fairs, events, farmers' markets, cooking shows or demonstrations and tastings of quality food products (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2012:6). According to Smith *et al.* (2010:75), travelling with the main purpose to learn more about a specific region's cuisine, to sample new food, purchase produce or engage in cookery courses is a relatively new trend in tourism.

Driven by the growing tendencies for authenticity and the need to have a first-class experience, food is shaping gastro destinations such as France and Italy (Yeoman, 2008:195). Good food can be perceived as a prerequisite for tourism (Mitchell, Hall & McIntosh, 2000:116). This fact is further validated by the inclusion of the Mediterranean diet of Spain, Greece, Italy and Morocco in UNESCO's list of Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity in November 2010 (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2012:9).

As previously stated, safety needs could not be grouped with Swarbrooke and Horner's typologies (Figure 3.4) and will now be discussed as an individual need.

3.6.2 Safety needs

Safety needs refer to the tourist's need to feel safe and secure at the destination visited (Hudson, 2008:43). Pizam and Mansfeld (1996:1) state that most tourists will not spend their hard-earned money to go on holiday where their safety and well-being may be in jeopardy. In relation to basic safety needs, it needs to be mentioned that many people do not travel due to real or imaginary fears. These include the fear of flying, the fear of being attacked, the fear of becoming lost and the fear of not understanding a foreign language (Saayman, 2000:40). Factors of concern to safety and security comprise political instability and unrest, the possibility of terrorism, the crime rate at the destination, the quality of sanitation, the prevalence of an outbreak of disease, and the quality or unreliability of medical services (Dwyer & Kim, 2003: 397). The presence or absence of these is what will influence the tourist to choose a destination as a potential holiday destination or not.

3.6.3 Emotional needs

Emotional needs are associated with nostalgia or longing for a certain place or to enjoy the romance of a destination (Liên, 2010:6). According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:73), emotional needs have considerable emotional significance for the individual. Alghamdi (2007:40) states that emotional needs can also be referred to as internal desires and gives the following examples: the need for escape, relaxation and adventure. Emotional needs as depicted in Figure 3.2 are nostalgia, adventure, escapism and spiritual fulfilment (Best, 2007:42). These will be discussed in more detail in the following subsections.

3.6.3.1 Nostalgia

Nostalgia is a multifaceted subject, the understanding of which requires a multidisciplinary perspective (Suntikul, 2013:1). The Oxford Dictionary (2013a:1), defines nostalgia as a sentimental longing or wistful affection for a period in the past. Nazou (2009:84) states that this is especially true within family holidays as families often travel to destinations with sentimental value and have at least one destination they visit annually. Nostalgia has become an influential factor in destination choice; ninety percent of United Kingdom tourists utilise their holidays to re-visit a specific country or place with a sentimental connection to their lives instead of discovering new destinations. The following could be reasons for revisiting a particular destination (Marschall, 2012:325):

- Resided at the destination when younger or as a student;
- Went on honeymoon there;
- Had a memorable romance at the destination;
- Had a life-changing experience there;
- Had a sabbatical or gap year there; and
- Got married or engaged at the destination.

Sierra and McQuitty (2007:99) state that nostalgia can also be based on shared heritage and memories with group members. Ray and McCain (2012:982) confirm that there are very few tourism experiences that may be more emotional and nostalgic than those involving an individual’s own personal connection to his/her own heritage.

3.6.3.2 Adventure

Addison (1999:417) defines adventure travel as “any activity trip close to nature that is undertaken by someone who departs from known surroundings to encounter unfamiliar places and people, with the purpose of exploration, study, business, communication, recreation, sport, or sightseeing and tourism”. Addison (1999:417) implies that travelling, with the aim of seeking adventure, is launching oneself into the unfamiliar with the anticipation that it could turn out to be a trial. According to the Adventure Tourism Market Report (2010:1), adventure travellers frequently pursue unique travel destinations and activities; it is believed that a percentage of this market is willing to travel to destinations with limited tourism infrastructure with the aim of experiencing an exceptional and authentic holiday. Similarly Tran and Ralston (2006:425) state that tourists, with a desire for adventure, favour unusual and exotic destinations to gain new experiences, enjoy a unique environment and to put their skills to the test. These individuals are looking for excitement and adventure in a wide range of different activities (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:245). Alghamdi (2007:136) gives the following reasons for visiting such destinations:

- Finding thrills and excitement;
- Being daring and adventuresome; and
- Having fun and being entertained.

According to Swarbrooke, Beard, Leckie and Pomfret (2003:9), the following are perceived to be the core characteristics of adventure tourism; uncertain outcomes, danger and risk challenge, anticipated rewards, stimulation, excitement, exploration and discovery. Similarly Ewert (1989:8) and Janočková and Jablonská (2013:42) concur that risk, personal challenge and physical activity form the core characteristics of adventure. Walle (1997:269) argues that the adventurer seeks risk due to the emotional rewards provided by experiencing and/or achieving it. Adventure includes pursuing risk as an end in itself. On the other hand Ewert and Hollenhorst (1994:188) argue that while the adventurer seeks out progressively difficult and challenging prospects, they however do not necessarily seek higher levels of risk.

As stated in Chapter 2, there are two forms of adventure namely hard and soft forms; hard forms of adventure refer to activities such as hang gliding, rock climbing, white-water kayaking and wilderness survival, whereas soft adventure forms include; horse riding, rafting, snorkelling, hiking, camping and sea kayaking (Millington *et al.,* 2001:68). Adventure travellers are perceived to be equally probable to be single or married, male or female and; the majority are between the ages of 35 to 47 years old (Adventure tourism market report, 2010:3).

3.6.3.3 Escapism

According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:3), this need can refer to the escape from work and everyday life and to revitalise the spirit and mind. Modern day tourists are more experienced and have more disposable income and time to travel which in turn allow tourists to escape their routine lifestyle and engage themselves in a world of freedom and novelty (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2012:6). The drive to escape is to get away from over-stimulating life conditions. It can be perceived to be the need for some persons to avoid social interaction, to seek isolation and peaceful conditions while for others it may be to seek rest and to unwind. (Liên, 2010:8). Jensen (2011:39) and Yoon and Uysal (2005:54) give the following reasons as to why people would want to escape:

- Getting away from the demands of home;
- Escaping from work responsibilities and work-related stress;
- Having a change from a busy job;
- Escaping from everyday life; and
- Relieving boredom.

Liên (2010:7) provides the following example of escape needs; individuals who live in countries with a cooler climate usually prefer to travel to the tropics due to the difference in weather conditions when compared to their own country; on the other hand, individuals who live in the tropics might prefer to travel to cooler areas to escape the heat in their home country or to enjoy snow.

3.6.3.4 Spiritual fulfilment

Spiritual journeys are undertaken by many in a search of meaning of their contemporary individualistic lives in modern societies (Housden, 2012:1) What distinguishes spiritual tourists from regular tourists, are their desire to seek out religious and spiritual settings and experiences (Norman, 2004:1). Destinations popular for seeking spiritual fulfilment are Jerusalem in Israel, Mecca in Saudi Arabia, Santiago de Compostela in Spain, Fatima in Portugal, Lourdes in France and the river Ganges in India (Tarlow, 2010:1). In the following section personal and social needs will be discussed.

3.6.4 Personal and social needs

Personal needs refer to the desire of tourists to meet new people, visit friends and relatives and make new friends (Tsephe & Obono, 2013:1003). The social needs of belonging and acceptance are often met through packaged and all-inclusive tours because group tours are a great opportunity to make new friends (Holloway & Plant, 1992:58). Personal needs are also associated with maintaining, prolonging and forcing new personal relationships, for example, visiting family and friends (VFR) and making new friends (Liên, 2010:6). Personal and social needs thus include visiting friends and relatives, making new friends and enjoying family getaways as indicated in Figure 3.4. These will be discussed in the following subsections.

3.6.4.1 Visiting friends and relatives

Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) can be defined as visiting relatives, acquaintances, friends and participating in family occasions such as family reunions (Alghamdi, 2007:32). Travel with the main aim of VFR generates a substantial amount of worldwide travel (Griffen, 2013:1). Jensen (2011:39) gives the following examples of the VFR-motive:

- Have experiences together with family and or friends;
- Spending time with family and/or friends; and
- Socialising with family and/or friends.

In contrast Alghamdi (2007:54) argues that visiting friends and relatives as an incentive to travel abroad is debatable; unless the individuals have family or friends living abroad whom they want to visit, they do not necessarily need to travel overseas to do so. However, Mehmetoglu and Normann (2013:9) state that VFR is connected to saving costs in the form of staying with friends and family while travelling; they therefore do not incur the cost for accommodation. Hu and Morrison (2002:215) found that tourists VFR (when compared to other tourists) were more likely to travel in off-season due to their relationship with friends and relatives; these tourists are also likely to be repeat visitors to the destinations.

3.6.4.2 Forging new friendships

According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:58), the youth market is especially interested in forging new friendships while travelling. As previously stated, the social need of belonging and acceptance are often met through packaged and all-inclusive tours, because group tours are a great opportunity to make new friends (Holloway & Plant, 1992:58). On the other hand, Scott (2012:1) states that travelling alone is also a good opportunity to meet new friends as it is easy to have a conversation with people when travelling is a common denominator. Travelling alone makes an individual more approachable and removes him/her from his/her comfort zone. People who meet while travelling can turn into lifelong friends as they already share something in common, a desire to see the world (Garland, 2012:1).

3.6.4.3 Family getaways

In modern-day life, families spend much time engaging in separate activities such as work, after-school activities and business travel, leaving less time for families to spend together (Epp, 2008:190). De Almeida (2010:99) states that most families want to build family togetherness and have a memorable and once-in-a-lifetime experience while travelling together. Baerenholdt, Haldrup, Larsen and Urry (2004:58) concur that most tourists travel with significant others (partners and family) to places which are valued for their ability to provide intimate proximities. Family holidays offer a kind of family togetherness and provide time and space for interpersonal relationships and social connections within the family (Nazou, 2009:84). Family leisure activities provide the opportunity for families to develop a sense of family identity and to strengthen family bonds (Shaw & Dawson, 2001:219). Status and ego needs will be discussed in the following section.

3.6.5 Status and ego needs

O'Reilly (2006:1013) states that travel is not all about pleasure and adventure, but also includes maintaining or enhancing social position. Ego needs, e.g. a desire to appear more attractive to others, is achieved by gaining a suntan in some social circles. Status needs are associated with ego needs as they are associated with enhancing social standing and such things as exclusivity or fashionability (Liên, 2010:6; McIntosh & Goeldner, 1984:50). Thus status and ego needs are associated with exclusivity, fashionability and stature as indicated in Figure 3.4, these will be discussed in the following subsection.

3.6.5.1 Exclusivity and fashionability

Behaviour worthy of exclusivity may be grounded on contemplations of the knowledge, actions, skills, abilities, tourism product consumption and attitudes of travellers (Alghamdi, 2007:51). Farlex (2013:1) defines fashionability in tourism as visiting popular and sought after destinations and/or attractions. Kim and Prideaux (2005:355) concur that travelling for fashionability or exclusivity might include the following reasons:

- Going to places to which the individual's friends want to go;
- Talking about the trip after returning home; and
- Going to places to which the individual's friends have not been.

The gender of the tourists can also to some extent influence the fashionability of the holiday; e.g. women choose shopping holidays, or holidays that include beauty and body treatments for example spas, while men might choose sporting holidays such as golf tournaments, or participate in various sporting events and adventure (Mahika, 2011:18).

3.6.5.2 Stature needs

Stature refers to self-esteem and is seen to be concerned with the need for recognition and attention from others, in order to boost one's ego (Khunou, Reynish, Pawson, Tseane & Ivanovic, 2009:61; Tsephe & Obono, 2013:1003). Van Vuuren and Slabbert (2011:695) state that some tourists participate in recreational activities with the aim of gaining a certain level of prestige. Social status and prestige can influence the choice of destination (Plangmarn *et al.,* 2012:223). Jensen (2011:39) and Kim and Prideaux (2005:355) state that the following reasons for travelling have a strong connection with increasing stature:

- Visiting a destination so as to impress friends and family;
- Experiencing something new or unique while travelling; and
- Travelling to a destination that friends and relatives really want to visit.

In the following section personal development will be discussed.

3.6.6 Personal development and self-actualisation

Personal development is related to self-determination, a sense of proficiency or mastery, challenge, learning and exploration (Tsephe & Obono, 2013:1002). Personal development needs can be perceived as the desire to increase knowledge and learning (Liên, 2010:6). Travel is professed to be a powerful instrument for personal development (World press, 2013:1). Personal development is related to the following motivations for travel: increasing knowledge and skills and enrichment (Jayaoalan, 2001:48) as elaborated on in the following section.

3.6.6.1 Increasing knowledge and skills

According to De Almeida (2010:99), some tourists are travelling to improve themselves intellectually and to discover new things by taking advantage of learning opportunities; this can take the form of learning about a destination, its culture, its history, and its people. Mahika (2011:17) agrees that tourists engage in activities that involve mental activity such as learning, exploration and discovery. The desire of tourists to learn implies a need for a strong and genuine learning process (Ambrož & Ovsenik, 2011:83). Travelling assists one in participating in activities one would not normally partake in, and pushing oneself outside one’s comfort zones forms the basis of personal development in the form improving oneself (Hall & Yu, 2012:1).

3.6.6.2 Enrichment

Tourists are driven by their individual interests and needs (Macleod, 2004:68). According to Chiang, King and Nguyen (2012:29), tourists driven by personal development seek good value in terms of education and learning and are interested in destination-based activities which provide them with educational, professional and travel-related opportunities. Jensen (2011:39) gives the following reasons for travelling with the aim of enriching oneself:

- To expand one's horizons; and
- To increase knowledge about other countries and their way of life.

Tourists are not just prompted to travel to see places and visit attractions, but also in terms of personal development and gaining authentic experience (Collins *et al.,* 2007:18). Mahika (2011:18) concurs that tourists who prefer intellectually-active holidays, are the individuals who have a desire for learning new skills, visiting museums, art galleries and places of cultural importance; they are those who want to learn something new or increase their knowledge in their free time. Tourists are becoming increasingly experienced and have a desire for a wider range of experiences that broadens their horizon so that they can feel enriched by engaging in these activities (Perić, 2010:197).

In the following section cultural- and self-actualisation needs will be discussed.

3.6.7 Cultural needs

Cultural needs can be perceived to be the desire of discovering new cultures (Liên, 2010:6). According to Khunou *et al.* (2009:61), cultural needs can be identified by the desire to see and know more about different cultures, to find out about the inhabitants of a certain country, their way of life, music, art, folklore, and dance. Similarly Tsephe and Obono (2013:1003) state that cultural needs refer to the traveller's desire to gain knowledge and experience the culture of other countries. Culture is perceived as one of the most significant factors which attract tourists to a destination (Livin & Kar, 2003:25).

Cultural and nationality variances influence the destination of choice of tourists (Mahika, 2011:18). Tourists rarely select a destination with a culture similar to their own, but often tend to select destinations where the culture is different from their own so as to experience a different way of life. A person from South Africa would be interested in visiting a destination that has a different culture to his/her own, probably a country within the Far East (Hub Pages, 2013:1). The latter is referred to as cultural distance; cultural distance is the degree to which the culture of the originating region differs from that of the host region (McKercher & So-Ming, 2001:23).

To conclude, from the previous sections it is clear that although tourists can be classified according to different types and reasons for travelling, it does not constitute that all tourists are the same as it is only a theoretical assumption to make the process of understanding tourists and their reasons for travelling easier for both the marketer and researcher (Jonsson & Devonish, 2008:399). Similary, González and Molina (2009:186) state that the common postulation underlying typologies is that, among the wide array of tourist behaviours, there are broad groups of individuals who share similar characteristics which are vital for the understanding and/or management of tourist behaviour.

However, it is important for the marketer and tourism product developer to rapidly identify any changes in tourist needs, as these changes affect the transformations of the supply and the way in which the offer is perceived by the client (Mahika, 2011:18). One certainty of the tourism industry is that the consumer's tastes and wants are constantly changing, and this is represented in recent trends and developments (Page, 2007:233). Change is a noteworthy and inevitable, characteristic of any tourism business. Changing customer needs, the desire to experience something different, technological advancements and growing worldwide competition are some of the main forces that cause change within the tourism industry (George, 2007:185). The basic need for travel still remains and even though changes in people's consumer behaviour might change the product of choice, the desire to go on holiday will remain unchanged.

Some authors (Alghamdi, 2007; Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Lubbe, 2005; Saayman, 2000) argue that it is not only the reason for travelling that influences tourism demand, but also the way in which the tourist perceives the destination. When one has realised the right reason to travel, the kind of holiday and destination are often decided based on one's perception or value of the various choices in the marketplace as well as the accessibility of the destination and its attributes (Prebensen, 2007:3). This in turn can be referred to as other forces influencing destination choice (Saayman, 2000:39), which will be discussed in the following section.

3.7 OTHER FORCES INFLUENCING DESTINATION CHOICE

In addition to needs driven forces, Saayman (2000:39) identifies the following factors that can influence both the desire (push forces) to travel as well as the appeal of the destination (pull forces):

- Travel distance and time;
- The comfort and discomfort of the trip;
- Costs;
- Exchange rate;
- Marketing;
- Accessibility; and
- Destination attributes.

Some of these factors may hinder the potential tourist from travelling even though the desire may exist (Chen & Wu, 2009:303). In the following section the factors identified by Saayman (2000:39) will be elaborated on.

3.7.1 Travel distance and time

Travel distance and time are perceived to be one of the constraints for people participating in travel (Hinch, Jackson, Hudson & Walker, 2005:143). Demand will peak for destinations relatively close to the source market and then decline exponentially as distance increases from the origin which is known as the decaying effect of distance (McKercher & Lew, 2004:38). Travel time can influence the choice of destination and it depends on the individual. Travel time can be seen as either a positive or a negative aspect depending on the actual time travelled. It is generally accepted that travel time will have a negative relationship; the longer the distances travelled or actual travel time, the less appealing the destination becomes to the individual. (Saayman, 2000:39). Factors that can prolong travel time, especially in air travel, are connecting flights and transit time. On the other hand, Tukamushaba and Okech (2012:253) suggest that some destinations have a unique appeal that can overcome some or all of the impacts of the decaying effect of distance.

3.7.2 Comfort or discomfort of the trip

The comfort and discomfort of the trip can have both a physical and emotional impact on the traveller (Saayman, 2000:39). These can manifest in the form of fatigue and jet lag (Reilly, 2009:128). Jet lag is a condition that manifests itself by physiological changes that occur within the body when moving into a new time zone (Samuels, 2012:268). Jet lag is triggered by the alteration of the body clock to the new time zone. Jet lag can last for several days depending on the number of time zones the individual crossed (Jackson, 2009:29). Time zones can be defined as any of the 24 regions of the world (loosely divided by longitude) throughout which the same standard time is used (Giunchiglia, Dutta, Maltese & Farazi, 2011:27). According to Nordqvist (2009:1), jet lag is more severe if the individual travels westward compared to eastward. The number of time zones crossed, increases the severity of jet lag (Jackson, 2009:29). Both these factors must be taken into consideration as one person may enjoy the comfort of flying but dislike the small seating space. Here the impact on the traveller will be more emotional than physical.

3.7.3 Costs of travelling

Costs of travelling can be divided into three main groups namely purchase costs, travelling expenses and accommodation and other costs (Saayman, 2000:39). The costs involved in travelling is perceived to be one of the most dominant parts of tourism expenditures (Celata, 2013:2). Costs of travelling play a role in booking travel packages where it is clearly stipulated what is included and excluded from the trip (Lubbe, 2005:209). If using a travel package, the individual can budget accordingly and only has to take spending money. The choice of purchasing a tourism product or not, depends greatly on the price of the product (Liang, Illum & Cole, 2008:14).

3.7.4 Exchange rate

The exchange rate between the countries has a big influence on destination choice, especially for the South African tourist as the South African currency is weak in comparison to the British Pound, American Dollar and Euro (Forsyth & Dwyer, 2009:78).

The better the exchange rate, the more appealing the destination becomes to the individual (Euromonitor International, 2012:1). Thailand, South America, Africa and the Far East are perceived as destinations associated with favourable exchange rates compared to most of the western currencies (Starmer-Smith, 2008:1). Exchange rates have some impact on international visitor demand; travellers from Singapore, Korea and Hong Kong are more responsive to movements in exchange rates, while travellers from Canada are less responsive (Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism, 2013:1). Destinations such as Spain and Greece experienced a sharp decline in British visitors in 2008 due to the increase of the Euro towards the British Pound (Starmer-Smith, 2008:1). The poor exchange rates have meant that many British residents choose to remain in Britain rather than travelling abroad (United Kingdom Business World, 2012:1).

3.7.5 Marketing

Tourism has a wide variety of products and offerings available to suit the needs of the individual (Butler, 1980:5). As new destinations and product offerings arise, the possibilities to travel become unlimited (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006:127). However, for a business to function effectively within this volatile environment, the managers and owners of these businesses need to be aware of the latest trends within the tourism industry (Hu, 1996:37). It is imperative that tourism businesses excel at developing new products and maintain them in line with changing tastes, technologies, and increased competition. These businesses should also be intent on phasing out older products for newer ones, which better suit consumers' needs. (Kotler *et al*., 1999:291).

Marketing will have a major effect on the tourist as it can make the destination more attractive and exciting (Ivanov, Illum & Liang, 2010:342). The more a destination is advertised, the more enticing it becomes to the individual. If information about a certain destination is hard to come by, the destination becomes less appealing (Ivanov *et al*., 2010:342). Inexperienced travellers will rely more on marketing and advertising than experienced travellers (Gretzel, Hwang & Fesenmaier, 2012:308). Saayman (2000:40) states that the determining factor in the final destination choice is the communication media, such as television advertising. In contrast, Ringbeck and Pietsch (2013:43) argue that proven destination marketing methods such as advertising campaigns or industry fairs are gradually being displaced. Interactive communications with tourists through online channels are becoming increasingly important. This, in turn, has destination managers and developers redesigning their existing marketing strategies.

3.7.6 Accessibility

Accessibility to and when at the destination plays a vital role on how appealing a destination may be for a tourist (Chen & Wu, 2009:303). The more accessible a destination is and the attractions within the destination there are, the more appealing the destination becomes to the tourist (Chiang *et al.,* 2012:23). To increase accessibility, destination tourism institutions need to meet the tourists' needs; this can be done by providing multilingual guides and signage in different languages at the destination (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012:286). Webster and Ivanov (2007:65) are of the opinion that visa- and health requirements as well as transportation influence the accessibility of a destination. As transportation has already been discussed in Chapter 2, only visa- and health requirements will be discussed next.

3.7.6.1 Visa requirements

Visa requirements can discourage tourists from visiting a specific country (Webster & Ivanov, 2007:65). Visa requirements can deter potential travellers from the outset from visiting a certain destination (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2012:19). According to Neumayer (2010:171), visa requirements represent a hurdle for tourists to visit a destination even before they arrive at the country for the following reasons:

- Additional cost and annoyance of applying for visas before travel commences;
- The individual will have to travel to the embassy or one of the few consulates (for some visas) and often having to wait possibly for hours for any service; and
- The issuing consulate or embassy sometimes denying the application without giving any reason.

Visas are perceived to be one of the biggest obstacles with regard to outbound tourism (UKinbound, 2013:1). According to Francheska (2013:1), The USA's visa policy is driving away millions of potential tourists and this, in turn, is hurting their travel industry. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (2013:i), countries should impose less restrictive visa regimes to increase tourism numbers.

3.7.6.2 Health requirements

Individuals travelling to foreign countries frequently face health-related issues the individual would not normally experience at his or her home country (Stöppler, 2012:1). When travelling to some parts of the world, the tourist will have to get vaccinated against local diseases or present proof of vaccination if travelling from infected areas (Department of Health and Human Services, 2013:1). According to Neustaedter (2013:1), vaccines prior to travel fall into three general categories:

- Routine vaccines normally given during childhood that may have lapsed or may never have been received;
- Exotic vaccines recommended for travelling to specific countries; and
- Required vaccines for entry into specific countries (Yellow fever is the only vaccine currently in this category).

Medical Tourism International (2013:1) supplied a list of vaccines that are recommended for international tourists, as well as the areas perceived to be a high risk for contracting certain illnesses or infectious diseases. This is presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Most important vaccinations for travellers

Disease	Description	Areas most commonly contracted
Hepatitis A	An infection of the liver caused by the hepatitis A virus	Africa, India, North and South America, South East Asia & Eastern Europe
Hepatitis B	An infection of the liver caused by the hepatitis B virus. This virus is transferred by infected body fluid	Africa, China, Southeast Asia and India
Typhoid Fever	May be contracted through contaminated drinking water or food	Africa, India, Americas, Eastern Europe and most parts of Asia
Yellow Fever	Leads to the degeneration of kidney and liver tissues. Yellow fever is spread through infectious mosquitoes	Parts of Africa and South America
Japanese Encephalitis	A type of viral brain infection which is transmitted by the bite of an infected mosquito	Asia, India, China, Japan, Southeast Asia, the Philippines, or Pacific Islands
Rabies	A very serious disease that most people get when bitten by an infected animal	Africa, Southern America and Asia
Malaria	An infectious blood disease caused by the bite of the female Anopheles mosquito	Africa, Asia, Central or South America
Meningitis	A serious infectious illness which affects your brain and spinal cord	Parts of Africa, Saudi Arabia, Northern Pakistan, Northern India and parts of South America

Source: Adapted from Medical Tourism International (2013:1)

From Table 3.4 it is clear that Africa, Asia and South America are perceived as parts of the world where travellers could contract infectious diseases. These health risks could deter travellers from visiting these parts of the world.

On the other hand, travel notices are designed to inform tourists and medical centers about current health risks related to travelling to certain destinations; these might arise from disease outbreaks, special events or gatherings, natural disasters, or other circumstances that may affect travellers' health (Centre of Disease Control and Prevention, 2013:1). The different types of travel notices are presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Types of travel notices

Travel notice level	Traveller action	Risk to traveller
Level 1: Watch	Reminder to follow usual precautions for this destination	Usual baseline risk or slightly above baseline risk for destination and limited impact on the traveller
Level 2: Alert	Follow enhanced precautions for this destination	Increased risk in defined settings or associated with specific risk factors
Level 3: Warning	Avoid all non-essential travel to this destination	High risk to travellers

Source: Centre of Disease Control and Prevention (2013:1)

From Table 3.5 it is clear that there are three alert levels. Each level provides actions travellers should take to avoid these dangers. An example of a level one travel notice is the Olympics Games in London (2012); there was a measles outbreak in London that could impact on travellers during the Olympics Games. An example of a level two travel notice is the flooding in El Salvador (2011). Possible conditions could affect the health of the traveller as parts of the infrastructure of the destination were damaged. Travellers are to follow special precautions for flooding in the destination (Centre of Disease Control and Prevention, 2013:1). An example of a level three travel notice is the outbreak of Ebola in Liberia, Guinea and Sierra Leone in 2014. Travellers were advised to avoid non-essential travel to these destinations (Centre of Disease Control and Prevention, 2014:1).

Tourists will usually not travel to these destinations where travel warnings have been issued, especially if these circumstances occur regularly (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:319). It is the responsibility of the traveller to ensure they have the needed vaccinations to visit destinations where they are required. If not they will not be allowed entry into the specific country. The traveller should also be aware of travel warnings before deciding on a specific destination.

To conclude, if a destination is unique, the accessibility to the destination will have less influence on the attractiveness of the destination (Celata, 2013:2). Therefore, the individual will not mind long travel time and visa requirements to visit the destination. Thus, the reason to visit a unique destination will outweigh the accessibility of the destination. However, accessibility still influences the choice of destination.

3.7.7 Destination attributes

Destination attributes are the primary factor of destination attractiveness; they are perceived to be one of the main reasons why people choose a certain destination (Meng, Tepanon & Uysal, 2008:42; Vengesayi, 2008:290). The factors which attract tourists to a certain destination include favourable environmental- and weather conditions, infrastructure, attractions and destination image (Hub Pages, 2013:1). As attractions have already been discussed in chapter two, only favourable environmental- and weather conditions, infrastructure and destination image will be elaborated on in this section.

Tourism is greatly dependent on environmental- and weather conditions as the majority of tourism activities takes place outdoors (Lim, Min & McAleer, 2008:1100). Therefore, having a clean environment and favourable weather conditions are important to tourist satisfaction (needs) and will essentially impact on the continued success of any tourism destination as favourable environmental- and weather conditions facilitate tourism (Kozak, Uysal & Birkan, 2008:82). The importance of favourable environmental and climatic attributes is reflected in advertising material as destinations use these to attract tourists (Gòmez-Martín, 2005:573). According to Coughlan and Prideaux (2009:100), unfavourable environmental and weather conditions have a more distinct effect on tourist satisfaction than good weather as these deter tourists from participating in tourism activities.

Infrastructure forms an important part of the tourism package (Moscardo, 2004:18). According to Seetanah, Juwaheer, Lamport, Rojid, Sannassee and Subadar-Agathee (2011:90), the following infrastructure will enhance the attractiveness of a destination: road-, airport- and communication infrastructure, waste management, and availability of water and energy. Road infrastructure consists of the availability of public bus and train services, bus tours and rental cars, whereas airport infrastructure is concerned with the availability of regular aviation services both domestic and international (Thompson & Schofield, 2007:137). Communication infrastructure refers to the availability of fast and affordable communication technology between the origin and destination country (Seetanah *et al.,* 2011:90). Waste management refers to the general sanitation and waste disposal techniques adopted by the destination (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:382). Availability of water and energy refers to the availability and reliability of these services at the destination (Seetanah *et al.,* 2011:90).

Destination image is related to the overall perceived attractiveness of the destination (Yoon & Uysal, 2005:47). According to Mak (2008:109), destination image refers to the image that the tourist has of a particular destination. Destination image plays an important role as this directly affects the choice of destination (Yoon & Uysal, 2005:47).

All these forces indentified in previous sections and here influence destination choice and have both an impact on the desire to travel and the destination the tourist will choose. Travel time can be seen as a negative factor which can influence the comfort or discomfort of the trip. The cost of the trip was also identified as a factor which can influence destination choice. Marketing of the destination can influence the destination choice as the visibility of the destination will affect the final choice. The more accessible a destination is to a potential tourist, the more attractive a destination will be to visit. Destination attributes will either entice or hinder the potential tourist from selecting a certain destination as these will depend greatly on the individual's own needs and the image the tourist has of the destination.

3.8 SUMMARY

Chapter 3 identified and discussed the factors influencing tourism demand. At the beginning of this chapter the term 'tourism' was classified into domestic-, inbound- and outbound tourism. The reason for this was to classify tourists correctly and to indicate which travellers are excluded from the term 'tourist'.

Three forms of tourism demand were identified namely no demand, suppressed demand and actual demand. Actual demand refers to tourists who actively partake in tourism, while no demand and suppressed demand are the individuals who do not partake in tourism for various reasons. The forces driving tourism demand were identified as push and pull forces. Push and pull forces were discussed separately as well as the interrelationship between push and full forces.

Needs driven forces were discussed based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Swarbrooke and Horner's needs classification typologies. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is based on order of importance; on the lowest level are physiological needs which are followed by safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualisation needs. Swarbrooke and Horner's needs classification typologies, on the other hand, identify five needs which can influence destination choice namely physical-, emotional-, personal-, personal development-, status- and cultural needs. These needs driven forces could be seen as either push or pull forces depending on the context.

In addition to needs driven forces, other forces influencing destination choice were identified. These forces as identified in the works of Saayman (2000) are; travel distance and time, the comfort and discomfort of the trip, cost of travelling, exchange rate, marketing, accessibility and destination attributes. These forces influence both the need to travel as well as the appeal of the destination to the potential tourist. These forces can either entice or hinder the potential tourist from selecting a certain destination. In the following chapter the hypothetical model of this study will be discussed.

CHAPTER 4

HYPOTHETICAL MODEL ON FACTORS INFLUENCING DESTINATION CHOICE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter tourism demand was discussed. The aim of Chapter 3 was to investigate and establish the factors influencing tourism demand. To establish this, travellers excluded from the term tourist were identified. Thereafter the different forms of tourism demand were discussed. Forces influencing tourism demand were identified as needs driven forces, which can either be a push or a pull force, and other forces influencing destination choice.

Chapter 1 presented the hypothetical model supporting this study. In Chapter 4, the hypothetical model identified will be operationalised and the factors influencing destination choice will be discussed in more detail. The chapter will form the framework on which the questionnaire will be based. A framework of the three sets of hypotheses formulated will be presented, and substantiated by secondary sources on the factors that influence destination choice. The conceptual models on which the hypothetical model of this study is based will be highlighted in the following section.

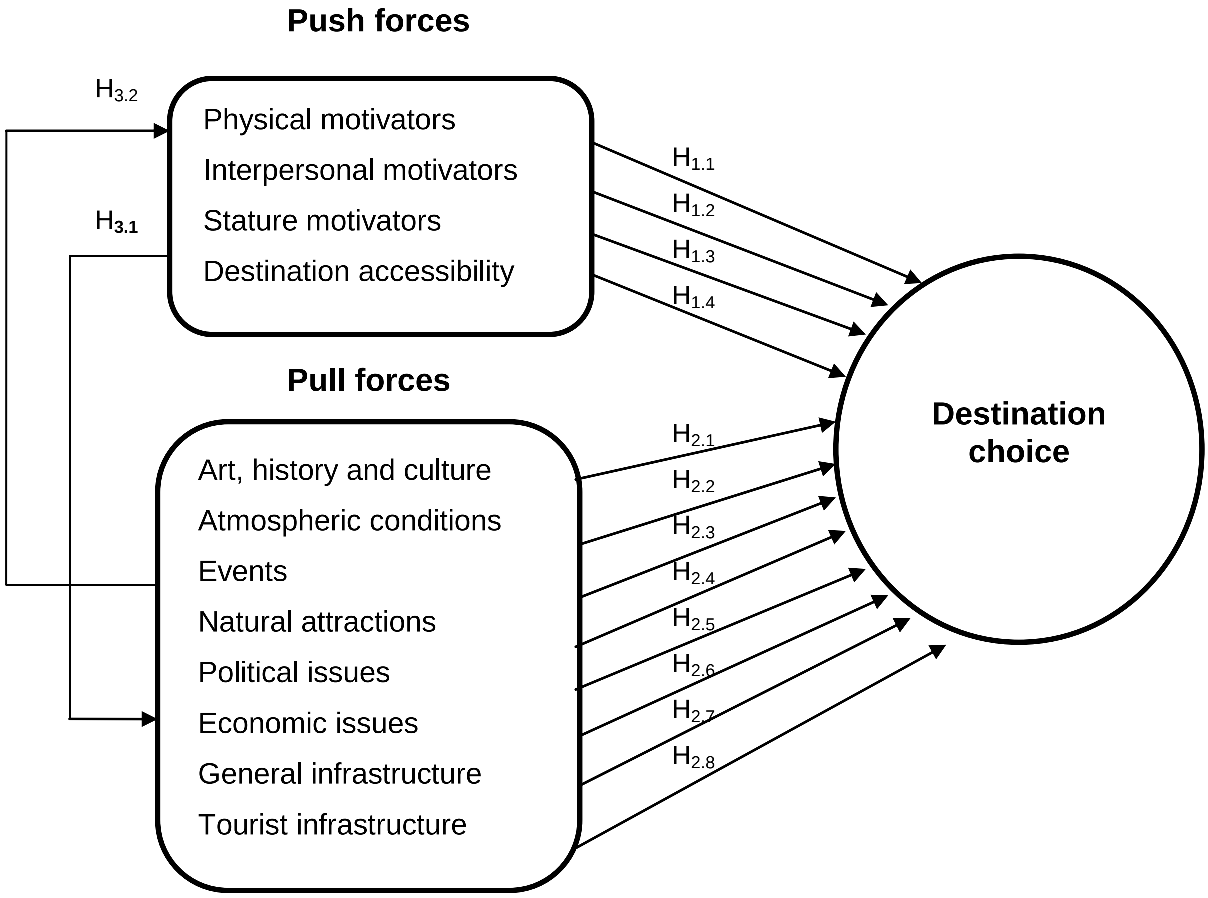
4.2 CONCEPTUAL MODELS SUPPORTING THE STUDY

The following models were used to compile the hypothetical model of this study:

- Leiper's (1990) basic tourism system model;
- Saayman's (2000) pull and push force model;
- McIntosh and Goeldner's (1984) three category motivation model;
- Keyser's (2006) visitors' profile model;
- Richards and Wilson's (2004) backpacker travel model; and
- Alghamdi's (2007) integrated model of explicit motives.

These models as discussed in Chapter 1 formed the foundation of the discussions to follow. Four of the models, Saayman's (2000) pull and push force model, McIntosh and Goeldner's (1984) three category motivation model, Keyser's (2006) visitors' profile model and Richards and Wilson's (2004) backpacker travel model were utilised to develop the hypothetical model regarding the factors influencing destination choice. The hypothetical model supporting the study, Figure 1.7, in chapter 1 will now be presented as Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Hypothetical model supporting the study



Source: Researcher's own construct

These factors identified in Figure 4.1 will be elaborated on in the sections to follow.

4.3 FACTORS INFLUENCING DESTINATION CHOICE

What motivates tourists to travel and what influence destination choice have been important in tourism research for several decades (Huang, 2010:153). According to Huang (2010:154), even though motivation has been a focus point of tourism research since the start of tourism studies, there is still a lack of a commonly accepted theoretical framework in researching tourist motivation. In a study by Mohammad and Som (2010:42) of travel motivation, demand is perceived to refer to motives (push factors) that sustain tourists' needs and wants, while on the other hand supply relates to destination's attributes (pull factors). However, motivation (push forces) is perceived as the major influencer of tourism demand patterns globally (Bogari, Crowther & Marr, 2004:52). Motivations are linked to consumer satisfaction and needs and are therefore considered the key component in understanding the decision-making process of tourists (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2012:6). Destination attributes, on the other hand, are regarded as forces that will lure the tourist to a specific destination (Mohammad & Som, 2010:42).

Some factors may hinder, while other factors may entice the decision-maker to visit a certain destination (Chen & Wu, 2009:303). The importance of the outbound tourist market has envoked significant interest in understanding tourists' motivation for travelling overseas (Mohammad & Som, 2010:41).

4.3.1 The effect of push forces on destination choice

Figure 4.1 indicates that physical-, interpersonal- and stature motivators as well as destination accessibility influence choice of destination. These will now be operationalised.

4.3.1.1 Physical motivators

According to McIntosh and Goeldner (1984:49), physical motivators for travel are associated with reduction of stress through physical activities, such as sport and adventure. These individuals are looking for excitement and adventure in a wide range of different activities e.g. rock-climbing, diving and hiking (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007:245). Sport can take the form of physical activity by participating in sports or just recreational activities at the beach (Tshepe & Obono, 2013:1003). Relaxation-based motivations are grounded in the need to find peace, tranquility, and relaxation at the destination (Jonsson & Devonish, 2008:401). According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:59), physical motivators are associated with relaxing physically and emotionally while on holiday. Physical relaxation while on holiday can lead to improved health (Fields, 2002:39). Physical motivators can also take the form of escaping from work responsibilities and work related stress (Jensen, 2011:39). Fields (2002:39) proposes that physical motivators can be closely related to the opportunity to taste new and exotic foods while on holiday.

This has led to the following hypothesis:

$H_{1.1}$: Physical motivators influence choice of travel destination.

4.3.1.2 Interpersonal motivators

Interpersonal motivation for travel is associated with the desire of tourists to meet new people, visit friends or relatives, get away from the mundane conventions of day to day life, or making new friends (Tsephe & Obono, 2013:1003). According to De Almeida (2010:99), most families want to build family togetherness and have a memorable and once in a lifetime experience while travelling together. Tourists are increasingly seeking experiences that provide them with a personal connection to the people and places they visit (Hudson, 2008:59). Khunou *et al.* (2009:61) argue that escaping from routine relationships with friends and seeking new friends also form part of interpersonal motivators. According to Davies (2012:1), nostalgia has become a big driver in destination choice; with ninety percent of United Kingdom tourists utilising their holidays to re-visit a specific country or place with a sentimental connection to their lives instead of discovering new destinations. However, due to the ability of modern technology to link people from around the world via social media sites such as Twitter, Facebook and Meetup.com, people also travel to meet people they have met on social media sites (Baker, 2008:1).

This has led to the following hypothesis:

$H_{1.2}$: Interpersonal motivators influence choice of travel destination.

4.3.1.3 Stature motivators

Stature motivators are associated with ego needs and personal development which include travelling to expand knowledge and gaining further experience in one’s hobbies (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1984:50). Status motives are concerned with the need for recognition and attention from others, in order to boost one’s ego (Khunou *et al.,* 2009:61). O’Reilly (2006:1013) states that travel is not all about pleasure and adventure, but is also aimed at maintaining or enhancing social position. By visiting distant or sought-after destinations, a tourist will gain prestige in the eyes of his or her less well-travelled friends (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:243). According to De

Almeida (2010:99), some tourists are driven by their willingness to improve themselves intellectually and to discover new things by taking advantage of the learning opportunities; this can take the form of learning about a destination, its culture, its history, and its people.

This has led to the following hypothesis:
$H_{1.3}$: Stature motivators influence choice of travel destination.

4.3.1.4 Destination accessibility

Destination accessibility refers to how accessible a destination is for tourists and the ability to access desired goods, services and activities at the destination (Adhikari, Ross & Ernst, 2013:1). Accessibility to and at the destination plays a vital role in how appealing a destination may be for a tourist (Chen & Wu, 2009:303). The more accessible a destination and the attractions within the destination are, the more appealing the destination becomes to the tourist (Chiang *et al.,* 2012:23). Demand will peak for destinations relatively close to the source market and then decline exponentially as distance increases from the origin (McKercher & Lew, 2003:161). Rieder and Jacquemin (2011:2) state that the vicinity to different attractions within a geographical area is important for tourism development as this aids to attract tourists. Important to accessibility when at the destination is how convenient attractions are situated from one another (Campbell & Ortíz, 2011:42).

According to Neumayer (2010:171), visa requirements represent a hurdle for tourists even before the tourists arrive at the country. Individuals travelling to foreign countries frequently face health-related issues the individuals would not normally experience in their home country (Stöppler, 2012:1). Therefore, when travelling to some parts of the world the tourist will have to be vaccinated against local diseases or present proof of vaccination if travelling from infected areas (Department of Health and Human Services, 2013:1). Tourists will usually not travel to destinations where travel warnings have been issued, especially if these circumstances occur regularly (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:319).

This has led to the following hypothesis:
$H_{1.4}$: Destination accessibility influences choice of travel destination.

In the following section, the operationalisation of pull factors impacting on destination choice will be presented.

4.3.2 The effects of pull forces on destination choice

Figure 4.1 illustrates art, history and culture, atmospheric conditions, events, natural attractions, political issues, economic issues, general infrastructure and tourist infrastructure as attributes influencing choice of destination. These pull forces will now be operationalised.

4.3.2.1 Richness of art, history and culture

Art, history and culture refers to the characteristics of a specific destination or a group of people, defined by language, religion, cuisine, social habits, music, arts and history (Zimmermann, 2012:1). According to Richards (2004:2), art, history and culture have become important attributes that attract tourists to destinations. Ho and Ap (2009:11) state that people are becoming more and more interested in the study of pre- or early history of mankind. Cultural and nationality variances influence the tourists' destination of choice (Mahika, 2011:18). Destinations can attract tourists by providing a wide variety of cultural and heritage attractions (Richards, 2004:2). Tourists actively pursue entertainment during their holiday - even at museums and other cultural sites (Global Insight Inc, 2004:7). Museums house a wide variety of information and include themes that cover art, history, science, technology, and military and natural history (Ho & Ap, 2009:15). According to Ho and Ap (2009:11), sites which are rich in archaeological and historical value can lure tourists from around the world. Raina (2005:77) states that settlement features e.g. towns, cities, villages, historical remains, historic architecture, monuments and archaeological remains can also motivate tourists to visit a destination.

This has led to the following hypothesis:

$H_{2.1}$: Art, history and culture of a country influence choice of travel destination.

4.3.2.2 Atmospheric conditions

Atmospheric conditions refer to the conditions with regard to the state of the atmosphere in terms of temperature, wind, clouds and precipitation (Wordweb, 2013:1). It is a fact that atmospheric conditions and tourism are interlinked in various ways, therefore tour organisers, travel agencies, tourism planners and stakeholders need to be aware of the role weather and climate play in destination choice (Matzarakis, 2006:99). Geographic location, topography, landscape, vegetation, weather and climate are factors that influence the choice of destination (Matzarakis, 2006:99), as most tourists prefer destinations with an ambient environment or a tropical climate (Nèmeth & Mika, 2009:116). Weather can be defined as the condition of the atmosphere at a given place at a given time, while climate is the usual condition of the atmosphere construed from long periods of observation (Gòmez-Martín, 2005:572; Martin, 2005:572). According to Becken (2010:5), tourists prefer destinations with low humidity levels. Weather and climate are perceived as limiting factors within tourism; some regions in the world have very little tourism potential, as their climatic conditions (for example strong winds and a high rain fall) do not allow such opportunities (Tervo, 2007:109). Consequently tourists often visit destinations with a tropical climate (Becken, 2010:5). Tosun (2001:295) argues that environmental pollution has become a problem at popular tourist destinations and that pollution levels at the destination influence the tourist's perception of the destination. Travelling to such climate-stressed locations can result in health problems on the part of the tourist (Matzarakis, 2006:100). A negative attribute of a destination (for example pollution) tends to make some individuals choose not to visit the destination (Tourism Western Australia, 2006:1).

This has led to the following hypothesis:

$H_{2.2}$: Atmospheric conditions influence choice of travel destination.

4.3.2.3 Events

Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2005:11) describe the term event as "constituting specific rituals, presentations, performances or celebrations that are occasionally planned and created to make a special occasion or to achieve particular social, cultural or corporate goals and objectives". Therefore, events are perceived to be a one-time or infrequent occurrence outside normal programmes within the destination (Nassar & Talaat, 2009:147). According to Ho and Ap (2009:17) and Moscardo (2004:15), there are three basic types of events: sports events, arts and culture, and commercial events. The increase in leisure time and disposable income have led to a growth in events, celebrations and entertainment within the tourism industry worldwide; these include national days and celebrations, important civic occasions, unique cultural performances, major sporting fixtures, corporate functions, trade promotions and product launches. (Nassar & Talaat, 2009:145). On a global scale events and festivals with a cultural component are significantly increasing in numbers (Shin, 2009:73). Destination marketers have turned their attention to marketing their destinations as favourable to hosting conferences and attracting business travellers (Nassar & Talaat, 2009:147).

This has led to the following hypothesis:

$H_{2.3}$: Events influence choice of travel destination.

4.3.2.4 Natural attractions

Page (2007:278) defines natural attractions as the features of the physical environment like the landscape, forests including plants and wildlife. Spilsbury (2009:9) states that many tourists travel to see natural attractions. Attractions form the base of sightseeing, since these draw tourists to visit a destination, which can also be referred to as the destination attributes (Chen & Chen, 2011:436; Lubbe, 2005:109). According to Merriam-Webster (2013:1), sightseeing can be defined as travelling devoted to or used for seeing sights. Sightseeing can either be visiting attractions or looking at scenery. Tourism Western Australia (2006:3) states that the following natural attractions attract tourists to destinations: national parks and reserves, waterfalls, lakes, dams and other water catchment areas, beaches, caves, rock formations, scenic lookouts, viewing areas, vistas and areas of impressive natural beauty. According to Raina (2005:77), natural attractions also include wildlife as this also attracts tourists to destinations. Tourists prefer to visit destinations which offer unique sights (Celata, 2013:2).

This had led to the following hypothesis:

$H_{2.4}$: Natural attractions influence choice of travel destination.

4.3.2.5 Political issues

Political issues refer to political instability, wars, coups, outbreaks, labour unrest and epidemics of disease which may leave tourists feeling unsafe in countries where these circumstances prevail. Tourists will not travel to these locations, especially if unsafe circumstances occur regularly (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:319; Saayman, 2000:40). There is no doubt that political instability leads to cancellation and reduced bookings to travel destinations where these circumstance prevail (Chauhan & Khanna, 2009:41). Tourists perceive first world counties safer than developing countries (Saayman, 2000:40).

Chauhan and Khanna (2009:41) state that terrorism and criminal acts affect tourists' safety perceptions of a destination. According to Dwyer and Kim (2003:397), elements of safety include political stability, low crime rates, transportation safety and similarities in laws between host and origin country. Safety and security of tourists is a prerequisite for a thriving tourist destination (Chauhan & Khanna, 2009:41). Sonmez and Graefe (1998:114) concur that when the destination choice is narrowed down to two alternatives which promote similar benefits i.e. one destination which is less costly but unsafe and another more expensive destination which is safe, the safer destination is more likely to be chosen even though it is more expensive. A negative attribute of a destination tends to make some individuals choose not to visit a destination (for example crime) (Tourism Western Australia, 2006:1).

This has led to the following hypothesis:

$H_{2.5}$: Political issues influence choice of travel destination.

4.3.2.6 Economic issues

Economic issues refer to the availability of resources and the distribution thereof, as well as the competitiveness of the tourist destination and its offerings (Dwyer & Spurr, 2011:4). Price competitiveness has always been a vital element in the competitiveness of a destination within the tourism industry (Forsyth & Dwyer, 2009:77). Exchange rates between countries have a certain influence on destination selection and travel purchases (Department of Resources, Energy & Tourism, 2013:1). The increase in the strength of the South African rand in the early months of 2011 made outbound travel more appealing and as a result South Africans travelled extensively to international destinations rather than locally (Euromonitor International, 2012:1).

Due to the economic benefit that tourism offers, governments of many countries have in turn started to impose a wide range of taxes on tourism (Gago, Labandeira, Picos & Rodríguez, 2006:2). However, in many countries the taxes imposed on the tourism sector are increasing the price elasticity of demand, which is not beneficial to the tourism sector as this industry is particularly sensitive to issues related to fiscal incentives and tax competition (Corthay & Loeprick, 2010:1). A reduction in punitive taxation levels can assist the tourism industry in contributing even more towards economic development and fulfilling the demand for international travel to a greater extent (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2013:i). Tourists also tend to visit destinations with retail developments for great shopping opportunities as well as modern banking facilities and destinations perceived to offer good value for money (Moscardo, 2004:17).

This has led to the following hypothesis:
$H_{2.6}$: *Economic issues influence choice of travel destination.*

4.3.2.7 General infrastructure

General infrastructure can be defined as the basic facilities, services, and installations of a country which include: roads, utilities, water, sewage, power lines, and public institutions including schools, post offices, airports and prisons (Farlex, 2013a:1). According to Dwyer and Kim (2003:381-397), the availability of medical services, public transportation and effective waste management systems at the destination play an important role in the destination selection process and how appealing a destination will be for tourists. Public transportation is designed with the aim of assisting people in partaking in activities situated in different geographical locations (El-Geneidy & Levinson, 2006:1). Moscardo (2004:18) and Campbell and Ortíz (2011:42) state that tourists prefer to visit destinations with a well-developed telecommunication- and road infrastructure.

According to the World Economic Forum (2013: xvii), Switzerland and Germany are regarded as countries with the best general infrastructure in the world especially with regard to ground and air infrastructure; Greece is regarded to have very good health and hygiene conditions which in turn attract tourists to these destinations.

This has led to the following hypothesis:

$H_{2.7}$: General infrastructure influences choice of travel destination.

4.3.2.8 Tourist infrastructure

Tourist infrastructure can be defined as the physical components that are created to cater for tourists; it also includes developmental facilities and services that improve the quality of life for both the tourist and the host (Ontario Ministry of Tourism, 2009:iii). A destination's tourist infrastructure can be found in various forms for example: outdoor activities, gambling, nightlife, accommodation, visitor services (especially if English is widely spoken and understood at these) (Global Insight Inc, 2004:7). According to Andriotis and Vaughan (2003:172), the attitude of the local community towards tourists and tourism strongly influences a tourist's perception of a destination. Dwyer and Kim (2003:381) state that services and ancillary services at the destination play an important role in the choice of destination - the more services available at the destination, the more appealing the destination becomes. High levels of quality services and customer satisfaction are the most important determinants with regard to destination competitiveness (Caber, Albayrak & Matzler, 2012:43). Friendly and quality service, food- and accommodation standards are important factors in determining overall tourist satisfaction within a destination (Meng *et al.,* 2008:41). Destinations where existing tourist infrastructure is adequate, or has excess capacity, will have to have continual investment and re-investment in order to meet the changing demands of the consumer (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2011:30).

This has led to the following hypothesis:

$H_{2.8}$: Tourist infrastructure influences choice of travel destination.

In the following section destination choice will be discussed.

4.4 DESTINATION CHOICE

Tourists prefer destinations which have a wide variety of tourist attractions on offer (Campbell & Ortíz, 2011:42). South African tourists tend to travel to destinations relatively close to the source market which will be destinations close to South Africa (McKercher & Lew, 2004:38). Ho and Ap (2009:3) state that well-know landmarks at the destination will lure tourists to such destinations. Destination choice is strongly influenced by the image that the tourist has of a destination, the more favourable the image, the more likely the destination will be selected (Chi & Qu, 2008:626; Lin & Huang, 2008:2517). Tourists tend to select destinations based on their affordability (Moscardo, 2004:17). Some tourists will base their destination choice on the fact that they will not be prosecuted for their beliefs and religion at the destination (Collins-Kreiner, 2010:155). Tourists tend to visit destinations which are regarded as tourist friendly and have strong security measures in place (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:397).

In the following section the inter-relationship between push- and pull forces and their influence on destination choice will be discussed.

4.5 THE INTER-RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUSH- AND PULL FORCES AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON DESTINATION CHOICE

Within Alghamdi's (2007) integrated model of explicit motives, the author states that a relationship exists between push and pull forces. The inter-dependent relationship between push- and pull forces was confirmed by Ali Shan *et al.* (2010:69). Kim and Chalip (2004:695) concur and state that push- and pull forces work together to determine destination choice and therefore an inter-relationship exists.

Individuals partake in travel because they are pushed by motivational factors (needs) into making travel decisions while pull forces (supply) affects the individual's subjective perception, consequent behaviour, and destination choice (Kassean & Gassita, 2013:3; Shin, 2009:33). Prayag and Ryan (2011:122) argue that the push force or motivation (needs) are first realised; thereafter the pull force or destination attribute (supply) will influence the choice of destination.

This has led to the following hypothesis:

$H_{3.1}$: Push forces are affected by pull forces in destination choice.

Tourists are pulled by the destination attributes (supply) of a country (Kanagaraj & Bindu, 2013:113). Individuals can firstly be attracted by destination attributes (supply) in the form of destination marketing, and only then do they realise the need for taking a holiday (Teja, 2013:27).

This has led to the following hypothesis:

$H_{3.2}$: Pull forces are affected by push forces in destination choice.

4.6 SUMMARY

Within this chapter, the hypothetical model for this study on which the questionnaire was based, was presented. The models on which the hypothetical model of this study are based were operationalised. The first set of hypotheses discussed the effects of push forces (needs) on destination choice with reference to physical-, interpersonal-, stature motivators and destination accessibility. Physical motivators are associated with the need for relaxation and resting. Interpersonal motivators are associated with the need of maintaining, prolonging and forging personal relationships. Stature motivators are associated with ego needs and personal development. Destination accessibility refers to the need of visiting a destination which is accessible to tourists.

The second set of hypotheses discussed the effects of pull forces (supply) on destination choice with reference to richness of art, history and culture, atmospheric conditions, events, natural attractions, political issues, economic issues, general- and tourist infrastructure. Pull forces are the attributes of the destination that can either attract or deter a potential tourist from visiting destinations. It was stated that destination selection is strongly influenced by the tourists' perception of a certain destination. The perception the tourist has of a certain destination can be influenced by factors called destination attributes (supply). If unsafe circumstances prevail at a destination, the tourist will perceive such destination as unsafe and will not choose the destination as a possible holiday destination. On the other hand, if a destination is perceived as safe to travel to, a tourist would rather select such a destination.

The inter-relationship between push (needs) and pull forces (supply) within destination choice was also discussed in this chapter. It was stated that a relationship between these two forces does exist. There are several factors involved in selecting a destination that work together simultaneously. Push forces are regarded as the realisation that an individual needs a holiday and that thereafter destination attributes (supply) guide the individual in selecting the destination.

The research design and methodology followed in this study will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

A comprehensive literature review was conducted and discussed in Chapters 2 and 3. The aim was to provide some background on the tourism industry, tourism demand and the push- and pull forces that influence destination choice. Chapter 4 discussed the hypothetical model and the push- and pull forces influencing destination choice. A framework was presented of the three sets of hypotheses formulated and substantiated by secondary sources on the factors that influence destination choice. The first set of hypotheses explored which push factors influence destination choice. The second set of hypotheses investigated which pull factors influence destination choice. The third set of hypotheses explored the inter-relationship between the push- and pull factors.

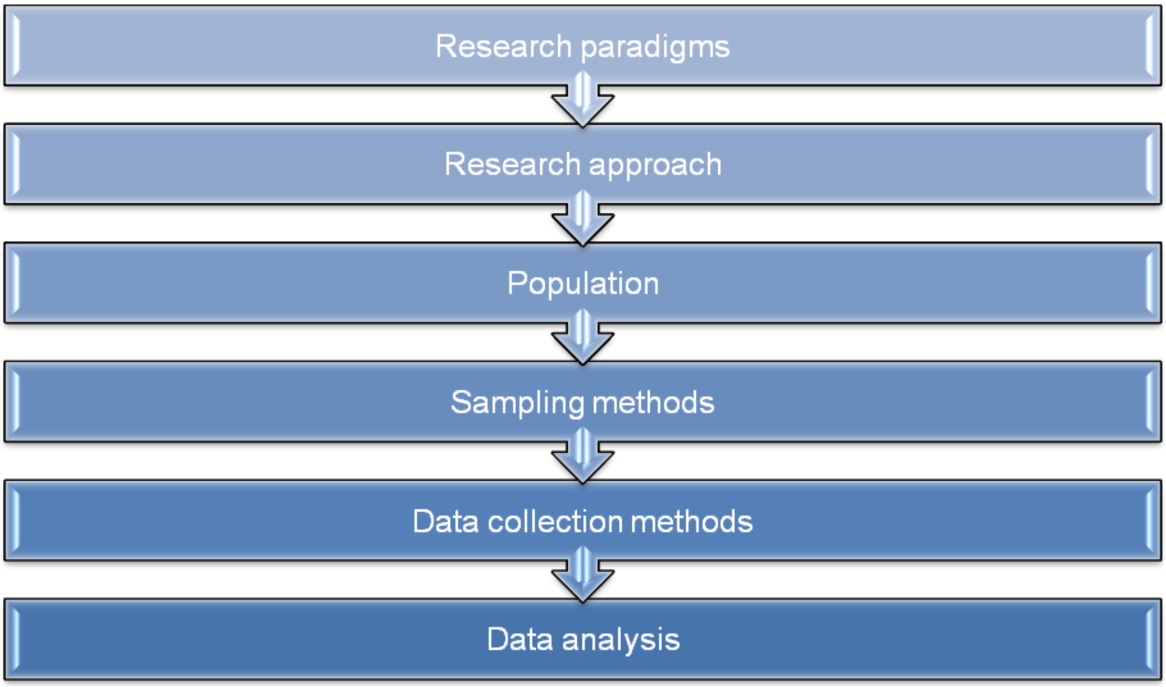
Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:2) define research as a process of obtaining scientific knowledge by means of several impartial methods and procedures. Research in layman's terms, refers to a search for information and knowledge (Kothari, 2004:1). From the definition, it becomes clear that research is not based on personal views but that detailed (impartial) methods are followed at every stage within the research process (Welman *et al*., 2005:2).

This chapter will focus on the research design and methodology that were followed in this study. The chapter aims to justify and clarify the methodology that will be utilised within this study. The research design will be highlighted first, after which the two different research paradigms will be discussed. This chapter will also elaborate on the research approach, population and sampling methods, the data collection methods employed in this study, questionnaire design, data analysis and the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument.

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is a framework or blueprint that is followed for gathering, calculating and examining information on a specific topic (Beri, 2008:51; Kothari, 2004:1). The research process consists of six elements as shown in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: The research process



Source: Adapted from Saunders *et al.* (2009:106); Zikmund *et al.* (2009:15)

Figure 5.1 indicates the different stages the researcher goes through when investigating a research problem. Firstly the appropriate research paradigm which is best suited for the study should be established. Thereafter the research approach should be considered. Then a decision should be made on the appropriate sampling- and data collection methods to be utilised within a study and finally data analysis. Figure 5.1 will be used as a blueprint for this chapter. As indicated in Figure 5.1, research paradigms will be discussed in the following section.

5.3 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

Paradigm is a term regularly used within the social sciences; it is, however, a term that causes confusion as it has multiple meanings (Saunders *et al*., 2009:118). Mugenda and Mugenda (2003:199) define a paradigm as the views of the world and the universe. Saunders *et al*. (2009:118) state that a paradigm can be seen as a way of exploring social phenomena from which a specific understanding can be gained and for which explanations can be attempted. According to Quinlan (2011: 286) and Wood and Welch (2010:56), within research the two main paradigms are:

- A positivistic paradigm, sometimes referred to as quantitative, objective and scientific; and
- A phenomenological paradigm, sometimes referred to as qualitative, subjective and humanistic.

For the purpose of this study the positivistic paradigm will be referred to as quantitative research and the phenomenological paradigm as qualitative research. In the following section the quantitative and qualitative research paradigms will be discussed, and the motivation for the selection of the appropriate method for this study will be given.

5.3.1 Quantitative research paradigm

According to Struwig and Stead (2013:3), the quantitative research paradigm is a method of conclusive research where a large sample is used and the data collection process is fairly structured. The quantitative approach emphasises quantifications in the gathering and analysis of data (Bryman & Bell, 2011:717; Quinlan, 2011:286; Wiid & Diggines, 2009:86). The main objective of quantitative research is to test an idea or concept about the relationship between variables (Struwig & Stead, 2013:4). According to Worrall (2000:354), quantitative research has the ability to make correct predictions and generalise findings about the population. The quantitative research method is used to test pre-determined hypotheses and generalisable results. By means of statistical methods, the outcomes of quantitative analysis can confirm or contest hypotheses (Marshall, 1996:522).

According to Fischler (2013:13) and the University of Southern California (2014:1), the main characteristics of quantitative research are that:

- it permits a broader study that involves numbers that can be generalised;
- the results are objective;
- it allows for generalisations about the phenomenon being studied;
- it puts emphasis on gathering scores that amount to distinct attributes;

- the research can be replicated and compared to similar studies; and
- it allows for evaluation across classes and over time.

The qualitative research paradigm will be discussed next.

5.3.2 Qualitative research paradigm

According to Dezin and Lincoln (1994:4), the term ‘qualitative’ suggests the importance of processes and meanings that are not meticulously scrutinised or measured in terms of quantity, intensity or frequency. Wiid and Diggines (2009:85) state that qualitative research is the understanding of data that cannot be meaningfully quantified in the form of numbers. Joubish, Khurram, Ahmed, Fatima and Haider (2011:2083) concur and add that this approach deals with singularities that are impossible to quantify in a mathematical manner such as “beliefs, meanings, attribute and symbols; it may involve content analysis”. The prime objective of qualitative research is to describe and understand rather than explain human behaviour (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:270; Welman *et al*., 2005:7). The qualitative research method produces data that is almost always texts, narratives or visual images (Tewksbury, 2009:50).

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:270) and Roller (2013:1), the main characteristics of qualitative research are:

- The method is focused on process rather than outcome;
- Its primary aim is in-depth description and understanding;
- It is done to understand social actions in terms of context;
- It allows for generation of new hypotheses and theories; and
- It allows for flexibility in the research design.

In the next section a comparison between quantitative- and qualitative research will be presented.

5.3.3 Quantitative versus qualitative research

Table 5.1 presents a comparison between the quantitative- and qualitative research approach.

Table 5.1: Quantitative versus qualitative research

Dimensions	Quantitative research	Qualitative research
Purpose	Prediction and control as it seeks causes and effects of human behaviour	Understanding as it seeks to understand people's interpretations and perceptions
Reality	Stable as reality is made up of facts that do not change	Dynamic as reality changes with changes in peoples' perceptions
Viewpoint	Outsider - reality is what quantifiable data indicates it to be	Insider - as reality is what people perceive it to be
Values	Value free as values can be controlled by appropriate methodological producers	Value bound as values will have an impact and should be understood and taken into account when conducting and reporting research
Focus	Particularistic as selected, predefined variables are studied	Holistic as complete picture is sought
Theory	Guides by means of theories and prior research	Aims to establish new theory
Structure of research	Research is more structured	Research is more flexible
Data	Objective, precise, reliable and numeric by nature	Subjective with in-depth analysis of the spoken and written word
Coding of data	Data is coded after all the data has been collected	Data coding starts in the field and is done as data is collected
Data analysis	Data analysis takes place after data collection	Data analysis and data collection take place simultaneously
Results	Reliable and valid as the focus is on design and producers to gain replicable findings	Trustworthy as the focus is on design and producers to gain real, rich and in-depth data

Source: Adapted from Mugenda & Mugenda (2003:204); Struwig & Stead (2013:15-17)

Table 5.1 identified the difference between the two research paradigms. One of the biggest differences between the two is that quantitative research is numeric by nature, thus focusing on expressing results in the form of numbers. On the other hand, qualitative research is concerned with an in-depth analysis of the written and spoken word. Quantitative research allows for objectivity on the part of the researcher, where qualitative research is subjective. Quantitative research is structured while qualitative research allows for greater flexibility.

The paradigm chosen for this study will be discussed and motivated in the following section.

5.3.4 Research paradigm chosen for this study

If one considers the comparison between the two methods in Table 5.1, it becomes apparent that the quantitative research method is best suited. This study aims to test relationships between variables. The study is numeric by nature and has undergone statistical analysis. Data analysis was done after data is collected. The study was guided by theories and prior research and concerned with testing hypotheses and not generating theories. The study made use of a large sample so that, to some extent, generalisations could be made about the population in question. These will provide insight to tour operators and travel agents within the NMBM with regard to preferred travel destinations, and would assist tour operators and travel agents in marketing and compiling tours to destinations to where the residents wish to travel.

As indicated in Figure 5.1, once the appropriate research paradigm has been established for the study, the research approach should be considered next. In the following section the research approach adopted for this study will be discussed.

5.4 RESEARCH APPROACH

Three research approaches exist, namely, exploratory, descriptive and causal research (Aaker *et al*., 2007:79; Babbie & Mouton, 2001:79). These different approaches will be discussed in more detail in the following sections.

5.4.1 Exploratory research approach

According to Zikmund *et al.* (2009:54), exploratory research is concerned with clarifying ambiguous problems or gaining better understanding of a problem. Exploratory research is conducted when insight is needed into a problem, and the variables that need to be considered (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:79). Wiid and Diggines (2009:55) provide the following objectives of exploratory research:

- to acquire new insight into a phenomenon;
- to serve as a preliminary survey before a more structured study of the phenomena is conducted;

- to explain central perceptions;
- to determine priorities for further research; and
- to develop new hypotheses about an existing phenomenon.

Descriptive research will be discussed in the next section.

5.4.2 Descriptive research approach

Descriptive research as the term implies is concerned with describing the characteristics of a given population (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:55). In descriptive research, hypotheses often do exist but they are tentative and speculative (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:80). Descriptive research is based on previous understanding of the phenomena (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:55). Descriptive research aims to answer the who, what and when questions (Coldcrest & Herbst, 2004:9). Descriptive research hardly needs an elaborate theoretical framework but clear definitions of the concepts involved are essential (Veal, 2005:51). There are two methods used in descriptive research (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:56), namely:

- longitudinal study; and
- cross-sectional study.

Longitudinal study is a study that is conducted over an extended period of time and the benefit of a longitudinal study is that researchers is able to spot changes in the sample as they develop (Coldcrest & Herbst, 2004:9). A cross-sectional study involves collecting information only once from the sample population (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:56). The causal research approach will be discussed next.

5.4.3 Causal research approach

According to Zikmund *et al.* (2009:56), causal research is conducted to identify a cause-and-effect relationship between variables. Coldcrest and Herbst (2004:11) state that this type of research is termed causal as it aims to demonstrate that a change in one variable has a predicable effect on another variable. When it is necessary to show that one variable causes or determines the value of another variable, a casual research approach must be taken.

In the following section the research approach chosen for this study will be discussed and motivated.

5.4.4 Research approach chosen for this study

For the purpose of this study, both exploratory- and descriptive research have been utilised. The study is descriptive as it describes the pull- and push forces impacting on destination choice. The research is also exploratory as it aims to acquire insight into and to develop an understanding of which push- and pull forces impact on destination choice. The population and sample for this study will be discussed in the following section.

5.5 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

A population can either be a body of people or a collection of items (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:193). Zikmund *et al.* (2009:369) concur and add that it is a group of entities that shares a common set of characteristics. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003:9-10) stress that the researcher should define the population for which the results will be generalised. For this study, the population will be the residents of the Nelson Mandela Bay Metropole.

A sampling frame can be defined as a complete list from which the sample should be drawn (Kothari, 2004:153; Saunders *et al.,* 2007:208). The sampling frame is a physical representation of the target population (Herek, 2012:1). There will be instances where the population and sample frame will be identical and these are when the population is finite (Kothari, 2004:153), as is the case with this study. It is regarded impossible to study an entire population and for that reason the next step is to sample the population (Taylor, 2014a:1).

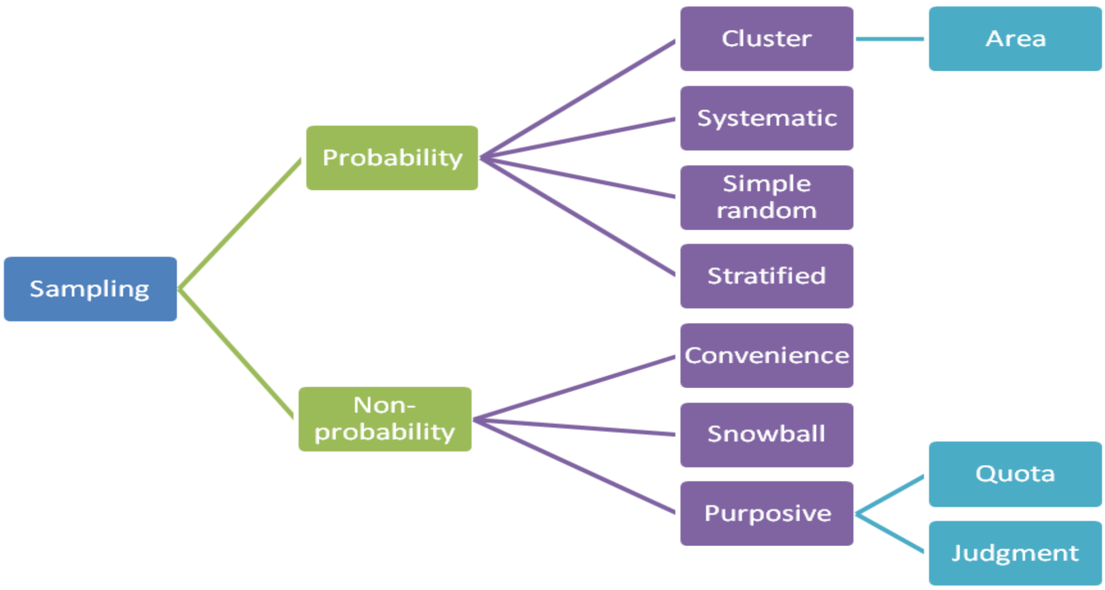
A sample in research is regarded as a subset of a larger population (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:741). Mugenda and Mugenda (2003:10) define a sample as a procedure of selecting an adequate number of people from the population so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its characteristics would make it possible to generalise such characteristics to the entire population. Collis and Hussey (2003:155) state that selecting a sample forms a fundamental part of a quantitative or positivistic study. The sample of this study will only include residents of the Nelson

Mandela Bay Metropole who are older than eighteen years, in possession of a senior certificate and who have travelled abroad at least once.

The database of the Nelson Mandela Bay Tourism in Port Elizabeth was utilised to reach respondents. Travel agents within the Nelson Mandela Bay Metropole were contacted to enquire if the questionnaire could be distributed amongst walk-in clients. They were, however, not accommodating and only employees within these organisations completed the questionnaire. The questionnaire was also distributed amongst friends and family of the researcher, who in turn, also distributed the questionaire amongst friends, family and colleagues for completion.

There are two main types of sampling techniques, namely, probability- and non-probability sampling (Coldcrest & Herbst, 2004:79) as illustrated in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: Sampling techniques



Source: Adapted from Coldcrest & Herbst (2004:81); Zikmund (2003:379-389)

Figure 5.2 clearly indicates the different sampling techniques available. In the following sections these different sampling techniques will be discussed, starting with probability sampling.

5.5.1 Probability sampling

With probability sampling, the chance or probability of each case being selected from the population is known and equal for all cases. Probability sampling is associated with survey and experimental research strategies (Saunders *et al.,* 2009:213). An advantage of probability sampling is that, if the sample frame is complete and samples adequate, it will be unbiased and representative of the population (Coldcrest & Herbst, 2004:79). Random selection is a postulation of the probability system and the ability to draw extrapolations from samples to populations (Davidson, 2013:1). Probability sampling employs methods such as simple random-, systematic-, stratified and cluster sampling (Kothari, 2004:60).

5.5.1.1 Simple random sampling

Simple random sampling procedures assure that every person within a population has an equal chance of being included within a sample (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:384). Within this method, a random sample is selected from a list representing the population (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:388). Simple random sampling is also referred to as chance sampling as the individual is chosen entirely by chance (Kothari, 2004:15).

5.5.1.2 Systematic sampling

With systematic sampling the data bases of respondents are available from which the sample can be selected in a systematic manner, for example every fourth person will be included in the sample (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:205). There is an element of randomness to this method as the starting point is usually selected at random and then selection will be systematic thereafter (Kothari, 2004:15). This method is extremely useful when the sample frame is available in the form of a list (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:221).

5.5.1.3 Stratified sampling

Stratified sampling is adopted from random sampling where the researcher divides the population into two or more divisions based on one or more attribute (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:219). If the population from which a sample is taken, does not institute a homogeneous group, the stratified sampling method is usually applied in order to gain a representative sample (Kothari, 2004:62). Stratified sampling is used to ensure that the sample will exactly reflect the population on the basis used for stratification (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:400).

5.5.1.4 Cluster sampling

Cluster sampling comprises of grouping the population which is done by choosing groups to form clusters rather than individual elements (Kothari, 2004:16). Cluster sampling is employed when the primary sample unit is not an individual element but an inordinate cluster of elements. Cluster sampling is frequently used when the sample population is not available in the form of a list. (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:401). An area sample can be defined as a cluster sample in which the primary sampling unit is a geographic area (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler, 2008:246). Area sampling is especially helpful where the list of the population is not available to the researcher (Kothari, 2004:16).

Non-probability sampling will be discussed in the following section.

5.5.2 Non-probability sampling

Within non-probability sampling, the probability of each case being selected from the total population is unknown (Saunders *et al.,* 2009:213). Non-probability sampling is typically used in circumstances such as (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:393):

- Exploratory stages of research;
- Pretesting a questionnaire; and
- Dealing with a homogeneous population.

According to Wiid and Diggines (2009:205), non-probability sampling is the most convenient sampling technique as it is faster to implement in practice. This has led to the popularity of non-probability sampling especially in market research. Non-probability sampling employs methods such as convenience-, snowball-, and purposive sampling (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:393), which are discussed in the following section.

5.5.2.1 Convenience sampling

Convenience sampling is the method utilised to obtain units of people most convenient to the researcher (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:650). Aaker *et al.* (2007:393) provide the following examples of convenience sampling units: a church group, a classroom of students, people at a shopping centre and friends or neighbours. In this type of sampling, information is gathered relatively quickly and inexpensively (Blumberg *et al.,* 2008:252; Coldcrest & Herbst, 2004:81).

5.5.2.2 Snowball sampling

Snowball sampling may be defined as a method for gathering respondents by identifying an initial respondent who is used to provide names of other respondents who share the same desired characteristic and who can partake in the research; these respondents may also be able to provide further respondents sharing the same characteristic to partake (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:394; Wiid & Diggines, 2009:200-201). Snowball sampling is used when members of the population with the desired characteristics needed for the study, are difficult to locate. Snowball sampling refers to the process of gathering information on more respondents who can be sampled (Babbie, 2012:191).

5.5.2.3 Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling is a method used when the researcher wants the respondents to meet certain criteria that he or she wants to study. There are two types of purposive sampling, namely, judgment- and quota sampling. (Coldcrest & Herbst, 2004:79).

(a) Judgment sampling

Judgment sampling refers to the method whereby the researcher selects based on his or her judgment members from the population, so that the sample can serve a specific purpose (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:396). The method enables the researcher to use his or her judgment when selecting respondents to answer the research questions and to meet the objectives of the research (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:230).

(b) Quota sampling

Quota sampling refers to a technique of selecting respondents where the population is usually first segmented into different sub-groups (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:397). This method is based on the principle that the sample will represent the population as the variability in the sample is the same as that of the population (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:228). Respondents are selected for the sample based on pre-specified characteristics (Babbie, 2012:192; Crossman, 2014:1).

The sampling technique adopted in this study will be discussed in the following section.

5.5.3 Sampling technique adopted in this study

The sampling method that was used in this research was a combination of convenience- and snowball sampling. An advantage of convenience sampling is that a large number of completed questionnaires can be gathered quickly and economically (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:383). Snowball sampling was utilised to identify respondents who share the characteristics needed for the study. The respondents should have had certain characteristics to be included in the sample (older than eighteen years, in possession of a senior certificate and having travelled abroad at least once). The rationale for the respondents to be eighteen years and older, was to ensure maturity; according to South African law an individual is considered a major when he/she reaches eighteen years. The respondents had to be in possession of a senior certificate so that the respondents have a sufficient level of education to understand the questionnaire and supply relevant answers. Respondents should have travelled at least once abroad so as to ensure that actual outbound tourists are sampled. As all respondents had to complete the demographical section of the questionnaire, it allowed the researcher to confirm that the above-mentioned criteria were met.

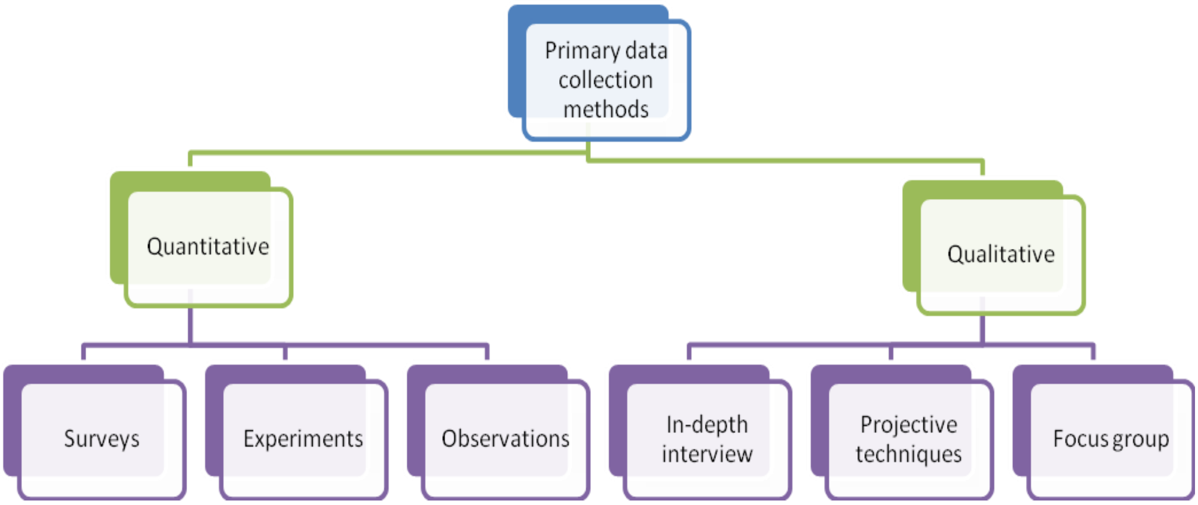
The sample size for this study had to be about 325 respondents for exploratory factor analysis (13 factors x 5-point rating scale x 5 items per factor). The questionnaire was distributed in three different ways. Firstly the questionnaire was distributed by making use of the Nelson Mandela Bay Tourism (NMBT) database (e-mail sent out by the NMBT). The respondents were given the criteria (older than eighteen years, in possession of a senior certificate and having travelled abroad at least once) and requested to return the questionnaires to a specific e-mail address that the researcher had created (the demographical data could verify these requirements). Secondly, the researcher approached travel agents within the NMBM so as to survey walk-in clients. The travel agents did not want the researcher to disturb their clients. Some employees of the travel agents volunteered to complete the questionnaire. Lastly, the researcher identified friends and family, who met the criteria, to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed via e-mail to the identified individuals for completion. In turn these individuals distributed the questionnaire amongst friends and colleagues for completion.

The data collection methods available to the research will be discussed in the following section.

5.6 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Data collection is the most significant part of any research as the wrong data collection method can influence the results of the research and eventually lead to the results being invalid (University of Wisconsin, 2014:1). Data can be divided into primary and secondary data (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:34). Secondary data is also referred to as historical data and has formerly been collected for some other task or research, whereas primary data is concerned with collecting data for the first time for a task at hand (Zikmund, 2003:63). Thus secondary data is information already available whereas primary data is new data. The following are examples of secondary data: journal- and magazine articles, news reports, encyclopaedias and textbooks. Primary data can be collected by using several methods such as pilot studies, focus groups, experiments and surveys (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:84). Figure 5.3 illustrates the different primary data collection methods.

Figure 5.3: Primary data collection methods



Source: Adapted from Cant, Gerber-Nel, Nel & Kotze (2005:88)

Figure 5.3 identified surveys, experiments and observations as quantitative methods for collecting primary data. Since it has already been established that this study follows the quantitative approach, only those primary data collections methods identified as following the quantitative research paradigm within Figure 5.3 will be discussed next.

5.6.1 Surveys

A survey involves collecting data from the selected sample via verbal or written communication (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:106). Mugenda and Mugenda (2003:165) regard a survey as a self-report study which needs the collection of quantifiable information from the sample. Surveys measure variables by asking questions which can then be used to examine relationships among the variables (Coldcrest & Herbst, 2004:47). According to Zikmund (2003:66), surveys are the most common method used to obtain primary data. Survey research is important as it (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003:165):

- obtains information that describes existing singularities by evaluating respondents' perceptions, attitudes, behaviour or values;
- explains or explores the current status of two or more variables at a given point in time;

- gathers original data for the purpose of describing a population which is too large to observe directly; and
- gauges the characteristics of large populations.

Blumberg *et al.* (2008:278) state that the greatest strength of surveys as a primary data approach is its versatility. The researcher can employ the surveys in different ways to contact the sample. Surveys can be subdivided into personal interviews, telephone interviews, postal surveys and web-based surveys (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:106). Questionnaire surveys involve gathering information from the sample by means of structured questions called a questionnaire or interview schedule (Veal, 2005:143). The most common form of surveys is a questionnaire (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:106). A questionnaire is a research data collecting instrument which requires individuals to respond to the same set of questions (Buckingham & Saunders, 2004:294; Gray, 2004:187). The second method of data collection available to the researcher is called experiments, which will be discussed next.

5.6.2 Experiments

Experiments are perceived to be the process of investigating the truth of a statistical hypothesis, relating to some research problem (Kothari, 2004:35). According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003:165), experiments involve manipulation of independent variables to govern their effect on a dependent variable. Thus experiments are used to evaluate the causal relationship between variables (Zikmund, 2003:257). According to Saunders *et al.* (2007:136), an experiment typically involves the following:

- The definition of a theoretical hypothesis;
- The selection of samples of individuals from known populations;
- Random allocation of samples to different experimental conditions, the experimental group and the control group;
- The introduction of planned intervention or manipulation of the variables;
- Measurement on a small number of dependent variables; and
- Control of all other variables.

Experiments are mostly used in exploratory research to answer ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:136). The third method of data collection available to the researcher is called observation which will be discussed in the following section.

5.6.3 Observations

Wiid and Diggines (2009:106) define observations as an orderly process of recording the behavioural patterns of people, objects and events without questioning or interacting with them. The main purpose of observation is to accurately gather information on how a programme functions, predominantly with regard to the process (Coldcrest & Herbst, 2004:47). Zikmund (2003:235) concurs that observation becomes a tool for scientific inquiry when it:

- serves a framed research purpose;
- is planned methodically;
- is recorded methodically and linked to general propositions rather than being presented as reflecting a set of curiosities; and
- is exposed to checks or controls on validity and reliability.

Veal (2005:110) states that the observation method is the only technique that can be employed to research unlawful activity that people may be unwilling to talk about as in other methods.

The three data collection methods available to the researcher have been discussed. The data collection method adopted in this study will be indicated in the following section.

5.6.4 Data collection method chosen

For the purpose of this study, the survey method, with the use of a structured questionnaire, seems to be the most appropriate data collection method as this study aims to find quantifiable data that can be generalised to the population by evaluating the respondents’ perceptions, attitudes and behaviour. The population of this study is too large to observe directly. The variables in this study cannot be manipulated to examine its effect on a dependent variable.

This study utilised the survey method in the form of an e-mail survey. The questionnaire was distributed by making use of the Nelson Mandela Bay Tourism (NMBT) database (e-mail sent out by the NMBT), friends, family and referrals.

In secondary data collection various forms of printed material were utilised; including academic journals, published books, previous and related research about the topic through databases such as EBSCOhost and academic search engines such as Google Scholar. This study thus adopted the survey method with the use of a structured self-administered questionnaire.

The following section will discuss the questionnaire design.

5.7 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

The design of a questionnaire plays a vital role in research as it will have an influence on whether the research problem is solved or not (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:172). The design of each question should be determined by the data the researcher needs to collect (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:366). Veal (2005:152) cautions that when designing a questionnaire, the researcher should do it slowly and carefully and keep in mind why the research is being done. According to Wiid and Diggines (2009:172), when designing the questionnaire the researcher must consider the following:

- Is the question necessary;
- Are several questions needed instead of one;
- Have respondents the information that is required;
- Does the question falls within the respondent’s field of expertise;
- Will respondents find it difficult to answer the question; and
- Will the respondent be prepared to provide the required information.

Within questionnaires the researcher can make use of structured (close-ended) or unstructured (open-ended) questions. Structured questions refer to the type of questions which are accompanied by a list of all possible alternatives from which the respondent selects the answer that best describes or matches them. Unstructured questions give the respondents total freedom in their answer. (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003:165). Close-ended questions will suit this study in its attempt to obtain factual data. Close-ended questions are also easier to analyse when conducting quantitative research. Close-ended questions can be classified according to measurement scales. Collis and Hussey (2003:161) distinguish between the different measurement scales that are utilised to record and describe quantitative data, namely nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio. The differences between these measurement scales are illustrated in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Measurement scales

Scale	Description	Example	Data analysis method
Nominal	Data is categorised into diverse categories where the values are not in order	Gender, language and religion	• Descriptive statistics
Ordinal	Data is categorised into diverse categories where the values are in order	Class rankings and economic class	• Median and mode • Rank order correlation • Non-parametric analysis of variance
Interval	The values represent real numbers	Statements	• Mean and standard deviation • Correlations • Regression • Analysis of variance • Factor analysis
Ratio	The values retain a fixed zero point	Kelvin Scale relating to with monetary value	• Mean and standard deviation • Correlations • Regression • Analysis of variance • Factor analysis

Source: Adapted from Collis & Hussey (2003:161); Monash University (2005:1); Osherson & Lane (2014:1)

Table 5.2 represents a summary of different measurement scales. The table identifies the measurement scale, provides an explanation of the scale, gives possible examples of each, and the data analysis method most commonly used for each scale.

As previously stated, this study utilised a structured self-administered questionnaire as the research instrument. The structured questionnaire explored the push- and pull forces that drive the Nelson Mandela Bay Metro (NMBM) residents to travel to international destinations. The structured questionnaire (Appendix A) consists of the following six sections:

- Section A canvasses demographic data of the respondents using a nominal scale;
- Section B investigates information regarding countries visited and the purpose of the visit by means of a nominal scale;
- Section C determines travel constraints and travel booking preferences by using a five point Likert scale varying from strongly agree to strongly disagree;
- Section D explores which pull factors influence destination choice by using a five point Likert scale varying from strongly agree to strongly disagree;
- Section E explores which push factors influence destination choice by using a five point Likert scale varying from strongly agree to strongly disagree.
- Section F determines destination preferences by using a five point Likert scale varying from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

In section A, nominal- and ordinal scales were utilised to gather demographic data of the respondents. In section B, three nominal scales were utilised to gather data to determine if the respondents travel mostly for leisure- or business purposes to determine the most visited international destination, and to establish the demand for future travel destinations. Sections C to F utilised 5-point Likert scales to measure the respondent's perceptions towards carefully constructed statements based on the literature chapters of this study obtained from the secondary data.

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003:75), the most commonly used scale in a questionnaire is the Likert scale. A Likert scale is defined as a measure to examine the attitude of the respondents by allowing them to indicate how strongly they agree or disagree with a statement, with the options ranging from very positive to very negative (Zikmund, 2003:312). The Likert scale has the benefit of not ascertaining a simple yes or no answer from the respondent, but allows for degrees of opinion, and even no opinion at all. Consequently quantitative data is obtained, which means that the data can be analysed with relative ease (McLeod, 2008:1). When research involves an analysis of the implicit assumptions relating to outbound tourism, it is regarded as suitable to utilise a five-point measurement scale (Alghamdi, 2007:148).

The 5-point Likert scale utilised in this study ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The questionnaire used within this study was compiled by the researcher and not based on an existing questionnaire.

The design of the questionnaire was discussed in this section. Before the questionnaire was distributed to the sample, the questionnaire was firstly pre-tested using a pilot study.

5.7.1 Pilot study

Prior to administrating the questionnaire for data collection, it should be pilot tested. The goal of the pilot study is to improve the questionnaire so that when the questionnaire is administered, the respondents will have no problems answering the questions and the data recording process will be flawless. (Collis & Hussey, 2003:175; Saunders *et al*., 2007:386). According to Welman *et al.* (2005:148), the purpose of a pilot study is to:

- give the researcher the opportunity to test whether the respondents understood the questions and to ascertain the relevancy of the questions;
- identify any flaws in the questionnaire; and
- pre-test the validity and reliability of the questionnaire.

For the purpose of this study a pilot study was conducted of 30 respondents to determine the initial validity and reliability measures of the measuring instrument. Validity and reliability of the measuring instrument will be discussed in detail later in this chapter. Both face- and content validity were used within the questionnaire.

To verify the internal consistency of the items in the research instrument, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for the pilot study (George & Mallery, 2003:231). The results of the pilot study are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Cronbach's alpha values of the pilot study

Variable	Cronbach's alpha
Physical motivators	0.846
Interpersonal motivators	0.835
Stature motivators	0.839
Destination accessibility	0.844
Richness of art, history and culture	0.872
Atmospheric conditions	0.822
Events	0.850
Natural attractions	0.843
Political issues	0.822
Economic issues	0.833
General infrastructure	0.820
Tourist infrastructure	0.824
Destination choice	0.827

Table 5.3 presents the Cronbach's alpha values for the pilot study. All the items had coefficients of 0.8 and above which is regarded as good (as per Table 5.4 in section 5.9.2). Therefore no changes were made to the original questionnaire as initial internal consistency of the research instrument was proven.

Once the questionnaire is designed and pilot tested and amendments have been made and the sample selected the questionnaire can be used for collecting data (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:387).

5.7.2 Response rate of data collection

The cut-off date for the submission of the questionnaires was 27 June 2014. A total of 380 questionnaires were distributed and 302 useable questionnaires were returned. Most responses were obtained from snowball sampling; therefore the response rate was 80%.

The information and data obtained from the questionnaire had to undergo statistical analysis. Data analysis will be discussed in the following section.

5.8 DATA ANALYSIS

De Vos (2002:339) and Ritchie and Lewis (2003:277) describe data analysis as the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to all the information gathered by the investigator and presenting it in an understandable manner. Data analysis is conducted to detect constant patterns within data (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2004:137).

The first step in data analysis, after data preparation, is to analyse and measure the questions so as to get statistics (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:439). According to Zikmund *et al.* (2009:402), statistics has two applications, firstly to describe characteristics of a population or sample (descriptive statistics) and to generalise from the sample to the population (inferential statistics). Sekaran (2007:301) indicates that data analysis can be done with the following software programmes namely SPSS, SAS, STATPAK, SYS-TAT, EXCEL and STATISTICA. The data was firstly transferred to an Excel spreadsheet, thereafter the data was administrated to the software programme. For the purpose of this study, a statistical computer package, named STATISTICA 12 (2014), was utilised to analyse the data.

The questionnaire utilised in this study made use of nominal-, ordinal- and interval scales. Table 5.2 identified the data analysis methods utilised for these scales. This study utilised descriptive statistics, correlations, regression, Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) which will be discussed in the following sections.

5.8.1 Descriptive statistics

Zikmund (2003:736) defines descriptive statistics as a method of defining or recapitulating information regarding the population or sample. Descriptive statistics is usually connected to frequency distribution that summarises the information into frequency tables (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:438). Wiid and Diggines (2009:242) concur and add that descriptive statistics is also associated with percentages and the measurement of central tendencies. Percentages within research reveal the importance of variables within the study and show the relative relationships between variables (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:242). A measure of central tendency is used to reduce a series of data into a single figure or average (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:440). According to Wiid and Diggines (2009:243), there are several ways of measuring central tendencies, however, only the following four are commonly used:

- The mode refers to a value that appears most frequently in the series of data;
- The median refers to the middle value that appears between the highest and lowest point;

- The arithmetic mean refers to the total sum of all the values which is divided by the number of values; and
- Standard deviation is a measurement of variability, calculating the spread of the data set and the affiliation of the mean to the rest of the data. If the data points are close to the mean, signifying that the responses are fairly similar, then the standard deviation will be small. On the other hand, if many data points are far from the mean, signifying that there is a wide variance in the responses, then the standard deviation will be large. If all the data values are the same, then the standard deviation will be zero (AGA Institute, 2014:1).

The results were presented in the form of percentages, frequency, means and standard deviation.

Another form of data analysis, available to the researcher, is the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient; this method will be discussed next.

5.8.2 Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient

This method deals with the simultaneous incidence between variables; the method is designed to provide information regarding the degree of association between variables (Wiid & Diggens, 2009:248). If the aim is to measure the relationship between two sets of variables, a correlation coefficient (or "r") should be used (Coldcrest & Herbst, 2004:106). The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient measures a linear relationship between two variables (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:509).

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient enables the researcher to measure the strength of the linear relationship between two tiered or calculable variables (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:450). This coefficient (typically denoted as "r") can take on any value between - 1 and + 1 (Taylor, 2014b:1). A value of + 1 embodies a perfect positive correlation whereas a value of - 1 denotes a perfect negative correlation, while a 0-value means the variables are perfectly independent (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:450).

For the purpose of this study the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to measure the relationship between the push- and pull forces impacting destination choice. According to Cozy and Bates (2012:248), the strength of the correlation relationship is guided by the following measures:

- Strong relationship $r > 0.7$;
- Fairly strong relationship $0.5 < r < 0.69$;
- Average relationship $0.3 < r < 0.49$;
- Weak relationship $0.1 < r < 0.29$; and
- Slight relationship $r < 0.09$.

The results of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient were analysed according to these measures. These measures are important as they will indicate how strong the relationships are and between which variables they exist. The relationships will be discussed according to the strength of the relationship that exists. Multiple regression will be discussed in the following section.

5.8.3 Multiple regression

Multiple regression is a method of data analysis that is considered appropriate whenever a quantitative variable is to be examined in relationship to other variables (Princeton University, 2007:1). The purpose of multiple regression is to gain knowledge about the relationship among several independent- or dependent variables (Kothari, 2004:130). For the purpose of this study, multiple regression was be used to determine which independent variable (push- and pull forces) has a significant relationship with the dependent variable (destination choice). Regression analysis was utilised to determine which of the hypotheses are supported or rejected based on the findings of the questionnaire. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003:142), when a t-value of a factor is less than 1.96 at a significance level of 0.05 or less than 3.09 at a significance level of 0.001, the null hypothesis is rejected. The results of the multiple regression analysis was based on these measures.

For the researcher to ascertain which of the demographic variables influence destination choice, the researcher made use of Analysis of Variances (ANOVAs), a method which will be discussed in the following section.

5.8.4 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistical analysis that examines significant variances between means (Veal, 2005:268). ANOVAs are utilised to examine general rather than specific differences between means (Lane, 2014:1). ANOVAs detect the inconsistency in the data between the different factors. Depending on the type of analysis, it might be important to ascertain which factors have a noteworthy effect on the response, and/or how much of the variability in the response variable is attributable to each factor (StatPoint, 2006:1). For the purpose of this study, ANOVAs will be calculated to identify which demographic factors predict push- and pull forces. A significant F- value in an ANOVA-analysis is only an indication that not all the population means are the same. It does not indicate which means are different from the other means. As a result, ANOVAs more often than not raise more questions than answers (Howell, 2012:370).

To overcome this limitation of ANOVAs a Post-hoc Scheffè test was completed to identify where the significant differences occurred between the different categories (Lund Research, 2013:4). Once it has been established that differences exist among the means, the Post-hoc Scheffè test can determine which means differ. Cohen's d-values were also calculated in order to assess the practical significance of the mean scores (Cohen, 1988:59; Walker, 2008:1). If $0.2 < d < 0.5$, it can be considered a 'small' effect size; $0.5 < d < 0.8$ represents an average effect size and $d > 0.8$ represents a large effect size (Cohen, 1988:59; Walker, 2008:1). Moreover, if two categories means do not differ by 0.2 standard deviations or more, the difference is inconsequential, even if it is statistically significant (Walker, 2008:1). By conducting the Post-hoc Scheffè test and Cohen's d with ANOVAs, it enables the researcher to establish the relationship between variables and to comment on where these relationships are and how strong they are and whether the relationships have practical significance.

The last method of data analysis that will be discussed is factor analysis.

5.8.5 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a statistical analysis used to distinguish the underlying proportions of singularities (Zikmund, 2003:737). It is used to streamline sets of data by reducing the number of variables to a smaller more manageable number of factors that still maintain most of the original data (Crouch & Housden, 2003:238). According to Zikmund *et al.* (2009:593), factor analysis can be sub-divided into the following:

- Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), which is utilised when the researcher is not certain about how many factors might exist among the sets of variables; and
- Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which is utilised when the researcher has grounded theoretical expectations of the factor structure before the analysis is performed.

This study was utilised EFA to identify the push- and pull factors impacting on destination choice, as the researcher was not certain about how many factors might exist among the sets of variables as a new measuring instrument was developed. The main function of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is to combine the interdependent variables so that the researcher may select fewer variables for further analysis (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:249). EFA provides construct validity of the measuring instrument used for the research (Williams, Brown & Onsman, 2010:2). This will be achieved by factor loadings which specify how strongly associated the measured variable is to the factors investigated (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:594). This will lead to a process where certain variables will be retained while others are discarded (Hayton, Allen & Scarpello, 2004:193). According to Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (2006:113), the minimum factor loading that can be retained is 0.30. Loadings of 0.40 are considered more valid. This study adopted a cut-off point at 0.4 factor loadings. All variables that load with a factor loading of less than 0.4 will be deleted. However, should a variable load with a factor loading of 0.4 or higher and that same variable loaded onto a different factor (cross-loading), that variable was disregarded (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:594).

The reliability and validity of the measuring instrument will be discussed in the following section.

5.9 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

Saunders *et al*. (2007:149) emphasise that attention must be focused on validity and reliability of the measuring instrument in order to reduce the likelihood of getting incorrect answers to research questions. Reliability gauges the consistency of measures whereas validity is the degree to which the understandings of the results of a test are warranted (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008:2278).

5.9.1 Validity of the measuring instrument

Validity of the questionnaire tests how well the measuring instrument actually measures the specific concept that it was intended to measure; it is concerned with whether or not the right concept is being measured (Sekaran, 2007:206). The fundamental issue relating to validity is ensuring that the research instrument measures what it is intended to measure in an unbiased manner (Collis & Hussey, 2003:58). There are various types of validity; namely face-, content-, criterion- and construct validity (Zikmund, 2003:302-303). Each type of validity will be discussed next.

5.9.1.1 Face validity

Face validity indicates the extent to which the items indeed measure the proposed concept (Cherry, 2012:1; Sekaran, 2007:206). The measurement of face validity is often depended on the knowledge and expertise of people who are accustomed to the construct being measured, and these experts are provided access to the measuring instrument and are asked to supply feedback on the questions and how well the construct in question is being measured (Clause, 2014:1; Sekaran, 2007: 204). Face validity is raised when the measurement instrument self-evidently reflects or embodies the phenomena (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:307). Face validity is the degree to which a test is intuitively observed as covering the concept it implies to measure. It denotes the transparency or significance of a test or measuring instrument (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:78). Thus, a test can be viewed to have face validity if it looks as if it is going to examine what it was supposed to measure (Holden, 2010:638).

5.9.1.2 Content validity

Content validity can be defined as the degree to which an instrument has a suitable sample of items for the phenomena being examined (Polit & Beck, 2004:423; Waltz, Strickland & Lenz, 2005:155; Wynd, Schmidt & Schaefer, 2003:509). Content validity is associated with face validity, but varies widely in how it is assessed (Shuttleworth, 2014a:1). Content validity ensures that the measure includes an adequate and representative set of items that tap into the concept (Sekaran, 2007:206). Content validity is usually ensured if the items in the measuring instrument are based on literature available on the concept (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:308).

5.9.1.3 Criterion validity

Criterion validity can be defined as the degree to which a measurement can correctly forecast specific variables (Shuttleworth, 2014a:1). A measure is said to have criterion related validity when the measure has demonstrated its efficacy in forecasting indicators of a construct (Cherry, 2012:1). Criterion validity is useful when examining concepts that are intended to improve the ability to make predictions (Cozby & Bates, 2012:103). When assessing criterion related validity, the researcher will be comparing the data from the survey with that specified in the criterion and this is usually done by means of statistical analysis such as correlation (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:367).

5.9.1.4 Construct validity

Construct validity can be defined as the experimental demonstration that a measuring instrument is measuring the phenomena that it claims to be measuring (Cozby & Bates, 2012:101). Construct validity is a measure of the degree to which data attained from the instrument meaningfully and accurately represents a theoretical concept (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003:100; Saunders *et al.,* 2007:376). Zikmund *et al*. (2009:303) concur that construct validity is established through the statistical analysis of data. EFA is used to determine construct validity of the measuring instrument (Williams *et al.,* 2010:2). This involves a process where certain variables will be retained while others are discarded (Hayton *et al.,* 2004:193). Factors that do not have a factor loading of 0.4 and above were deleted. Only factors that loaded above 0.4 were considered valid.

Construct validity can be sub-divided into convergent- and discriminant validity (Shuttleworth, 2014b:1; Trochim, 2006:1). Convergent validity can be regarded as an attitude measure which tests if the constructs that are supposed to be related, are in fact, related (Shuttleworth, 2014b1). Constructs can however converge with other variables which are related to a different construct in the form of cross loadings (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:307). With regard to discriminant validity the researcher needs to show that measures that should not be related are actually not related (Trochim, 2006:1). Discriminant validity is the extent to which the measure being used will give scores and these scores should not be related to the scores attained from an unrelated measure, for example cross loadings within EFAs (Aaker *et al.,* 2007:308).

5.9.1.5 Types of validity used

Face-, content- and construct validity were confirmed in this study. Face validity was ensured by having two experts in the field assessing the measuring instrument. They were asked to give feedback regarding the construction of the items as well as the general layout. Content validity was ensured as all the items in the questionnaire were based on literature. Initial face- and content validity were confirmed within the pilot study. Construct validity was utilised to ensure that the intended construct is measured rather than irrelevant constructs. All items not loading 0.4 and above were deleted in the EFA. All variables that cross-loaded were disregarded. This ensured the validity of the results.

The reliability of the questionnaire will be discussed in the following section.

5.9.2 Reliability of the questionnaire

According to Zikmund (2003:300), reliability is the degree to which the measures are free from error therefore producing dependable results. One of the most commonly used reliability measures is the Cronbach's alpha coefficent (Gliem & Gliem, 2003:83). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient is a reasonable indicator of the internal consistency of instruments using scales such as rating or Likert scales (George & Mallery, 2003:231). Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated to assess internal consistency of the scale items. According to George and Mallery (2003:50), a generally acknowledged rule of thumb for describing internal consistency is presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Cronbach's alpha coefficients criteria

Cronbach's alpha	Internal consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.9 > \alpha \geq 0.8$	Very Good
$0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$	Good
$0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$	Acceptable
$0.6 > \alpha \geq 0.5$	Poor
$0.5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable

Source: Adapted from George & Mallery (2003:50)

Table 5.4 indicates the Cronbach alpha coefficients criteria. For this study, the Cronbach's alpha cut-off point was 0.6. George and Mallery (2003:50) state that a Cronbach's alpha of 0.6 and higher is considered acceptable. Individual items below the 0.6 cut-off point were deleted to improve the reliability of the instrument. It should be noted that the reliability of an instrument is closely related to validity. The measuring instrument cannot be valid unless it is reliable. (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:53).

5.10 SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to discuss the research methodology that was followed in this study. Firstly the two main research paradigms were discussed; a motivation was given as to which one of the paradigms would suit this study better. The research approach was thereafter discussed, and reasons were given as to which approach would assist this study best. The population and sampling methods were discussed in the form of probability- and non-probability sampling. Under probability sampling methods such as simple random sampling, systematic-, stratified- and area sampling were discussed. With regard to non-probability sampling, convenience-, snowball-, and purposive sampling were referred to. The rationale for choosing the appropriate sampling method was also given. The population for this study was identified, and the conditions for determining the sample size were provided.

The primary and secondary data collection methods were elaborated on, as both these methods were utilised in this study. The various forms of primary data collection methods were discussed and the rationale for choosing the appropriate method for this study was given. The research instrument was evaluated by considering the questionnaire design, measuring scale and the pilot study. The administration of the questionnaire used for this study was also highlighted. The different data analysis procedures which were used in this study, were discussed and the motivation given as to why they are deemed appropriate. Reliability and validity of the measuring instrument were elaborated on and the reason for choosing the types used in this study was proved. The next chapter will present the results of the primary data collection of this study.

CHAPTER 6
EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the research design and methodology adopted in this study were discussed. Firstly, the research design was discussed as being the blue print for the study and the two different research paradigms were referred to. Reference was made to the research approach, population, sampling methods, data collection methods, questionnaire design, data analysis and the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument.

This chapter will present and discuss the results obtained from the empirical research conducted on 302 of the residents of the Nelson Mandela Bay Metropole who are older than eighteen years of age, in possession of a senior certificate and have travelled abroad at least once. The findings will be presented in tables and figures and discussions provided for these.

The findings include demographic data of the respondents, findings regarding the purpose of travel, destinations visited and next destination intended to be visited. Findings regarding travel constraints and booking preferences will thereafter be presented. This will be followed by indicating the validity and reliability of the research instrument developed to measure the independent and dependent variables. Thereafter the findings of the Pearson product moment correlation coefficients and multiple regression calculations will be discussed to indicate which relationships exist between the independent- and dependent variables. Finally the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) and T-tests will be discussed to indicate if statistical and/or practical significant relationships exist between the demographic variables and the independent variables. The chapter will be concluded with a summary.

6.2 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

The demographic section will report on each of the questions listed under Section A of the questionnaire (Appendix A). Table 6.1 represents the demographic information of the 302 respondents.

Table 6.1: Demographic information of respondents

Variable	Levels	Percentage
Gender	Male	45
	Female	55
Age group	18 – 25	9
	26 – 35	29
	36 – 45	26
	46 – 55	21
	56 – 65	11
	66 +	4
Race	Asian	2
	Black	12
	Coloured	6
	Indian	5
	White	75
Language	Afrikaans	41
	English	46
	Xhosa	10
	Zulu	2
	Sotho	1
Work status	Full-time employed	75
	Part-time employed	2
	Self-employed	15
	Retired	3
	Student	4
	Unemployed	1
Employment sector	Mining	1
	Construction	6
	Manufacturing	13
	Wholesale Trade	5
	Retail Trade	9
	Transportation and Warehousing	2
	Information Technology	5
	Finance and Insurance	13
	Real Estate, Rental and Leasing	3
	Education Services	12
	Health Care and Social Assistance	3
	Arts, Entertainment and Recreation	6
	Accommodation and Food Services	2
	Public Administration	3
	Unemployed (including students and retired)	8
	Agriculture	2
	Marketing, Sales and Advertising	1
	Legal	1
	Other	5
Position in organisation	Business owner	15
	Management	25

Variable	Levels	Percentage
	Employee	52
	Unemployed (including retirees and students)	8
Income per month	Less than R10 000	15
	R10 001 – R20 000	23
	R20 001 – R30 000	17
	R30 001 – R40 000	11
	R40 001 – R50 000	9
	R50 001 – R60 000	7
	R60 001 +	8
	Not willing to disclose	10
Work experience	None	4
	Less than 1 year	3
	1 – 3	5
	4 – 6	11
	7 – 9	13
	10 – 12	12
	13 +	52
Level of education	Grade 12	16
	Certificate	12
	Diploma	29
	Degree	19
	Post Graduate Degree/Diploma	24
Marital status	Unmarried	25
	Married	51
	Divorced	10
	Widowed	5
	Living together	9
Number of children	None	36
	1	19
	2	31
	3	12
	4	2

From Table 6.1 it is evident that most of the respondents were female (55%). The most dominant group with regard to age was between the ages of 26 to 35 years (29%), followed by the age group 36 to 45 years (26%). Few respondents older than 66 years (4%) were surveyed. Based on these results, it seems as if respondents between the ages of 26 and 45 years might travel more internationally than other age groups. With regard to race, it is evident that most of the respondents were white (75%). English (46%) and Afrikaans (41%) were by far the two most dominant languages.

It is evident, from Table 6.1, that 75% of the respondents are employed on a full-time basis, while 15% indicated that they are self-employed. From Table 6.1 it is evident that 13% of the respondents are employed in the finance and insurance sector, and manufacturing sector respectively, while 12% indicated the education service sector.

More than half of the respondents in the sample (52%) are ordinary employees, while 25% of respondents are managers. Some respondents (10%) indicated that they are not willing to disclose their income, while 23% of the respondents indicated that they earn between R10 001 and R 20 000 per month.

Just over half of the respondents have more than thirteen years working experience (52%). The results indicate that only 3% of the respondents has been employed for less than one year, and that 4% of the respondents has no work experience. Over a quarter of the respondents are in possession of a diploma (29%) and 24% of the respondents have a post graduate qualification.

Just over half of the respondents are married (51%), with 25% being unmarried, 10% divorced and 5% widowed. Over a third of the respondents indicated that they have no children (36%), while 31% of the respondents have two children.

In the following section the findings regarding the purpose of visit and countries visited will be presented.

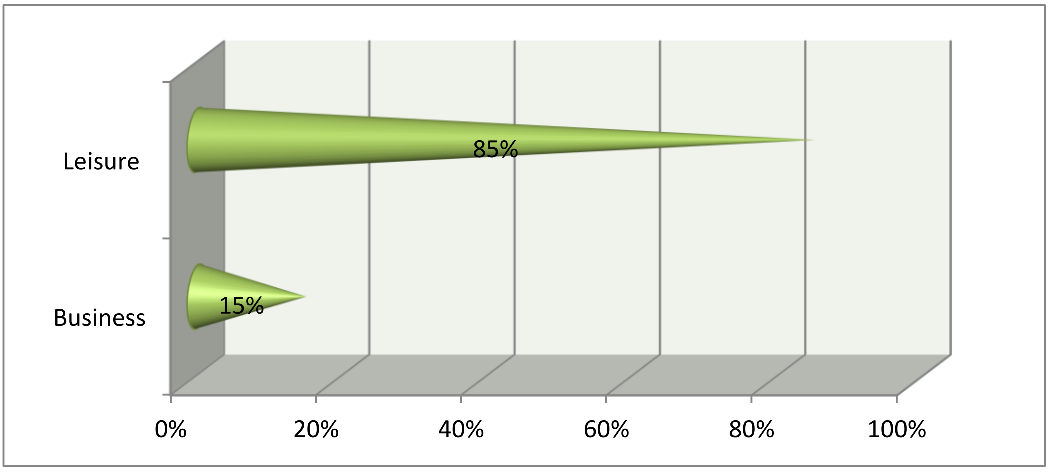
6.3 FINDINGS REGARDING PURPOSE OF VISIT AND COUNTRIES VISITED

This section will report on each of the questions listed under Section B of the questionnaire (Appendix A).

6.3.1 Purpose of visit

Figure 6.1 presents the findings regarding the purpose of the respondents' international visits.

Figure 6.1: Purpose of international visit



It is evident, from Figure 6.1 that the majority of the respondents travel for the purpose of leisure (85%). Only 15% of the respondents indicated that they travel for business purposes.

6.3.2 International destinations visited

Table 6.2 presents the findings regarding international destinations visited by the respondents. The respondents were instructed to indicate all the international destinations visited. Therefore, no percentages will be indicated - only the frequency per destination as indicated by the respondents. The respondents could also indicate if they visited a destination for both leisure- and business purposes.

Table 6.2: International destinations visited

Destination visited	Purpose of visit			
	Leisure	Business	Both	Total
United Kingdom	115	6	32	**153**
Mauritius	79	3	4	**86**
France	77	3	2	**82**
Germany	69	8	5	**82**
Italy	76	1	1	**78**
United States of America	49	7	13	**69**
The Netherlands	56	2	2	**60**
Belgium	51	1	2	**54**
Switzerland	46	2	1	**49**

Destination visited	Purpose of visit			
	Leisure	Business	Both	Total
China	28	13	6	**47**
Greece	41	4	2	**47**
Turkey	35	7	3	**45**
Spain	37	4	3	**44**
Thailand	42	1	1	**44**
Malaysia	35	8	0	**43**
Austria	37	4	0	**41**
Botswana	39	0	1	**40**
Namibia	33	0	1	**34**
Zimbabwe	28	3	2	**33**
Australia	23	7	2	**32**
Mozambique	29	0	3	**32**
Canada	20	2	3	**25**
India	11	9	2	**22**
Zambia	20	1	1	**22**
United Arab Emirates	13	5	1	**19**
Mexico	13	1	1	**15**
Swaziland	14	0	1	**15**
Sweden	13	1	0	**14**
Lesotho	13	0	1	**14**
Ireland	14	0	0	**14**
Portugal	12	1	0	**13**
Singapore	10	0	1	**11**
Malawi	9	0	2	**11**
Seychelles	8	1	2	**11**
Indonesia	10	1	0	**11**
Egypt	11	0	0	**11**
Argentina	10	0	0	**10**
Zanzibar	10	0	0	**10**
New Zealand	6	0	1	**7**
Brazil	7	0	0	**7**
Cambodia	5	1	0	**6**
Russian Federation	3	1	1	**5**
Croatia	4	0	0	**4**
Oman	4	0	0	**4**
Hungary	3	1	0	**4**
Israel	4	0	0	**4**
Maldives	4	0	0	**4**
Nepal	4	0	0	**4**

Destination visited	Purpose of visit			
	Leisure	Business	Both	Total
Malta	3	0	0	**3**
Peru	3	0	0	**3**
Bulgaria	2	1	0	**3**
Czech Republic	3	0	0	**3**
Jordan	3	0	0	**3**
Kenya	2	1	0	**3**
Algeria	2	0	0	**2**
Sudan	2	0	0	**2**
Morocco	2	0	0	**2**
Uganda	0	0	1	**1**
Vietnam	0	1	0	**1**

Other countries such as Chile, New Guinea, Paraguay, Luxembourg, Caribbean Island, Qatar, Tanzania, Somalia, Syria, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Libya, Prague, Japan, Cyprus, Norway, Ethiopia, Comoros Islands, Madagascar, Uruguay and Taiwan were indicated by one respondent each as countries visited for leisure. From Table 6.2 it is evident that United Kingdom is by far the most visited destination for both leisure- and business purposes (153), followed by Mauritius (86). France and Germany share the third position (82) followed by Italy (78) and the United States of America (69).

It is interesting to note that China (13) was the most visited destination for business purposes, followed by India (9). This could possibly be due to the fact that India has the fastest growing economy in the world after China (Danisewicz, 2013:1). According to the Global Business Travel Association (2013:1), China could possibly become the top business travel destination globally by early 2015 if its economic growth rate continues. The United Kingdom is also by far the most visited destination for leisure purposes (115).

In the following section the destinations the respondents still want to visit will be presented.

6.3.3 International destinations intended to be visited

Table 6.3 presents the findings regarding the next international destination respondents intend to visit.

Table 6.3: International destinations intended to be visited

Destination visited	Purpose of visit			
	Leisure	Business	Both	Total
United States of America	37	5	3	**45**
Mauritius	28	0	0	**28**
France	23	0	0	**23**
United Kingdom	18	2	0	**20**
Italy	19	0	0	**19**
Australia	16	0	0	**16**
Turkey	13	0	0	**13**
Spain	11	1	0	**12**
China	10	1	0	**11**
Germany	10	0	1	**11**
Russian Federation	10	0	0	**10**
Greece	10	0	0	**10**
Mexico	9	0	0	**9**
The Netherlands	9	0	0	**9**
Switzerland	9	0	0	**9**
Canada	8	0	0	**8**
Thailand	8	0	0	**8**
Malaysia	4	0	1	**5**
Brazil	4	0	0	**4**
Portugal	4	0	0	**4**
Sweden	3	0	0	**3**
Israel	3	0	0	**3**
Egypt	2	1	0	**3**
New Zealand	1	0	1	**2**
Botswana	2	0	0	**2**
Vietnam	2	0	0	**2**
Kenya	2	0	0	**2**
Singapore	0	1	0	**1**

Other countries that respondents consider to visit for leisure are Peru, Malawi, Austria, Belgium, Jordan, Argentina, Zimbabwe, Cambodia, Japan and Mozambique (one respondent each). It is evident from Table 6.3 that the United States of America is the most popular country to visit next for both business travel (five respondents) as well as leisure travel (37 respondents). Other popular countries intended to be visited for leisure purposes are Mauritius (28 respondents), France (23 respondents), The United Kingdom (18 respondents) and Italy (19 respondents). Two respondents also intend visiting The United Kingdom for business purposes.

In the following section the results regarding travel constraints and booking preferences will be presented.

6.4 FINDINGS REGARDING TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS AND BOOKING PREFERENCES

This section will report on each of the questions listed under Section C of the questionnaire (Appendix A). This section of the questionnaire dealt with two questions; the first question was to ascertain the major travel constraints of the respondents and the second question dealt with the individual's method of booking holidays. Table 6.4 presents the findings regarding the travel constraints experienced by the respondents.

Table 6.4: Travel constraints

Travel constraints	Evaluation in percentage						
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Standard deviation
Financial	59	24	12	3	2	4.3	0.9
Number of leave days available	22	31	26	12	9	3.4	1.2
Work pressure	18	29	27	16	10	3.3	1.2
Fear of the unknown	3	3	16	24	54	1.8	1.0
A disability	3	4	8	19	66	1.5	0.9
Inconvenience of obtaining travel documents	12	15	26	19	28	2.6	1.3

Table 6.4 represents the overall results regarding travel constraints. With regard to financial constraints, the mean for this variable was 4.3 which indicates that on average respondents (83%) agree that financial constraints do influence their ability to travel. The standard deviation for this variable was relatively low (0.9), which indicates that the responses are fairly similar. Number of leave days available (26%)

and work pressure (27%) yielded almost identical results and had a mean of 3.4 and 3.3 respectively. This indicates that, on average, respondents have neutral feelings regarding these constraints. The standard deviations of these two variables were both 1.2; indicating that the responses were fairly similar. Fear of the unknown and having a disability (means 1.8 and 1.5 respectively), were not considered as constraints for travelling overseas and had low standard deviations (1.0 and 0.9) indicating low variances in responses. As seen from Table 6.4, the constraint inconvenience of obtaining travel documents had a mean of 2.6 which tends towards neutral. However, 47% of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. The standard deviation was 1.3 which indicates responses were fairly similar. Based on all these results only financial constraints were really considered by the respondents as a severe constraint for travelling abroad, as 83% of the respondents were in agreement.

Table 6.5 presents the findings regarding the channel of booking for international holidays preferred by the respondents of this study.

Table 6.5: Preferred channel of booking for international holidays

Booking channels	Evaluation in percentage						
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean	Standard deviation
Local travel agent as they can answer my questions face to face	26	26	25	10	13	3.4	1.2
International travel agents as they provide better travel deals	9	23	39	22	7	3.1	1.2
Myself online as it provides flexibility within my travel arrangements	30	28	24	13	5	3.7	1.1

Table 6.5 represents the overall results regarding the respondents' preferred channel of booking for international holidays. Local travel agents and international travel agents had an average mean of 3.4 and 3.1 respectively, indicating that the respondents were neutral about using these channels for booking international holidays. Both variables had a standard deviation of 1.2; indicating that the responses were fairly similar. However, it must be noted that respondents agreed or

strongly agreed (52%) that they book their international travel with local travel agents as the can answer questions face-to-face. Respondents' booking online for international holidays had a mean of 3.7 which tended towards the agreement (4) side of the scale. The low standard deviation (1.1) indicates not much variation from the mean responses. Fifty-eight percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that online booking is their preferred booking channel as it allows for flexibility. This is supported by a study conducted by the travel company, Travelstart (2014:3), which indicates that 62% of the respondents make use of online bookings, while 36% books via airlines and only 2% still make use of travel agents for travel arrangements.

In the following section the results of the validity analysis will be presented.

6.5 RESULTS OF VALIDITY ANALYSIS

This study made use of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to determine the construct validity of the measuring instrument. According to Van Voorhis and Morgan (2007:49), a sample size of 300 is considered good for EFA as the minimum requirement to yield a reliable solution is 150. The items with factor loadings greater than 0.4 and those that loaded onto one factor were considered significant. Any item that loaded onto more than one factor (cross-loadings) was deleted. All factors should have had at least three retained items, as a factor with fewer than three items is generally regarded as weak and unstable (Costello & Osborne, 2005:5). The validity analysis of the push forces will be presented first.

6.5.1 Validity analysis: Push forces

Four factors emerged from the EFA that was conducted. The resulting factor structure that emerged; namely physical-, interpersonal- and stature motivators and destination accessibility are depicted in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6: Exploratory factor matrix structure for push forces

Item no	PM	IM	SM	DA
D 1	0.305			
D 2	0.765			
D 3	0.786			
D 4	-0.081			
D 5	0.529			
D 6	0.530			
D 7		0.495		
D 8		-0.495		
D 9		**0.458**	**0.438**	
D 10		0.320		
D 11		0.658		
D 12			0.618	
D 13		0.534		
D 14		0.734		
D 15		0.727		
D 16			0.778	
D 17			0.786	
D 18			0.404	
D 19				0.640
D 20				0.660
D 21				0.672
D 22				0.607
D 23				0.809
D 24				0.613

Key: PM = Physical motivators; IM = Interpersonal motivators; SM = Stature motivators; DA = Destination accessibility

An interpretation of the results of the EFA will follow.

6.5.1.1 Factor 1: Physical motivators

Seven items (D1 to D7) were developed to measure the variable, physical motivators. Item D7 loaded onto the factor interpersonal motivators. Table 6.6 indicates that items D2, D3, D5, and D6 loaded above the 0.4 cut-off point. Items D1 and D4 had factor loadings below the cut-off point of 0.4. A total of four items were thus retained in this construct. From Table 6.6 it can be observed that factor loadings ranging from 0.529 to 0.786 were reported. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided.

6.5.1.2 Factor 2: Interpersonal motivators

Five items (D8 to D12) were developed to measure the variable, interpersonal motivators. Item D8, which has a negative factor loading, will be eliminated from further analysis (Costello & Osborne, 2005:6). Item D9 cross-loaded onto the construct stature motivators and the item will be disregarded from further analysis. Table 6.6 indicates that item D10 had a factor loading of below 0.4 and will be disregarded from further analysis. Item D11 were retained as the factor loading was above the cut-off point of 0.4. Item D7, that was originally intended to measure physical motivators, also loaded onto this factor. Tasting new and exotic food can be regarded as an interpersonal motivator, according to the definition, as one wants to get away from the mundane day-to-day life. Items D13, D14 and D15, that were originally intended to measure stature motivators, also loaded onto this factor. Broadening experiences by means of hobbies, learning and expanding knowledge and experiencing the way of life of other cultures can be regarded as an interpersonal motivator as these activities put distance between the individual and mundane life. A total of five items were thus retained in this construct. From table 6.6 it can be observed that factor loadings ranging from 0.495 to 0.734 were reported. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided.

6.5.1.3 Factor 3: Stature motivators

Six items (D13 to D18) were developed to measure the variable, stature motivators. Items D13 to D15 loaded onto the interpersonal motivator factor. Table 6.6 indicates that items D16, D17 and D18 loaded above the cut-off point of 0.4. Item D12, that was originally intended to measure interpersonal motivators, also loaded onto this factor. People met on social media can be regarded as a stature motivator as it is concerned with the need for recognition and attention from others. A total of four items were thus retained in this construct. From Table 6.6 it can be observed that factor loadings ranging from 0.404 to 0.786 were reported. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided.

6.5.1.4 Factor 4: Destination accessibility

Six items (D19 to D24) were developed to measure the variable, destination accessibility. Table 6.6 indicates that all six items, that were supposed to measure this factor, loaded onto this factor with factor loadings above the cut-off point of 0.4. From Table 6.6 it can be observed that factor loadings ranging from 0.607 to 0.809 were reported. Therefore, a total of six items were retained in this construct. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided.

There was evidence of convergent validity within factors one and four (push forces) as no items cross-loaded. Four push factors were thus retained for further analysis.

In the section to follow, the validity analysis of the pull forces will be presented.

6.5.2 Validity analysis: Pull forces

Eight factors emerged from the EFA that was conducted. The resulting factor structure that emerged; namely richness of art, history and culture; atmospheric conditions; events; natural attractions; political issues; economic issues; general infrastructure and tourist infrastructure are depicted in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7 shows the exploratory factor analysis for pull forces.

Table 6.7: Exploratory factor matrix structure for pull forces

Item no	RAHC	AC	E	NA	PI	EI	GI	TI
E 1	0.579							
E 2	0.540							
E 3	0.789							
E 4	0.818							
E 5	0.788							
E 6	0.739							
E 7		0.421						
E 8		0.591						
E 9		**0.511**			**0.504**			
E 10		0.708						
E 11		0.639						
E 12			**0.496**			**0.413**		
E 13			**0.425**			**0.458**		
E 14			0.800					
E 15			0.869					
E 16			0.829					
E 17				0.662				
E 18				0.839				
E 19				0.757				
E 20				0.773				
E 21				0.433				
E 22					0.751			
E 23					0.774			
E 24					0.649			
E 25					**0.503**		**0.574**	
E 26					**0.450**		**0.437**	
E 27					0.569			
E 28					**0.455**		**0.521**	
E 29							0.494	
E 30							**0.484**	**0.430**
E 31							0.739	
E 32							0.745	
E 33							0.623	
E 34					**0.436**		**0.559**	
E 35					**0.425**		**0.633**	
E 36							0.784	
E 37							0.829	
E 38							0759	
E 39							0.362	
E 40							0.670	
E 41							0.765	
E 42							0.676	
E 43								0.694
E 44								0.772
E 45								0.025

Key: RAHC - Richness of art, history and culture; AC - Atmospheric conditions; E – Events; NA – Natural attractions; PI - Political issues; EI - Economic issues; GI - General infrastructure; TI - Tourist infrastructure.

An interpretation of the results of the exploratory factor analysis will follow.

6.5.2.1 Factor 1: Richness of art, history and culture

Six items (E1 to E6) were developed to measure the variable, richness of art, history and culture. As can be seen from Table 6.7 all six items, that were supposed to measure this factor loaded onto this factor and have factor loadings above the 0.4 cut off-point. From Table 6.7 it can be observed that factor loadings ranging from 0.540 to 0.818 were reported. Therefore, a total of six items were retained in this construct. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided.

6.5.2.2 Factor 2: Atmospheric conditions

Five items (E7 to E11) were developed to measure the variable, atmospheric conditions. Table 6.7 indicates that all five items, intended to measure this factor, loaded onto this factor with factor loadings above the 0.4 cut-off point. Item E9 cross-loaded onto the construct political issues and the item will thus be disregarded from further statistical analysis. Therefore, a total of four items were retained in this construct. From Table 6.7 it can be observed that factor loadings ranging from 0.421 to 0.708 were reported. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided.

6.5.2.3 Factor 3: Events

Five items (E12 to E16) were developed to measure the variable, events. Table 6.7 indicates that all five items, intended to measure this factor, loaded onto this factor with factor loadings above the 0.4 cut-off point. Items E12 and E13 cross-loaded on the factor economic issues and will be disregarded in further statistical analysis. Therefore, a total of three items were retained in this construct. From Table 6.7 it can be observed that factor loadings ranging from 0.800 to 0.869 were reported. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided.

6.5.2.4 Factor 4: Natural attractions

Five items (E17 to E21) were developed to measure the variable, natural attractions. All five items, that were supposed to measure this factor, loaded onto this factor and had factor loadings above the 0.4 cut-off point. From Table 6.7 it can be observed that factor loadings ranging from 0.433 to 0.839 were reported. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided.

6.5.2.5 Factor 5: Political issues

Five items (E22 to E26) were developed to measure the variable, political issues. However, items E25 and E26 cross-loaded onto the construct general infrastructure and will be disregarded from further analysis. Table 6.7 indicates that items E22, E23 and E24, that were intended to measure this factor, loaded onto this factor with factor loadings of above the 0.4 cut-off point. Item E27, that was originally intended to measure the construct economic issues, also loaded onto this factor. A favourable exchange rate can easily be regarded as a political issue as political governance influences exchange rates. Items E9, E28, E34 and E35, that loaded onto this factor, had cross-loadings so these will be disregarded in further analysis. A total of four items were thus retained in this construct. From Table 6.7 it can be observed that factor loadings ranging from 0.569 to 0.774 were reported. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided.

6.5.2.6 Factor 6: Economic issues

Five items (E27 to E31) were developed to measure the variable, economic issues. Table 6.7 indicates that none of the intended items, that were supposed to measure this factor, loaded onto this factor. Two factors (E12 and E13) loaded onto this factor that was originally intended to measure the construct events. However, these items cross-loaded and the items will be disregarded in further statistical analysis. Therefore, no items are retained and there is thus no evidence of validity for this construct. This factor will be disregarded in further statistical analysis.

6.5.2.7 Factor 7: General infrastructure

Seven items (E32 to E38) were developed to measure the variable, general infrastructure. Table 6.7 indicates that all seven items, that were intended to measure this factor, loaded with factor loadings above the 0.4 cut-off point. Items E25, E26, E28, E30, E34 and E35 were cross-loadings and will be disregarded in further statistical analysis. Items E29 and E31 also loaded onto this factor that was originally intended to measure the construct economic issues. Good value for money (E29) and modern banking facilities providing easy access to money (E31) can be regarded as general infrastructure as infrastructure refers to basic facilities and services of a country. Items E39, E40, E41 and E42 that were intended to measure tourist infrastructure also loaded onto this factor but item E39 had a factor loading of below 0.4 and is regarded as invalid. Items E40, E41 and E42 refer to tourism infrastructure such as good quality accommodation, high food standards and the fact that English is widely understood. Respondents seem not to distinguish between general and tourism infrastructure. From Table 6.7 it can be observed that factor loadings ranging from 0.494 to 0.829 were reported. A total of ten items were retained in this construct. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided.

6.5.3.8 Factor 8: Tourist infrastructure

Seven items (E39 to E45) were developed to measure the variable, tourism infrastructure. Table 6.7 indicates that only two of the intended items (E43 and E44) that were supposed to measure this factor had factor loadings above the cut-off point of 0.4. Item E45 had a factor loading of below the cut-off point of 0.4. Item E30 has a cross-loading and will be disregarded as an item measuring this factor. Therefore only two valid items remain. As a minimum of three items need to be retained for a factor to be regarded as a valid factor (Costello & Osborne, 2005:5), there is not sufficient evidence of validity for this construct and it will be disregarded in further statistical analysis.

There was evidence of convergent validity in Factor 1 and 4 within pull forces. A total of six factors were retained for further analysis.

In the section to follow, the validity analysis of destination choice will be presented.

6.5.3 Validity analysis of the dependent variable

Table 6.8 presents the exploratory factor analysis for destination choice.

Table 6.8: Exploratory factor matrix structure for destination choice

Item no	Destination choice
F1	0.599
F2	0.572
F3	0.641
F4	0.760
F5	0.594
F6	0.664
F7	0.798

Seven items (F1 to F7) were developed to measure the dependent variable, destination choice. All of the intended seven items, that were supposed to measure this factor, loaded above the 0.4 cut-off point. From Table 6.8 it can be observed that factor loadings ranging from 0.572 to 0.798 were reported. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided. Therefore a total of seven items were retained in this construct.

The following section will present the reliability analysis of the results.

6.6 RESULTS OF RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

According to Wiid and Diggines (2009:7), reliability refers to research that will yield the same results if the research is repeated. Aaker *et al.* (2007:308) state that reliability indicates how consistent results are over time. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to test the reliability and internal consistency of the measuring instrument for this study. Cronbach's alpha coefficients above 0.6 were regarded as acceptable for this study. George and Mallery (2003:50) state that a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.6 and higher is considered acceptable.

In the following sections the reliability analysis for push forces will be presented followed by the reliability analysis of pull forces and destination choice.

6.6.1 Reliability analysis: Push forces

This section will present the reliability analysis for all the factors associated with push forces.

6.6.1.1 Factor 1: Physical motivators

Table 6.9 depicts the reliability analysis for the factor physical motivators.

Table 6.9: Reliability analysis for physical motivators

% of variance explained: 33.12%		Cronbach's alpha: 0.659		
Items	**I travel to...**	**Factor loadings**	**Item correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha after deletion**
D2	Relax physically	0.765	0.499	0.535
D3	Relax emotionally	0.786	0.512	0.501
D5	Find peace and tranquility	0.529	0.369	0.603
D6	Escape from work related stress	0.530	0.344	0.638

As can be seen from Table 6.9, the factor physical motivators, returned a Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.659. Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus provided as this study adopted a 0.6 cut-off point. The factor physical motivators explain 33.12% of the variance in the data.

6.6.1.2 Factor 2: Interpersonal motivators

Table 6.10 depicts the reliability analysis for the factor, interpersonal motivators.

Table 6.10: Reliability analysis for interpersonal motivators

% of variance explained: 30.92%		Cronbach's alpha: 0.688		
Items	**I travel to…**	**Factor loadings**	**Item correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha after deletion**
D7	Taste new and exotic food	0.495	0.345	0.665
D11	Get to know the local people	0.658	0.448	0.619
D13	Broaden my experience in my hobbies	0.534	0.434	0.630
D14	Learn and expand my knowledge	0.734	0.508	0.604
D15	Experience the way of life of other cultures	0.727	0.460	0.616

As can be seen from Table 6.10, the factor interpersonal motivators, returned a Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.688. Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus provided as this study adopted a 0.6 cut-off point. The factor interpersonal motivators explain 30.92% of the variance in the data.

6.6.1.3 Factor 3: Stature motivators

Table 6.11 depicts the reliability analysis for the factor, stature motivators.

Table 6.11: Reliability analysis for stature motivators

% of variance explained: 37.21%		Cronbach's alpha: 0.681		
Items	**I travel to…**	**Factor loadings**	**Item correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha after deletion**
D12	Personally connect with people I met on social media	0.618	0.335	0.704
D16	Impress friends and family	0.778	0.669	0.482
D17	Improve my social status	0.786	0.640	0.503
D18	Visit sought-after destinations	0.404	0.277	0.734

As can be seen from Table 6.11, the factor stature motivators, returned a Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.681. Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus provided as this study adopted a 0.6 cut-off point. The factor stature motivators explain 37.21 % of the variance in the data.

6.6.1.4 Factor 4: Destination accessibility

Table 6.12 depicts the reliability analysis for the factor destination accessibility.

Table 6.12: Reliability analysis for destination accessibility

% of variance explained: 35.88%		**Cronbach's alpha: 0.767**		
Items	**I travel to…**	**Factor loadings**	**Item correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha after deletion**
D19	Destinations which require a short travel time	0.640	0.511	0.732
D20	Where there are few or no visa requirements	0.660	0.516	0.730
D21	Destinations with a lot of attractions in close vicinity of each other	0.672	0.510	0.731
D22	Countries without travel warnings	0.607	0.426	0.754
D23	Destinations which does not require vaccinations to enter	0.809	0.666	0.688
D24	Countries which will not put strain on my current state of health	0.613	0.436	0.751

As can be seen from Table 6.12, the factor destination accessibility, returned a Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.767. Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus provided as this study adopted a 0.6 cut-off point. The factor destination accessibility explains 35.88% of the variance in the data.

In the section to follow the reliability analysis for pull forces will be presented.

6.6.2 Reliability analysis: Pull forces

This section will present the reliability analysis of all the factors associated with pull forces.

6.6.2.1 Factor 1: Richness of art, history and culture

Table 6.13 depicts the reliability analysis for the factor, richness of art, history and culture.

Table 6.13: Reliability analysis for richness of art, history and culture

% of variance explained: 44.88%		Cronbach's alpha: 0.825		
Items	**I travel to destinations…**	**Factor loadings**	**Item correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha after deletion**
E1	With many cultural attractions	0.579	0.465	0.821
E2	Rich in military history	0.540	0.446	0.829
E3	With a variety of heritage attractions	0.789	0.696	0.776
E4	Offering many different museums	0.818	0.718	0.770
E5	With a variety of art available	0.788	0.657	0.783
E6	That have archaeological remains	0.739	0.591	0.798

As can be seen from Table 6.13, the factor richness of art, history and culture, returned a Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.825. Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus provided as this study adopted a 0.6 cut-off point. The factor art, history and culture explains 44.88% of the variance in the data.

6.6.2.2 Factor 2: Atmospheric conditions

Table 6.14 depicts the reliability analysis for the factor, atmospheric conditions.

Table 6.14: Reliability analysis for atmospheric conditions

% of variance explained: 26.03%		Cronbach's alpha: 0.574		
Items	**I travel to destinations…**	**Factor loadings**	**Item correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha after deletion**
E7	That have a tropical climate	0.421	0.183	0.624
E8	With moderate wind conditions	0.591	0.373	0.478
E10	With a low rainfall	0.708	0.546	0.329
E11	With low humidity levels	0.639	0.334	0.510

As can be seen from Table 6.14, the factor atmospheric conditions, returned a Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.574. Therefore no evidence of reliability for this factor is provided as this study adopted a 0.6 cut-off point, this construct will be deleted in any further statistical analysis. The factor atmospheric conditions explain 26.03 % of the variance in the data.

6.6.2.3 Factor 3: Events

Table 6.15 depicts the reliability analysis for the factor, events.

Table 6.15: Reliability analysis for events

% of variance explained: 66.22 %		Cronbach's alpha: 0.853		
Items	**I travel to destinations…**	**Factor loadings**	**Item correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha after deletion**
E14	Hosting conferences	0.800	0.699	0.816
E15	Holding major trade shows	0.869	0.775	0.745
E16	Showcasing major product launches	0.829	0.697	0.819

As can be seen from Table 6.15, the factor events, returned a Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.853. Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus provided as this study adopted a 0.6 cut-off point. The factor events explain 66.22% of the variance in the data.

6.6.2.4 Factor 4: Natural attractions

Table 6.16 depicts the reliability analysis for the factor, natural attractions.

Table 6.16: Reliability analysis for natural attractions

% of variance explained: 41.46%		Cronbach's alpha: 0.770		
Items	**I travel to destinations…**	**Factor loadings**	**Item correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha after deletion**
E17	With national parks and wildlife reserves	0.662	0.526	0.722
E18	That have waterfalls, lakes, dams and other water catchment areas	0.839	0.700	0.661
E19	With sandy beaches	0.757	0.536	0.719
E20	That have forests	0.773	0.650	0.675
E21	Known for caves and rock formations	0.433	0.299	0.807

As can be seen from Table 6.16, the factor natural attractions, returned a Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.770. Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus provided as this study adopted a 0.6 cut-off point. The factor natural attractions explain 41.46% of the variance in the data.

6.6.2.5 Factor 5: Political issues

Table 6.17 depicts the reliability analysis for the factor, political issues.

Table 6.17: Reliability analysis for political issues

% of variance explained: 48.65%		Cronbach's alpha: 0.784		
Items	**I travel to destinations….**	**Factor loadings**	**Item correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha after deletion**
E22	Without terrorism activities	0.751	0.565	0.746
E23	That have no labour unrest	0.774	0.723	0.642
E24	Which are perceived to be politically stable	0.649	0.636	0.702
E27	With a favourable exchange rate	0.569	0.446	0.783

As can be seen from Table 6.17, the factor political issues, returned a Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.784. Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus provided as this study adopted a 0.6 cut-off point. The factor political issues explain 48.65% of the variance in the data.

6.6.2.6 Factor 6: General infrastructure

Table 6.18 depicts the reliability analysis for the factor, general infrastructure.

Table 6.18: Reliability analysis for general infrastructure

% of variance explained: 51.31%		Cronbach's alpha: 0.910		
Items	**I travel to destinations…**	**Factor loadings**	**Item correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha after deletion**
E29	That provides good value for money	0.494	0.518	0.909
E31	With modern banking facilities providing easy access to money	0.739	0.702	0.899
E32	With efficient public transport systems	0.745	0.700	0.899
E33	Which have modern sanitation	0.623	0.619	0.904
E36	With a good road infrastructure	0.784	0.751	0.895
E37	That have a well-developed airport infrastructure	0.829	0.780	0.894
E38	With an up-to-date telecommunication infrastructure	0.759	0.715	0.898
E40	Where English is widely understood	0.670	0.617	0.904
E41	With high quality accommodation available	0.765	0.730	0.897
E42	Where food standards are high	0.676	0.617	0.904

As can be seen from Table 6.18, the factor general infrastructure, returned a Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.910. Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus provided as this study adopted a 0.6 cut-off point. The factor general infrastructure explains 51.31% of the variance in the data.

6.6.3 Reliability analysis of the dependent variable

This section will present the reliability analysis for the dependent variable, destination choice. Table 6.19 depicts the reliability analysis for the factor destination choice.

Table 6.19: Reliability analysis for destination choice

% of variance explained: 35.08%		**Cronbach's alpha: 0.787**		
Items	**I prefer destinations….**	**Factor loadings**	**Item correlation**	**Cronbach's alpha after deletion**
F1	With a wide variety of tourist attractions	0.599	0.436	0.764
F2	Which are situated relatively close to South Africa	0.572	0.432	0.771
F3	That have well-known landmarks	0.641	0.487	0.755
F4	Possessing a favourable tourist image	0.760	0.614	0.733
F5	That is affordable	0.594	0.454	0.762
F6	Where I can enjoy religious freedom	0.664	0.502	0.754
F7	That have strong security measures in place	0.798	0.657	0.721

As can be seen from Table 6.19, the dependent variable destination choice, returned a Cronbach's alpha coefficient score of 0.787. Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus provided as this study adopted a 0.6 cut-off point. The factor destination choice explains 35.08% of the variance in the data.

This section presented the EFA results to establish the validity and reliability of the independent- and dependent factors used within the measuring instrument. The factors which validity and reliability could not be confirmed, were identified and subsequently disregarded from further statistical analysis.

Pearson product moment correlation analysis will be conducted on the factors that emerged from the EFA; thereafter the hypotheses will be tested in the multiple regression analysis.

6.7 PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is a statistical measure of co-variance between two variables (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:559). Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients denote values between -1 and 1 (Zikmund *et al.,* 2009:559). According to Cozy and Bates (2012:248), the strength of the correlation relationship is guided by the following measures:

- Strong relationship < 0.7;
- Fairly strong relationship 0.5 < 0.69;
- Average relationship 0.3 < 0.49;
- Weak relationship 0.1 < 0.29; and
- Slight relationship < 0.09.

Table 6.20 presents the results of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients that were calculated for this study.

Table 6.20: Correlation matrix of push- and pull forces impacting on destination choice

Factors	DC	PM	IM	SM	DA	RAHC	E	NA	PI	GI
Destination choice (DC)	1									
Physical motivators (PM)	0.112	1								
Interpersonal motivators (IM)	0.161	0.144	1							
Stature motivators (SM)	0.291	0.029	0.269	1						
Destination accessibility (DA)	0.439	0.042	0.005	0.166	1					
Richness of art, history and culture (RAHC)	0.209	0.005	0.482	0.275	0.071	1				
Events (E)	0.323	0.130	0.416	0.308	0.014	0.272	1			
Natural attractions (NA)	0.304	0.160	0.142	0.039	0.124	0.141	0.071	1		
Political issues (PI)	0.445	0.018	0.152	0.184	0.421	0.154	0.096	0.040	1	
General infrastructure (GI)	0.626	0.119	0.164	0.238	0.279	0.279	0.199	0.152	0.495	1

$p < 0.001$; $p < 0.05$

Table 6.20 depicts all the variables that reported a positive Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Physical motivators (r=0.112), interpersonal motivators (r=0.161), richness of art, history and culture (r=0.209) and stature motivators (r=0.291) reported a weak relationship with destination choice. The interpretation is that the respondents in this study do not regard these factors as important when selecting an international destination. Events (r=0.323), natural attractions (r=0.304), destination accessibility (r=0.439) and political issues (r=0.445) reported an average relationship with destination choice. This may be due to the fact that respondents in this study regard these factors as moderately important when selecting an international destination. General infrastructure (r=0.626) reported a fairly strong relationship with destination choice. It seems that respondents in this study prefer visiting international destinations with an established infrastructure. This finding is supported by the findings of Dwyer and Kim (2003:382), which indicate that the availability of infrastructure at the destination plays an important role in the destination selection process.

As can be seen from Table 6.20, physical motivators only reported a slight or weak relationship with all the factors. These slight or weak relationships with physical motivators could be contributed to the fact that physical motivators are mostly concerned with travelling in order to reduce stress, in other words, to relax and tourists will probably travel to any destination to do so.

As can be seen from Table 6.20, interpersonal motivators reported slight or weak relationships with all factors except with richness of art, history and culture (r=0.482) and events (r=0.416) which indicate average relationships. Tourists are seeking experiences that offer them a personal connection with the people and places they visit, and this can be achieved by experiencing the culture of the people, their way of life and their history, as was found in a study by Hudson (2008:59).

As can be seen from Table 6.20, stature motivators reported a slight or weak relationship with natural attraction (r=0.039), destination accessibility (r=0.166), richness of art, history and culture (r=0.275), political issues (r=0.184) and general infrastructure (r=0.238). Stature motivators reported an average relationship with events (r=0.308). This could be explained as travelling internationally to take part in an event, will heighten the status of the individual. Some tourists are driven by their willingness to improve themselves intellectually and to discover new things by taking advantage of the learning opportunities. This can be done by attending conferences or visiting events for self-enrichment as indicated by De Almeida (2010:99). As can be seen from Table 6.20, destination accessibility reported a slight or weak relationship with richness of art, history and culture (0.071), events (r=0.014), natural attractions (r=0.124) and general infrastructure (r=0.279). However, political issues (r=0.421) reported an average relationship with destination accessibility. This can be explained due to the fact that accessibility of a destination decreases when the particular country is perceived as political unstable. Many of the airlines will cancel flights to such destinations and travel warnings will be issued for such countries. In a study by Neumayer (2010:171), it was found that political issues such as foreign policy can influence the accessibility of the destination to tourists negatively by increasing visa fees and restrictions on entering the country thus damaging the country's tourism industry. Richness of art, history and culture reported slight or weak relationships with events (r=0.272), natural attractions (r=0.141), political issues (r=0.154) and general infrastructure (r=0.279).

It can be seen from Table 6.20 that events had slight or weak relationships with natural attractions (r=0.071), political issues events (r=0.096) and general infrastructure (r=0.199). Slight or weak relationships were found among natural attractions and political issues (r=0.040) and general infrastructure (r=0.152). Political issues reported an average relationship with general infrastructure (r=0.495). This average relationship can be explained as countries with a good infrastructure are usually perceived to be a country with satisfactory public service and good general infrastructure. Political issues influence infrastructure as the government running the country is responsible for building new infrastructure and for the maintenance of exciting infrastructure. If the government does not allocate funds towards the maintenance and development of infrastructure, it can influence the standard of infrastructure in the country and therefore the influx of tourists as is indicated by Tovey (2014:1).

As can be seen in Table 6.20, most of the correlation results indicate an average to weak relationship. There is some evidence of discriminant validity as the relationship between destination choice and general infrastructure has a fairly strong relationship (0.626). Overall destination choice has the strongest relationships with the other variables. This supports the theory behind this study that the push forces, pull forces are influenced by destination choice. To determine if the hypothesis of the retained factors are either supported or rejected a multiple regression analysis is needed. The results of the multiple regression for the factors influencing destination choice will be discussed next.

6.8 RESULTS OF THE MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR THE FACTORS INFLUENCING DESTINATION CHOICE

Multiple regression analysis is a tool that can be used to forecast the dependent variable based on numerous independent variables of a hypotheses model (Kothari, 2004:130). Three separate multiple regression analysis were conducted. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003:142), when a t-value of a factor is less than 1.96 at a significance level of 0.05 or less than 3.09 at a significance level of 0.001, the null hypothesis is then rejected. Table 6.21 presents the results of the multiple regression that was conducted to identify the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable, destination choice.

Table 6.21: Multiple regression results for the factors influencing destination choice

Dependent variable: Destination choice	**R^2 = 0.557**			**Hypotheses**
Independent variable	**Beta**	**t-value**	**Sig. (p)**	
Physical motivators	0.111	2.190	0.029**	Supported
Interpersonal motivators	-0.058	-1.392	0.164	Not supported
Stature motivators	0.202	5.351	0.000*	Supported
Destination accessibility	0.199	5.870	0.000*	Supported
Richness of art, history and culture	0.021	0.629	0.529	Not supported
Events	0.144	5.463	0.000*	Supported
Natural attractions	0.177	4.782	0.000*	Supported
Political issues	0.070	2.028	0.043**	Supported
General infrastructure	0.417	9.429	0.000*	Supported

* $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.05$

From Table 6.21 it is clear that about 56% of the variance in destination choice can be explained by the variances in the independent factors. Evidence of statistical relationships was found (at p=0.001 and p=0.05) among the independent variables (physical motivators, stature morivators, destination accessibility, events, natural attractions, political issues and general infrastructure) and destination choice (dependent variable). These variables therefore impact on destination choice. This is also evident from the t-values which exceed the critical value of 1.96 at p<0.05 and 3.09 at p <0.001. Therefore, $H_{1.1}$, $H_{1.3}$, $H_{1.4}$, $H_{2.3}$, $H_{2.4}$, $H_{2.5}$ and $H_{2.7}$ are supported. The path coefficients (Beta values) for these significant relationships were weak except for the moderate relationship with general infrastructure (0.417). Beta values provide information regarding the strength of factors loading. Beta values closer to 1 are considered strong (Albright & Park, 2009:59).

As interpersonal motivators and richness of art, history and culture had a critical value of less than the 1.96 cut-off point, these hypotheses ($H_{1.2}$ and $H_{2.1}$) were rejected. The results suggest that interpersonal motivators and richness of art, history and culture do not influence destination choice.

Table 6.22 presents the multiple regression analysis that was conducted to identify the influence of pull forces on push forces.

Table 6.22: Multiple regression results for influence of pull forces on push forces

Dependent variable: Push forces	$R^2 = 0.297$			Hypotheses
Independent variable	**Beta**	**t-value**	**Sig. (p)**	
Pull forces	0.622	11.28	0.000*	Supported

* $p < 0.001$

From Table 6.22 it is clear that about 30% of the variance in push forces can be explained by the variance in the pull forces. Evidence of a statistical relationship was found (p=0.001) between push- and pull forces. This is also evident from the t-values which exceed the critical value of 3.09, therefore, $H_{3.1}$ is supported. The path coefficients (Beta value) for these significant relationships were relatively strong.

Table 6.23 presents the multiple regression analysis that was conducted to identify the influence of push forces on pull forces.

Table 6.23: Multiple regression results for influence of push forces on pull forces

Dependent variable: Pull forces	$R^2 = 0.297$			Hypotheses
Independent variable	**Beta**	**t-value**	**Sig. (p)**	
Push forces	0.478	11.28	0.000*	Supported

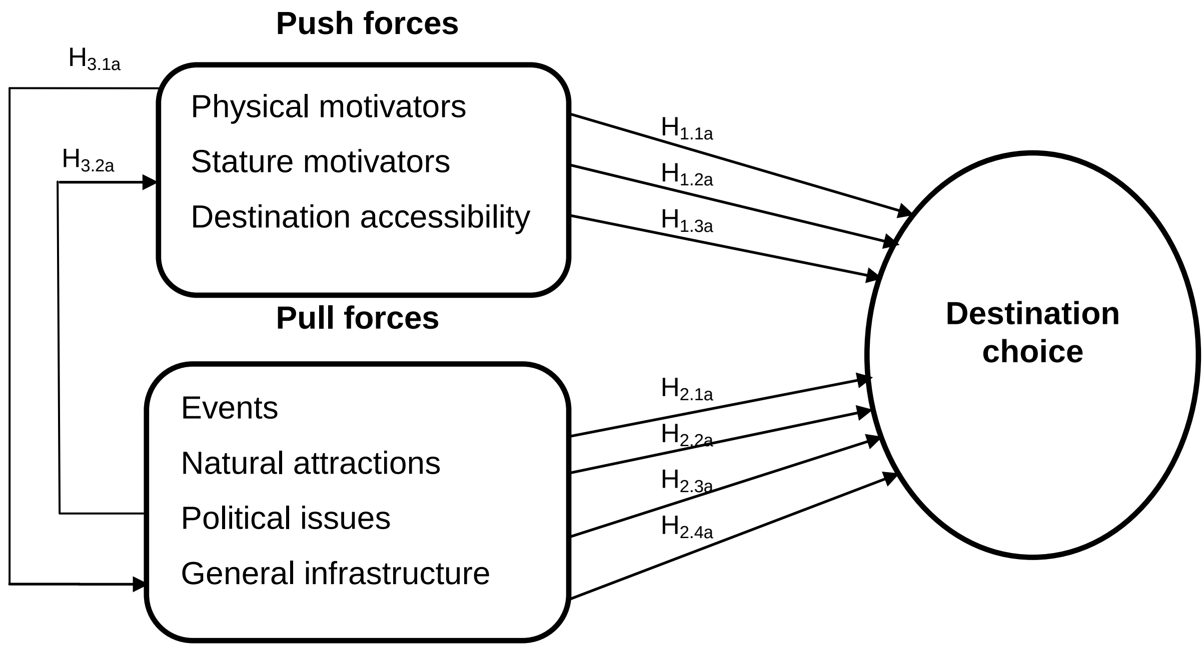
* $p < 0.001$

From Table 6.23 it is clear that about 30% of the variance in pull forces can be explained by the variance in the push forces. Evidence of a statistical relationship was found (p=0.001) between pull- and push forces. This is also evident from the t-values which exceed the critical value of 3.09, therefore, $H_{3.2}$ is supported. The path coefficients (Beta value) for this significant relationship were average.

It should be noted that the Beta value for the influence of pull forces on push forces (0.622) is higher than the Beta value for the influence of push forces on pull forces (0.478). This suggests that pull forces influence push forces more than push forces influence pull forces.

As a result of the findings of the multiple regression statistical significant relationships, the hypothetical model was revised as indicated in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2: Revised hypothetical model of push- and pull forces within outbound destination choice



Source: Researcher's own construct

From Figure 6.2, physical motivators, stature motivators and destination accessibility can be identified as the push forces that influence destination choice. The pull forces that influence destination choice are events, natural attractions, political issues and general infrastructure. Figure 6.2 also illustrates that push forces influence pull forces within destination choice and vice versa. No statistically significant relationships were found between interpersonal motivators, richness of art, history and culture, atmospheric conditions, economic issues and destination choice (see hypothetical model in Figure 1.6 in Chapter 1). Respondents did not distinguish between tourism infrastructure and general infrastructure. The only statistically significant relationship was between general infrastructure and destination choice. In the following section a discussion of the identified factors, as depicted in Figure 6.2, follows.

6.8.1 The effect of push forces on destination choice

Figure 6.2 identifies physical motivators, stature motivators and destination accessibility as the push forces that influence destination choice.

6.8.1.1 Physical motivators

According to McIntosh and Goeldner (1984:49), physical motivators for travel are associated with reduction of stress. Relaxation-based motivations are grounded in the need to find peace, tranquility, and relaxation at the destination (Jonsson & Devonish, 2008:401). According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2007:59), physical motivators are associated with relaxing physically and emotionally while on holiday. Physical motivators can also take the form of escaping from work responsibilities and work-related stress (Jensen, 2011:39).

6.8.1.2 Stature motivators

Stature motivators are associated with ego needs and personal development which include travelling to expand knowledge and gaining further experience in one's hobbies (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1984:50). O'Reilly (2006:1013) concurs that travel is not all about pleasure but also includes maintaining or enhancing social position. By visiting distant or sought-after destinations, a tourist will gain prestige in the eyes of his or her less well-travelled friends (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:243). Baker (2008:1) concurs and adds that due to the ability of modern technology to link people from around the world together via social media sites such as Twitter, Facebook and Linkedln, people also travel to meet people they have met on social media and by doing so expand knowledge and gain new experiences.

6.8.1.3 Destination accessibility

Destination accessibility refers to how accessible a destination is for tourists and the ability to access desired goods, services and activities at the destination (Adhikari *et al.,* 2013:1). Demand will peak for destinations relatively close to the source market and then decline exponentially as distance increases from the origin (McKercher & Lew, 2003:161). Important to accessibility at the destination, is how convenient attractions are situated to each other (Campbell & Ortíz, 2011:42). According to Neumayer (2010:171), visa requirements represent a hurdle for tourists even before the tourist arrives at the country. Individuals travelling to foreign countries frequently face health-related issues the individuals would not normally experience in his or her home country (Stöppler, 2012:1). Therefore, when travelling to some parts of the world, the tourist will have to be vaccinated against local diseases or present proof of vaccination if travelling from infected areas (Department of Health and Human Services, 2013:1). Tourists will usually not travel to destinations where travel warnings have been issued, especially if these circumstances occur regularly (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:319).

6.8.2 The effect of pull forces on destination choice

Figure 6.2 identifies pull forces that influence destination choice as events, natural attractions, political issues and general infrastructure.

6.8.2.1 Events

Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2005:11) describe the term event as "constituting specific rituals, presentations, performances or celebrations that are occasionally planned and created to make a special occasion or to achieve particular social, cultural or corporate goals and objectives". According to Ho and Ap (2009:17) and Moscardo (2004:15), there are three basic types of events: sports events, arts and culture, and commercial events. The increase in leisure time and disposable income has led to a growth in events, celebrations and entertainment within the tourism industry worldwide; these include national days and celebrations, important civic occasions, unique cultural performances, major sporting fixtures, corporate functions, trade promotions and product launches. (Nassar & Talaat, 2009:145). On a global scale, events and festivals with a cultural component are significantly increasing in numbers (Shin, 2009:73). Destinations marketers have turned their attention to marketing their destinations as favourable venues for hosting conferences and attracting business (Nassar & Talaat, 2009:147).

6.8.2.2 Natural attractions

Page (2007:278) defines natural attractions as the features that the physical environment consists of like the landscape and forests including plants and wildlife. Spilsbury (2009:9) states that many tourists travel to see natural attractions. Attractions which can also be referred to as the destination attributes, form the base of sightseeing and this, in turn, is what draws tourists to visit a destination (Chen & Chen, 2011:436; Lubbe, 2005:109). According to Merriam-Webster (2013:1), sightseeing can be defined as travelling devoted to or used for seeing sights. Sightseeing can either be visiting attractions or looking at scenery. Tourism Western Australia (2006:3) states that the following natural attractions attract tourists to destinations: national parks and reserves; waterfalls, lakes, dams and other water catchment areas; beaches; caves, rock formations; scenic lookouts, viewing areas, vistas and areas of impressive natural beauty. According to Raina (2005:77), natural attractions also include wildlife as these also attract tourists to destinations. Tourists prefer to visit destinations which offer unique sights (Celata, 2013:2).

6.8.2.3 Political issues

Political issues refer to political instability and governance, wars, coups, outbreaks, labour unrest and epidemics of disease which may leave tourists feeling unsafe in countries where these circumstances prevail (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:319). There is no doubt that political instability leads to cancellation and reduced bookings to travel destinations where these circumstance prevail (Chauhan & Khanna, 2009:41). Chauhan and Khanna (2009:41) state that terrorism and criminal acts affect tourists' safety perceptions of a destination. Tourists will not travel to locations with labour unrest, especially if these circumstances occur regularly (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:319). With reference to political governance, it needs to be mentioned that exchange rates between countries have a certain influence on destination selection and travel purchases (Department of Resources, Energy & Tourism, 2013:1).

6.8.2.4 General infrastructure

General infrastructure can be defined as the basic facilities, services, and installations of a country which include: roads, utilities, water, sewage, power lines, and public institutions including schools, post offices, airports and prisons (Farlex, 2013b:1). Tourists tend to visit destinations with retail developments and modern banking facilities (Moscardo, 2004:17). Moscardo (2004:18) and Campbell and Ortíz (2011:42) state that tourists prefer to visit destinations with a well-developed telecommunication-, road- and airport infrastructure.

According to Dwyer and Kim (2003:381), the availability of public transportation and effective waste management systems at the destination play an important role in the destination selection process and how appealing a destination will be for tourists. Public transportation and visitor services (especially if English is widely spoken and understood at these) are designed with the aim of assisting people to partake in activities situated in different geographical locations, and these activities offer good value for money (El-Geneidy & Levinson, 2006:1; Global Insight Inc, 2004:7). Dwyer and Kim (2003:381) state that services and ancillary services at the destination play an important role in the choice of destination - the more services available at the destination, the more appealing the destination becomes. High levels of quality services and customer satisfaction are the most important determinants with regard to destination competitiveness (Caber *et al.,* 2012:43). Friendly- and quality service, food and accommodation standards are important factors in determining overall tourist satisfaction within a destination (Meng *et al.,* 2008:41).

6.8.3 Destination choice

Tourists prefer destinations which have a wide variety of tourist attractions on offer (Campbell & Ortíz, 2011:42). Tourists tend to travel to destinations relatively close to the source market which will be destinations close to South Africa (McKercher & Lew, 2004:38). Ho and Ap (2009:3) state that well-known landmarks at the destination will lure tourists to such destinations. Destination choice is strongly influenced by the image that the tourist has of a destination; the more favourable the image the more likely the destination will be selected (Chi & Qu, 2008:626: Lin & Huang, 2008:2517). Tourists tend to select destinations based on their affordability (Moscardo, 2004:17). Some tourists will base their destination choice on the fact that they will not be prosecuted for their beliefs and religion at the destination (Collins-Kreiner, 2010:145). Tourists tend to visit destinations that are regarded as tourist-friendly and that have strong security measures in place (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:397).

6.8.4 The inter-relationship between push- and pull forces and its influence on destination choice

Within Alghamdi's (2007) integrated model of explicit motives, the author states that a relationship exists between push- and pull forces. The inter-dependent relationship between push- and pull forces was confirmed by Ali Shan *et al.* (2010:168). Kim and Chalip (2004:695) concur and state that push- and pull forces work together to determine destination choice and therefore an inter-relationship exists.

Individuals partake in travel because they are pushed by motivational factors (needs) into making travel decisions while pull forces (supply) affect the individual's subjective perception, consequent behaviour, and destination choice (Kassean & Gassita, 2013:3; Shin, 2009:70). Prayag and Ryan (2011:122) argue that the push force or motivation (need) is first realised; thereafter the pull force or destination attribute (supply) will influence the choice of destination. Tourists are pulled by a country's destination attributes (supply) (Kanagaraj & Bindu, 2013:113). Individuals can firstly be pulled by destination attributes (supply) in the form of destination marketing, and only then realise the need for taking a holiday (Teja, 2013:27).

In the following section the results of the ANOVAs will be presented.

6.9 RESULTS FROM THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

The following section attempts to determine if significant relationships exist between the demographic variables and the independent variables. ANOVA tests were utilised to examine general rather than specific differences between means (Lane, 2014:1). If any variance between groups occurs, this will be represented by a large F ratio (f-value) with a probability (p-value) of less than 0.05. This constitutes statistical significance (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:448). ANOVAs were utilised in this study to identify which demographic factors predict the independent variables. Furthermore, post-hoc Scheffè tests were completed to identify where the significant differences occurred between the different categories (Lund Research, 2013:4). Cohen's d-values were also calculated in order to assess the practical significance of the mean scores. If $0.2 < d < 0.5$, it can be considered a 'small' effect size; $0.5 < d < 0.8$ represents an average effect size and $d > 0.8$ represents a large effect size (Cohen, 1988:59; Walker, 2008:1).

Twelve separate sets of ANOVAs were performed on the nine independent variables that had been established as valid and reliable established when conducting the EFA and calculating Cronbach's alphas. The following hypotheses were formulated:

- $H0_{1.1\text{-}1.9}$: There is no relationship between gender and the independent variables.
- $H0_{2.1\text{-}2.9}$: There is no relationship between age and the independent variables.
- $H0_{3.1\text{-}3.9}$: There is no relationship between race and the independent variables.
- $H0_{4.1\text{-}4.9}$: There is no relationship between language and the independent variables.
- $H0_{5.1\text{-}5.9}$: There is no relationship between work status and the independent variables.
- $H0_{6.1\text{-}6.9}$: There is no relationship between employment sector and the independent variables.
- $H0_{7.1\text{-}7.9}$: There is no relationship between position in the organisation and the independent variables.
- $H0_{8.1\text{-}8.9}$: There is no relationship between income and the independent variables.
- $H0_{9.1\text{-}9.9}$: There is no relationship between work experience and the independent variables.
- $H0_{10.1\text{-}10.9}$: There is no relationship between level of education and the independent variables.
- $H0_{11.1\text{-}11.9}$: There is no relationship between marital status and the independent variables.
- $H0_{12.1\text{-}12.9}$: There is no relationship between number of children and the independent variables.

Tables 6.24 to Tables 6.35 present the findings of the ANOVAs conducted on the data.

Table 6.24 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable gender and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.24: Relationship between gender and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Gender		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivators	9.20	0.002*
Interpersonal motivators	0.39	0.532
Stature motivators	5.69	0.017**
Destination accessibility	1.54	0.216
Richness of art, history and culture	0.18	0.671
Events	2.22	0.136
Natural attractions	1.55	0.214
Political issues	1.38	0.241
General infrastructure	4.43	0.036**

* p <0.01 **p <0.05

From Table 6.24 it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the demographic variable gender and independent variables - physical motivators (0.002; p <0.01), stature motivators (0.017; p <0.05) and general infrastructure (0.036; p <0.05). The post-hoc Scheffè test for the significant positive relationship between gender and physical motivators (0.002; p <0.01) revealed that females ($\dot{x}$ = 4.109) scored a slightly higher mean score than males ($\dot{x}$ = 3.881). The Cohen's d-value was 0.35 which presents a small practical significance. This indicates that females may regard physical motivators as more important than their male counterparts do when selecting international destinations. This could possibly be explained as physical motivators are mostly concerned with relaxation and reduction of stress and females could prefer visiting destinations where they can relax.

The post-hoc Scheffè test for the significant positive relationship between gender and stature motivators (0.017; p <0.05) revealed that males ($\dot{x}$ = 4.109) scored a slightly higher mean score than females ($\dot{x}$ = 3.881). The Cohen's d-value was 0.28 which presents a small practical significance. This indicates that males may regard stature motivators as more important than their female counterparts do when selecting international destinations. Based on these results, it could be possible that males regard status and social standing as more important and would maybe travel to sought-after destinations to impress friends, family and colleagues, and to improve their social standing.

The post-hoc Scheffè test for the significant positive relationship between gender and general infrastructure (0.036; $p < 0.05$) revealed that females ($\dot{x} = 4.189$) scored a slightly higher mean score than males ($\dot{x} = 4.035$) for the independent variable general infrastructure. The Cohen's d-value was 0.24 which presents a small practical significance. This indicates that females may regard general infrastructure as more important than their male counterparts do when selecting international destinations. It could be that females regard a well-developed infrastructure for example public transport as more important than males do when choosing a destination.

Table 6.25 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable age and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.25: Relationship between age and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Age		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivators	4.54	0.000*
Interpersonal motivators	0.49	0.783
Stature motivators	4.12	0.000*
Destination accessibility	1.62	0.152
Richness of art, history and culture	1.46	0.201
Events	2.03	0.075
Natural attractions	0.53	0.753
Political issues	2.21	0.052
General infrastructure	1.73	0.126

* $p < 0.001$

From Table 6.25 it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the demographic variable age and the independent variables - physical motivators (0.000; $p < 0.001$) and stature motivators (0.000; $p < 0.001$). The post-hoc Scheffè test for the significant positive relationship between age and physical motivators (0.000; $p < 0.001$) revealed that the age group 26 to 35 years ($\dot{x} = 4.102$) scored a slightly higher mean score than the age group 56 to 65 years ($\dot{x} = 4.035$). The Cohen's d-value was 0.09 which presents a very small practical significance. This indicates that the age group 26 to 35 years regards physical motivators as slightly more important than the age group 56 to 65 years. This could possibly be explained due to the fact that physical motivators are also concerned with physical activity and adventure, therefore, it is possible that the age group 26 to 35 years in comparison with the age group 56 to 65 years may be more likely to choose an international destination to partake in a physical activity and adventure.

The post-hoc Scheffè test for the significant positive relationship between age and stature motivators (0.000; $p < 0.001$) revealed that the age group 18 to 25 years ($\dot{x}$ = 2.970) scored a slightly higher mean score than the age group 66 and above ($\dot{x}$ = 1.803). The Cohen's d-value was 0.06 which presents a very small practical significance. This indicates that individuals between the ages of 18 to 25 years regard stature motivators as more important than individuals older than 66 years do. It is, therefore, possible that individuals between the ages of 18 to 25 years in comparison to older individuals may possibly travel to sought-after destinations to impress friends and family and to improve their social standing.

Table 6.26 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable race and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.26: Relationship between race and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Race		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivators	2.63	0.034**
Interpersonal motivators	1.86	0.115
Stature motivators	5.46	0.000*
Destination accessibility	1.46	0.214
Richness of art, history and culture	1.26	0.284
Events	5.20	0.000*
Natural attractions	1.22	0.299
Political issues	0.49	0.742
General infrastructure	2.72	0.030**

* $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.05$

From Table 6.26 it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the demographic variable race and the independent variables - physical motivators (0.034; $p < 0.05$), stature motivators (0.000; $p < 0.001$), events (0.000; $p < 0.001$) and general infrastructure (0.030; $p < 0.05$). The post-hoc Scheffè test was not powerful enough to detect group differences for the relationship between race and physical motivators. This significant positive relationship could possibly exist due to cultural difference between race groups and would, therefore, select destinations based on different physical motivator criteria. For example, one race group might prefer physical activity while on holiday, while the other race group would like to relax and do as little as possible.

The post-hoc Scheffè test for the positive relationship between race and stature motivators revealed that coloured respondents ($\dot{x} = 3.097$) scored a higher mean score than white respondents ($\dot{x} = 2.386$). The Cohen's d-value was 0.61 which presents an average practical significance. This indicates that coloured individuals may regard stature motivators as more important than white individuals do. Therefore, it is possible that coloured individuals may wish to travel to international destinations to improve their social standing and impress friends and family, while white individuals do so to a lesser extent.

The post-hoc Scheffè test for the positive relationship between race and events revealed that black respondents ($\dot{x} = 3.171$) scored a higher mean score than white respondents ($\dot{x} = 2.571$). The Cohen's d-value was 0.63 which presents an average practical significance. Based on the findings, the black ethnic group is more likely to visit destinations offering events than the white ethnic group is.

The post-hoc Scheffè test was not powerful enough to detect group differences for the relationship between race and general infrastructure. Different race groups could have access to different levels of infrastructure in their own country and may ,therefore, regard the importance of general infrastructure as not that significant when selecting an international destination.

Table 6.27 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable language and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.27: Relationship between language and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Language		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivators	2.97	0.020***
Interpersonal motivators	0.72	0.572
Stature motivators	2.75	0.028***
Destination accessibility	2.73	0.029***
Richness of art, history and culture	0.45	0.770
Events	4.17	0.002**
Natural attractions	0.38	0.821
Political issues	2.39	0.051
General infrastructure	5.44	0.000*

* p < 0.001 ** p <0.01 ***p <0.05

From Table 6.27 it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the demographic variable language and the independent variables - physical motivators (0.020; $p < 0.05$), stature motivators (0.028; $p < 0.05$), destination accessibility (0.029; $p < 0.05$), events (0.002; $p < 0.01$) and general infrastructure (0.000; $p < 0.001$). The post-hoc Scheffè test for the positive relationship between language and physical motivators revealed that Afrikaans-speaking respondents ($\dot{x}$ = 4.160) scored a higher mean score than English-speaking respondents ($\dot{x}$ = 3.898). The Cohen's d-value was 0.40 which presents a small practical significance. This indicates that Afrikaans-speaking respondents may regard physical motivators as more important than English-speaking respondents do. It is, therefore, possible that Afrikaans-speaking, when compared to English-speaking respondents may possibly select international destinations on the basis of physical activities such as hiking and swimming.

The post-hoc Scheffè test was not powerful enough to detect group differences for the relationship between language and stature motivators. This relationship could possibly exist due to the fact that different language groups could possibly differ in their perception of which destinations are sought after and would travel to different destinations to improve their social standing. The post-hoc Scheffè test was not powerful enough to detect group differences for the relationship between language and destination accessibility. However, this relationship could possibly exist as different language groups could possibly differ with regard to the importance of destination accessibility. For example, one language group could possibly see visa requirements as a major hurdle, whereas the other language group would not regard visa requirements as a hurdle, but as a safety precaution to prevent unwelcome tourists from entering the country.

The post-hoc Scheffè test for the positive relationship between language and events revealed that Xhosa-speaking respondents ($\dot{x}$ = 3.191) scored a higher mean score than English-speaking respondents ($\dot{x}$ = 2.569). The Cohen's d-value was 0.61 which presents an average practical significance. This indicates that Xhosa-speaking individuals are more likely to select a destination based on events than English-speaking individuals. The post-hoc Scheffè test for the positive relationship between language and general infrastructure revealed two groups of significant differences. The first significant difference identified that Afrikaans-speaking respondents ($\dot{x}$ = 4.215) scored a higher mean score than English-speaking respondents ($\dot{x}$ = 3.958). The Cohen's d-value was 0.41 which presents a small practical significance. The other significant differences identified that Xhosa-speaking respondents ($\dot{x}$ = 4.445) scored a higher mean score than English-speaking respondents ($\dot{x}$ = 3.958). The Cohen's d-value was 0.77 which tends towards a strong practical significance. Therefore, Afrikaans- and Xhosa-speaking individuals regard general infrastructure at an international destination probably as more important than English-speaking respondents do.

Table 6.28 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable work status and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.28: Relationship between work status and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Work status		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivators	2.60	0.019**
Interpersonal motivators	1.34	0.239
Stature motivators	2.75	0.013**
Destination accessibility	1.45	0.194
Richness of art, history and culture	0.24	0.962
Events	4.53	0.000*
Natural attractions	0.34	0.913
Political issues	2.29	0.035**
General infrastructure	1.87	0.085

* p < 0.001 ** p <0.05

From Table 6.28 it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the demographic variable work status and the independent variables - physical motivators (0.019; $p < 0.05$), stature motivators (0.013; $p < 0.05$), events (0.000; $p < 0.001$) and political issues (0.035; $p < 0.05$). The post-hoc Scheffè test was not powerful enough to detect group differences for the relationship between work status and physical motivators. However, this relationship could possibly exist as employed individuals would be more likely to travel with the purpose of relaxation than unemployed individuals would. The post-hoc Scheffè test was also not powerful enough to detect group differences for the relationship between work status and stature motivators. However, this relationship could possibly exist as employed individuals would more likely travel to impress friends, family and colleagues than unemployed individuals would.

The post-hoc Scheffè test for the positive relationship between work status and events revealed two groups of significant differences. The first significant difference identified that students ($\dot{x}$ = 3.384) scored a higher mean score than retired respondents ($\dot{x}$ = 1.818). The Cohen's d-value was 6.17 which presents a large practical significance. The other significant difference was that students ($\dot{x}$ = 3.384) also had a higher mean score than self-employed respondents ($\dot{x}$ = 2.250). The Cohen's d-value was 4.47 which presents a large practical significance. Therefore, students regard events at a destination as much more important than self-employed and retired people do as the Cohen's d-value presented a large practical significance. The post-hoc Scheffè test was not powerful enough to detect group differences for the relationship between work status and political issues. This relationship could possibly exist as employed people could be up-to-date with world affairs, in particular political issues, and could therefore choose politically stable destinations.

Table 6.29 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable employment sector and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.29: Relationship between employment sector and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Employment sector		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivators	0.93	0.553
Interpersonal motivators	1.18	0.265
Stature motivators	1.94	0.008**
Destination accessibility	1.56	0.058
Richness of art, history and culture	1.08	0.367
Events	3.60	0.000*
Natural attractions	1.39	0.121
Political issues	2.05	0.005**
General infrastructure	1.76	0.021***

* $p < 0.001$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.05$

From Table 6.29 it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the dependent demographic variable employment sector and the independent variables - stature motivators (0.008; $p < 0.001$); events (0.000; $p < 0.001$), political issues (0.005; $p < 0.01$) and general infrastructure (0.021; $p < 0.05$). However, the post-hoc Scheffè test was not powerful enough to detect any group differences for any one of these relationships therefore no further statistical analysis was conducted. The relationship between employment sector and stature motivators could possibly be due to the fact that working within some sectors will allow individuals to travel internationally more than in other sectors. For example, individuals working in the academic and tourism sectors, will have more opportunities to travel than for example public administration. The relationship between employment sector and events could possibly exist as some individuals will travel to events to meet work requirements. The relationship between the employment sector and political issues could possibly be explained by taking into consideration individuals employed in sectors such as the media, for example journalists, that would travel to destinations to report on political issues even if there is a lack of general infrastructure.

Table 6.30 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable position in organisation and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.30: Relationship between position in the organisation and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Position in the organisation		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivators	1.45	0.203
Interpersonal motivators	0.88	0.500
Stature motivators	1.44	0.207
Destination accessibility	1.57	0.167
Richness of art, history and culture	0.27	0.930
Events	6.05	0.000*
Natural attractions	1.55	0.171
Political issues	2.18	0.056
General infrastructure	0.73	0.602

* $p < 0.001$

From Table 6.30 it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the demographic variable position in the organisation and the independent variable, events (0.000; $p < 0.001$). The post-hoc Scheffè test for this relationship revealed three groups of significant differences. The first significant difference identified that students ($\dot{x} = 3.818$) scored a higher mean score than business owners ($\dot{x} = 2.726$). The Cohen's d-value was 0.93 which presents a large practical significance. Students ($\dot{x} = 3.818$), likewise had a higher mean score than employees ($\dot{x} = 2.568$), the Cohen's-d value was 1.35 which presents a large practical significance. Students ($\dot{x} = 3.818$) also had a higher mean than unemployed individuals ($\dot{x} = 2.104$). The Cohen's d-value was 1.60 which presents a large practical significance. Therefore, students more so than business owners, employees and unemployed individuals prefer destinations which host events.

Table 6.31 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable income and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.31: Relationship between income and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Income		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivators	0.95	0.460
Interpersonal motivators	1.16	0.327
Stature motivators	0.729	0.647
Destination accessibility	0.88	0.527
Richness of art, history and culture	0.95	0.470
Events	0.79	0.593
Natural attractions	3.11	0.003*
Political issues	1.27	0.260
General infrastructure	0.72	0.657

* p <0.01

From Table 6.31 it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the demographic variable income and the independent variable, natural attractions (0.003; $p < 0.01$). The post-hoc Scheffè test for this relationship revealed two groups of significant differences. The first significant difference indicated that individuals earning between R10 001 to R20 000 ($\dot{x}$ = 3.957) scored a higher mean score than individuals earning R60 000 and more ($\dot{x}$ =3.361). The Cohen's d-value was 0.91 which presents a large practical significance. The other significant difference was that individuals earning between R30 001 to R40 000 ($\dot{x}$ = 4.037) also scored a higher mean score than individuals earning R60 000 and more ($\dot{x}$ =3.361). The Cohen's d-value was 0.98 which presents a large practical significance. Based on these findings, individuals earning R60 000 and more is probably not as motivated to visit natural attractions as the individuals earning between R 10 001 to R 20 000 and between R 30 000 to R40 001. This could be due to the fact that higher income groups (R60 000 + pm) prefer more luxuries at attractions.

Table 6.32 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable work experience and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.32: Relationship between work experience and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Work experience		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivators	2.51	0.015**
Interpersonal motivators	1.82	0.083
Stature motivators	4.51	0.000*
Destination accessibility	1.87	0.073
Richness of art, history and culture	1.43	0.192
Events	2.51	0.016**
Natural attractions	0.88	0.518
Political issues	0.80	0.585
General infrastructure	0.87	0.530

* $p < 0.001$ **$p < 0.05$

From Table 6.32 it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the demographic variable work experience and the independent variables - physical motivators (0.015; $p < 0.05$), stature motivators (0.000; $p < 0.001$) and events (0.016; $p < 0.05$). However, the post-hoc Scheffè test was not powerful enough to detect any group differences for these relationships, therefore no further statistical analysis was conducted. The relationship between work experience and physical motivators could probably exist as people with more work experience have more income available to travel to destinations for relaxation. The relationship between work experience and stature motivators could possibly exist as people with more work experience would travel to sought-after destinations to impress their colleagues with less experience. The relationship between work experience and events probably exists as individuals with more work experience may be chosen to represent the company at events, whereas less experienced employees would not be chosen.

Table 6.33 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable education level and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.33: Relationship between education level and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Education level		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivator	2.26	0.048*
Interpersonal motivators	1.17	0.323
Stature motivators	2.09	0.066
Destination accessibility	1.78	0.116
Richness of art, history and culture	1.37	0.235
Events	1.02	0.406
Natural attractions	1.54	0.177
Political issues	1.13	0.345
General infrastructure	1.94	0.087

*p <0.05

From Table 6.33 it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the demographic variable education level and the independent variable physical motivators (0.048; p <0.05). However, the post-hoc Scheffè test was not powerful enough to detect any group differences for this relationship, therefore no further statistical analysis was conducted. This relationship could be explained as people with higher qualifications may be in managerial positions and have a more stressful position and are therefore more likely to visit destinations for relaxation purposes.

Table 6.34 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable marital status and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.34: Relationship between marital status and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Marital status		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivators	0.53	0.708
Interpersonal motivators	7.78	0.000*
Stature motivators	3.53	0.007**
Destination accessibility	1.05	0.376
Richness of art, history and culture	1.07	0.373
Events	3.68	0.006**
Natural attractions	2.25	0.063
Political issues	3.14	0.015***
General infrastructure	2.25	0.063

* p < 0.001 ** p <0.01 ***p <0.05

From Table 6.34 it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the demographic variable marital status and the independent variables - interpersonal motivators (0.000; $p < 0.001$), stature motivators (0.007; $p < 0.01$), events (0.006; $p < 0.01$) and political issues (0.015; $p < 0.05$). The post-hoc Scheffè test for the relationship between marital status and interpersonal motivators was not powerful enough to detect any group differences. The post-hoc Scheffè test for the relationship between marital status and stature motivators revealed that unmarried respondents ($\dot{x}$ = 2.796) scored a higher mean score than respondents living together ($\dot{x}$ = 2.120). The Cohen's d-value was 0.39 which presents a small practical significance. This indicates that unmarried respondents regard stature motivators as more important than respondents living together do. This relationship could probably be explained by the fact that unmarried individuals are more conscious of status and social standing than individuals living together, and may therefore, prefer to visit sought-after destinations to improve their status and social standing. The post-hoc Scheffè test for the relationship between marital status and events was not powerful enough to detect any group differences.

The post-hoc Scheffè test for the relationship between marital status and political issues revealed three groups of significant differences. The first significant difference indicated that divorcees ($\dot{x}$ = 4.226) scored a higher mean score than unmarried individuals ($\dot{x}$ = 3.946). The Cohen's d-value was 0.45 which presents a small practical significance. Similarly, divorcees ($\dot{x}$ = 4.226) scored a higher mean score than married individuals ($\dot{x}$ = 3.628), the Cohen's d-value was 0.87 which presents a large practical significance. Likewise, divorcees ($\dot{x}$ = 4.226) scored a higher mean score than individuals who indicated that they are living together ($\dot{x}$ =3.530). The Cohen's d-value was 1.52 which presents a large practical significance. Therefore, the results indicate that divorcees unlike married, unmarried and people living together do prefer destinations that are perceived to be politically stable.

Table 6.35 presents the findings of the ANOVAs calculated for relationships between the demographic variable number of children and the selected independent variables.

Table 6.35: Relationship between number of children and the independent variables

Dependent variable: Number of children		
Independent variables	**F-value**	**P-value**
Physical motivators	0.831	0.528
Interpersonal motivators	3.02	0.011*
Stature motivators	1.78	0.115
Destination accessibility	0.65	0.660
Richness of art, history and culture	2.45	0.034**
Events	2.96	0.013**
Natural attractions	0.51	0.764
Political issues	2.63	0.024**
General infrastructure	2.90	0.014**

* $p < 0.01$ ** $p < 0.05$

From Table 6.35, it is evident that a significant positive relationship exists between the demographic variable number of children and the independent variables - interpersonal motivators (0.011; $p < 0.01$), richness of art, history and culture (0.034; $p < 0.05$), events (0.013; $p < 0.05$), political issues (0.024; $p < 0.05$) and general infrastructure (0.014; $p < 0.05$). However, the post-hoc Scheffè test was only able to detect group differences for interpersonal motivators. The significant difference indicates that individuals with one child ($\dot{x}$ = 4.013) scored a higher mean score than individuals with two children ($\dot{x}$ = 3.615). The Cohen's d-value was 0.65 which presents an average practical significance. Therefore, the results indicate that individuals with one child regard interpersonal motivators as more important than individuals with two children do. As interpersonal motivators deal with family togetherness, it could be more economical for individuals with one child to travel internationally than for individuals with two children.

ANOVAs were calculated in this study to identify which demographic factors predict the dependent and independent variables. The results indicated that twenty statistical significant relationships and sixteen practical significant relationships exist. As this study aims to provide practical recommendations to the tourism industry, only practical significant relationships will be depicted in Figure 6.3.

Figure 6.3: Practical significant relationships between the demographic variables and the independent variables

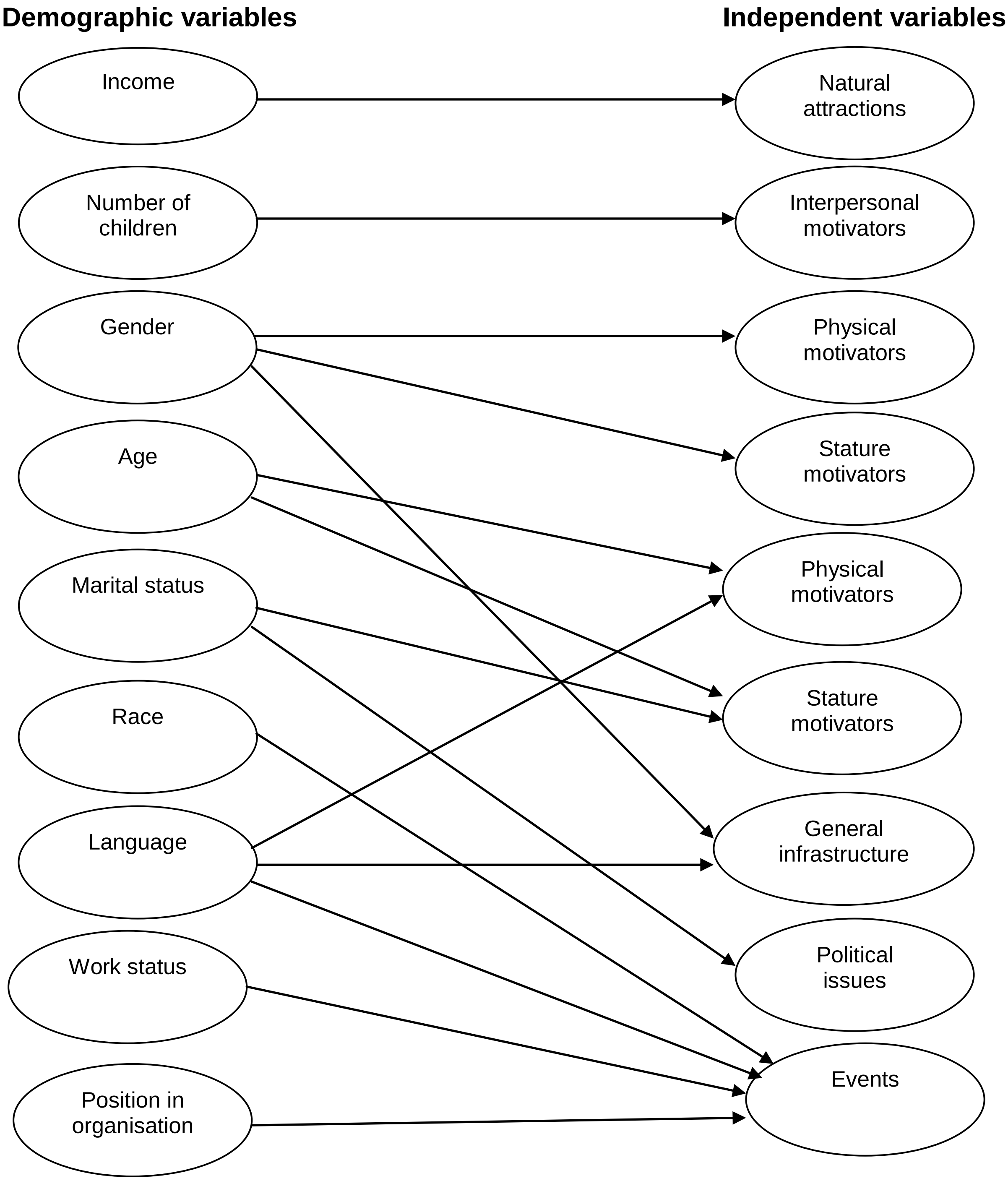


Figure 6.3 depicts the practical significant relationships between the demographic variables and the selected independent variables. As can be seen from Figure 6.3, the independent variables, stature motivators and events, both had four practical significant relationships with the demographic variables. Stature motivators had

practical significant relationships with gender, age, race and marital status. All these demographical variables are related to an individual's demographic profile, which may play a role in how these individuals would like to be perceived by other people when travelling abroad. Events had practical significant relationships with race, language, work status and position in the organisation. Interesting to note, is that two of the demographic variables are related to employment (work status and position in organisation) and two variables are related to the individual's culture (race and language). Therefore, it is possible that tourists travel internationally to attend events for both business and leisure purposes.

As can be seen from Figure 6.3, physical motivators had three practical significant relationships with the demographic variables (gender, age and language), which may mean that females and the younger generation may choose destinations on a different basis than males or older travellers. The role of language is not clear. General infrastructure had two practical significant relationships with the demographic variables (gender and language). This could indicate for example that females travelling alone may consider the availability of public transport as more important when choosing the outbound destination as it may make them feel safer in getting around and they may also prefer destinations where English is spoken for the same reason.

In the following section the descriptive statistics for the independent- and dependent variables will be presented.

6.10 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE INDEPENDENT- AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Table 6.36 presents the descriptive statistics for the selected independent variables (validity and reliability were proven) and dependent variable.

Table 6.36: Descriptive statistics for the selected independent variables and dependent variable

Items	Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
D2, D3, D5, D6	Physical motivators	4.0	0.6
D7, D11, D13, D14, D15	Interpersonal motivators	3.8	0.7
D12, D16, D17, D18	Stature motivators	2.5	0.8
D19, D20, D21, D22, D23, D24	Destination accessibility	3.3	0.8
E1, E2, E3, E4, E5, E6	Richness of art, history and culture	3.2	0.8
E14, E15, E16	Events	2.8	1
E17, E18, E19, E20, E21	Natural attractions	3.8	0.7
E22, E23, E24, E27	Political issues	4.1	0.8
E29, E31, E32, E33, E36, E37, E38, E40, E41, E42	General infrastructure	4.1	0.6
F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, F6, F7	Destination choice	3.9	0.6

As can be seen from Table 3.36, physical motivators, interpersonal motivators, natural attractions, political issues, general infrastructure and destination choice had means that tended towards agreement on the scale (rating 4). Respondents were on average neutral regarding stature motivators, destination accessibility, richness of art, history and culture and events. All the standard deviations were relatively low (varying from 0.6 to 1.0) which indicates low response variances.

6.11 SUMMARY

Within this chapter, the results obtained from the empirical research was presented and discussed. The demographic information of the respondents was firstly presented by means of descriptive statistics. The results indicated that 55% of the respondents were female while 45% was male. With regard to countries visited and the purpose of the visit, the majority (85%) of the respondents in the sample indicated that they travel for leisure purposes. The United Kingdom was the most visited destination by the respondents who indicated that the United States of America would be the next destination they would like to visit. With regard to travel constraints, only financial constraints were regarded by the respondents as a barrier to travelling internationally. The respondents also indicated that they prefer to book their holidays themselves online.

The validity analysis for push forces, pull forces and destination choice was presented. All item loadings below 0.4, as well as items that cross-loaded, were disregarded. The reliability analysis for push forces, pull forces and destination choice was presented thereafter. To establish reliability, Cronbach's alphas were calculated. All items that had a Cronbach's alpha of below 0.6 were disregarded in further statistical analysis.

The correlation matrix of push- and pull forces impacting on destination choice was presented to ascertain the strength of the relationship between the variables. Most of the correlation results indicated an average to weak relationship. However, general infrastructure had a fairly strong relationship with destination choice. The results of the multiple regression for the factors influencing destination choice and the inter-relationship between push- and pull forces were completed so as to identify which hypotheses are supported and which are rejected. The rejection of hypotheses was based on the following criteria: when a t-value of a factor was less than 1.96 at a significance level of 0.05 or less than 3.09 at a significance level of 0.001. The retained hypotheses were presented in the revised hypothetical model (Figure 6.2). ANOVAs were calculated and presented. The aim of calculating ANOVAs was to identify significant positive relationships among the variables. The results indicated that twenty statistical significant relationships and sixteen practical significant relationships existed. The practical significant relationships were depicted in Figure 6.3 Lastly, descriptive statistics for the selected independent variables and dependent variable was presented and discussed.

In the chapter to follow, recommendations and conclusions will be made based on the results of this study.

CHAPTER 7
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The main objective of this study was to identify the push- and pull forces that drive the Nelson Mandela Bay Metro (NMBM) residents to travel to international destinations. Thus far, this has been achieved by examining existing literature regarding push- and pull forces, the construction of a proposed hypothesised model, the illustration of the appropriate research design methods utilised in the empirical study and the analysis of the data collected. This chapter will provide an overview of all the chapters completed thus far. This chapter will highlight the recommendations, contributions and limitations to this study. Further areas of study will be identified and concluding remarks will be given.

7.2 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 provided an introduction and background to the study. The research problem along with the research questions were posed. A brief literature overview was provided and the hypothetical model to be tested in this study was indicated. The research methodology used in this study was also highlighted.

Chapter 2 discussed the tourism industry. The sectors within the industry were identified and discussed. The uniqueness of the tourism product was discussed according to the tourism product characteristics. The various forms of tourism were discussed. The aim of this chapter was to ascertain the complexity of the tourism industry and to illustrate the interdependence of the sectors with regard to one another. The various forms of tourism were discussed to demonstrate the diversity within the tourism industry. This in turn illustrated the needs of tourists which led to the belief that tourism is a need-driven industry based on demand.

Chapter 3 explored the concept of tourism demand. It was stated that tourism demand is needs driven. Push- and pull forces were identified as major drivers in tourism demand and reference was made to the interrelationship of push- and pull forces. Needs-driven forces influencing destination choice were discussed according to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and Swartbrooke and Horner’s tourist needs typology. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is based on order of importance; on the lowest level are physiological needs which are followed by safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualisation needs. On the other hand Swartbrooke and Horner's needs classification typologies identified physical-, emotional-, personal-, personal development-, status- and cultural needs. The similarities and differences between the needs classifications were noted and led to a comprehensive discussion of needs-driven forces. It must be noted that these needs-driven forces could each either be classified as a push- or pull force. Other forces, influencing destination choice, were presented in terms of the need to travel as well as the appeal of the destination to the potential tourist. These forces were discussed in greater detail and are important as they can either lure the potential tourist to, or deter the potential tourist from selecting a certain destination.

Chapter 4 operationalised the hypothetical model constructed in Chapter 1. A framework was presented of the three sets of hypotheses formulated and substantiated by secondary sources on the factors that influence destination choice. The first set of hypotheses discussed the effects of push forces on destination choice with reference to physical-, interpersonal-, stature motivators and destination accessibility. The second set of hypotheses discussed the effects of pull forces on destination choice with reference to richness of art, history and culture, atmospheric conditions, events, natural attractions, political issues, economic issues, general- and tourist infrastructure. The third set dealt with the inter-relationship between push- and pull forces within destination choice.

Chapter 5 provided an overview of the research methodology used within this study. The chapter formed the blueprint for the empirical study that followed. Each step in the research process was discussed and motivations were given on the selection of the chosen methods. The study utilised the quantitative research paradigm. The chapter also focused on the steps to take to ensure that the research instrument was reliable and valid.

Chapter 6 presented the data obtained from the primary data collection for this study. The relationships between the dependent- and independent variables were empirically tested. The data was presented in a clear and concise form and presented in table format. The items used within the questionnaire were first tested for validity and reliability. Correlations were calculated on the retained variables. This was done to measure the relationships between the variables. Multiple regression was also performed to ascertain which of the proposed hypotheses in the hypothetical model of this study were supported or rejected. Lastly, the results of the ANOVAs were presented to determine statistical significant relationships between the demographic variables and the independent variables. Scheffès tests revealed the specific differences in the means of the groups and Cohen d-tests indicated which of the mean differences were of practical significance.

This chapter will first highlight how the objectives of this study were met. Conclusions and recommendations will be given based on the main findings of this research. The contribution- and limitations of this study will also be discussed and concluding remarks will be given.

The following section will indicate how the objectives of this study were met.

7.3 HOW OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY WERE MET

Table 7.1 depicts how the objectives of this study were met.

Table 7.1: How objectives of this study were met

Objectives of the study	How and where these were achieved
To conduct a literature study on tourism demand and the push-pull and factors impacting on outbound destination choice	This has been achieved in the debate and detailed discussions in the literature, Chapters 3 and 4. Chapter 3 discussed tourism demand. It was established that push- and pull forces are major drivers of tourism demand. It was also mentioned that tourism demand is needs-driven. It must be noted that needs-driven forces could be either classified as push- or pull forces. Needs driven forces were discussed based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Swarbrooke & Horner tourists needs typology. Needs-driven forces was identified as physical and basic needs, safety needs, emotional needs, personal and social needs, status and ego needs, personal development and self-actualisation and cultural needs. Other forces (travel distance and time, the comfort and discomfort of the trip, costs, exchange rate, marketing, accessibility and destination attributes) influencing tourism demand were also discussed. These forces can influence both the desire (push forces) to travel as well as the appeal of the destination (pull forces). Chapter 4 identified the following as push forces influencing destination choice; physical-, interpersonal-, and stature motivators as well as destination accessibility. The following were identified as pull forces that influence destination choice; richness of art, history and culture, atmospheric conditions, events, natural attractions, political issues, economic issues general infrastructure and tourist infrastructure.
To establish empirically where NMBM residents travel to and would like to travel to	This was achieved in Chapter 6 and discussed in Chapter 7, based on the findings from the primary research conducted for this study.
To determine empirically the top ten destination choices of NMBM-residents	This was presented in Chapter 7 based on the findings from the primary research conducted for this study.
To identify empirically pull- and push factors that impact on outbound destination choice	This was presented in Chapter 6 in Figure 6.2 that identified physical-, stature motivators and destination accessibility as the push force that influences destination choice, and the pull forces that influence destination choice are events, natural attractions, political issues and general infrastructure.
To empirically determine the inter-relationship between push- and pull forces	The interrelationship between push- and pull forces was empirically proven in Chapter 6, by means of multiple regression. Tables 6.22 and 6.23 identified this relationship. The findings also indicated that the Beta value for the influence of pull forces on push forces (0.622) is higher than the Beta value for the influence of push forces on pull forces (0.478). This suggests that pull forces influence push forces more than push forces influence pull forces.
To empirically determine whether there is a relationship between the demographic profile of travellers and the push- and pull- factors motivating their destination choice	These statistically significant relationships were presented in Tables 6.24 to 6.35. These relationships were identified by calculating the ANOVAs. Scheffe's tests reveal the differences in the means and Cohen d-tests indicate whether the mean differences were of practical significance. Figure 6.3 depicts a summary of the practically significant relationships.
To provide guidelines to tourism businesses on how to utilise the identified push- or pull forces to lure NMBM residents to certain destinations	This was achieved in section 7.4 of this chapter where, recommendations were provided based on the main empirical and literature findings of this study.

Table 7.1 provided an overview of the objectives of this study and a brief explanation of how these objectives were achieved.

Conclusions and recommendations will be elaborated on in the section to follow.

7.4 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The conclusion and recommendations will be based on the main empirical- and literature research findings. The findings of each section of the questionnaire will be discussed, thereafter recommendations will be provided.

7.4.1 Conclusions and recommendations on demographic data

Section A of the questionnaire (Appendix A) investigated the demographical information of the respondents. The results indicated that more than half of the respondents were female, and in the age group 26 to 35 years and from the white ethnicity group. Just less than half of the respondents speak English, are full-time employed and either work in the manufacturing or finance and insurance sector. Just less than half of the respondents are ordinary employees earning between R10 001 and R20 000 per month and have more than thirteen years work experience. Respondents indicated that they have a post graduate degree/diploma, are married and have no children. These results provide an indication of the general profile of a typical outbound NMBM-tourist. Based on the empirical findings, it is therefore recommended that:

- Different travel packages should be designed so as to accommodate different income levels; and
- As married working individuals with no children usually have more disposable income than married couples with children, specific travel packages should be designed for and promoted to this target market with romance as the driver for destinations such as Paris in France or Mauritius.

7.4.2 Conclusions and recommendations regarding destinations visited and intended to be visited

Section B of the questionnaire (Appendix A) investigated information regarding purpose of and preference for international destinations visited. The majority of the respondents indicated that they travel mainly for leisure purposes. If put in ranking order the top 10 destinations that respondents have visited are: United Kingdom; Mauritius; France; Germany; Italy; United States of America; Belgium; Switzerland; Greece and China. In ranking order, the top 10 destinations where the respondents wish to travel to are: The United States of America; Mauritius; France; United Kingdom; Italy; Australia; Turkey; Spain; China and Germany. It is clear that NMBM residents have travelled or wish to travel to seven of the top 10 destinations namely: The United States of America; Mauritius; France; Germany; Italy; The United Kingdom and China. Although they have travelled to Belgium, Switzerland and Greece, they still wish to travel to Australia, Turkey and Spain.

Literature confirmed (see Table 3.3) that the United Kingdom is the leading outbound holiday destination of South Africans and globally it was ranked eighth (see Table 3.1). It is interesting to note that in this study NMBM-residents travel to Mauritius, Belgium, Switzerland and Greece which were not listed on the global top 10 destinations (see Table 3.1). The most preferred country to be visited is the United States of America and this concurred with literature findings that it is the leading outbound destination for South African citizens (see Table 3.3), and globally the second preferred destination (see Table 3.1). It is therefore recommended that:

- Travel companies designing outbound travel packages should develop special packages for the top ten global and SA-outbound travel destinations. These top 10 lists should be displayed at the travel company or on their website to increase the desire to travel to these destinations; and
- Special travel packages should be designed for South Africans to encourage visits to Mauritius, Belgium, Switzerland, Greece and Australia, as these countries were identified as destinations that the respondents would like to visit, although they do not appear on the global top 10 destination ranking list.

7.4.3 Conclusions and recommendations regarding travel constraints and booking preferences

Section C of the questionnaire (Appendix A) investigated travel constraints and booking preferences. Financial constraints were indicated as the main travel constraint. Respondents were neither in agreement or disagreement on the fact that the number of days leave available, work pressure or the inconvenience of obtaining travel documentation prevents them from travelling. The constraints least preventing NMBM-residents from travelling are fear of the unknown and having a disability. This finding is confirmed by Huh and Singh (2007:214) who state that travellers with a disability are travelling much more frequently as the accessibility to travel-related products has been upgraded to accommodate these individuals. The most preferred travel booking channel is to book on-line. This finding is confirmed by Travelstart (2014:3) that indicated that more than half of the travellers use online bookings. In this study, NMBM-travellers neither agree nor disagree about their preference to book at local- or international travel agents. This finding concurs with findings in a study by Travelstart (2014:3), where it was indicated that fewer travellers use these booking channels. It is therefore recommended that travel companies:

- Consider price-sensitive individuals when designing travel packages by offering more budget travel packages; and
- Assess their on-line sales channels and upgrade their websites to further increase their online bookings;
- Create more on-line awareness of their products through social media such as facebook, twitter, e-mail or short message services; and
- Utilise social media channels to provide more interactivity between existing- and potential travellers so travellers can share their travel experiences after returning home and by doing so encourage potential travellers to visit these destinations.

7.4.4 Conclusions and recommendations of statistically significant relationships

In the next section, the conclusion and recommendations of the significant relationships for push- and pull forces will be indicated.

7.4.4.1 Conclusions and recommendations of significant relationships for push forces

Three significant relationships were found between *physical motivators, stature motivators, destination accessibility* (push forces) and *destination choice*.

(a) Physical motivators

Physical motivators ($H_{1.1a}$) presented a weak statistically significant relationship with *destination choice*. It seems that travellers choose destinations to relax physically and to escape from work-related stress and to relax emotionally and find peace and tranquillity. Physical motivators are grounded in the need to find peace, tranquillity and relaxation at the destination while physical motivators relate to relaxation associated with physical activities, according to Jonsson and Devonish (2008:401).

It is therefore recommended that:

- Travel companies compile travel packages and tours that serve the needs of travellers with regard to physical and emotional relaxation;
- The marketing material should envisage that one can escape from work related stress, or engage in physical activities such as rock-climbing;
- The visuals should entice travellers to travel to escape from work-related stress; and
- Travel companies compile all-in-one packages that combine both physical and emotional relaxation or market them separately.

(b) Stature motivators

Stature motivators ($H_{1.2a}$) presented a weak statistically significant relationship with *destination choice*. It seems that travellers visit sought-after destinations to improve their social status. It appears that travellers also choose destinations to impress friends and family and to meet people they met on social media. O'Reilly (2006:1013) concurs that travel is not all about pleasure and adventure, but also includes maintaining or enhancing social position. It is indicated by Goeldner and Ritchie (2003:243) that, by visiting distant or sought-after destinations, a tourist can gain prestige in the eyes of his or her less well-travelled friends.

It is therefore recommended that:

- Tour wholesale operators make use of social media as a communication- and promotion tool to provide feedback about destinations people have visited and to indicate which specific travel packages they have utilised;

- When travel companies market sought-after destinations, the exclusivity of the destinations should be emphasised;
- Travel companies must display on their website or in the office the most frequently visited destinations; and
- On-line service providers cater for the independent traveller who is confident enough to manage his or her own travel arrangements.

(c) Destination accessibility

Destination accessibility ($H_{1.3a}$) presented a weak statistically significant relationship with *destination choice*. It seems that travellers choose destinations which require a short travel time and have a many attractions in close vicinity of one another. It appears that travellers prefer destinations with no or few visa requirements and where there are no travel warnings. Tourists are also concerned about health risks and select countries that will not put a strain on their current health or countries that require vaccinations. These findings are confirmed in a study by Chiang *et al.* (2012:23) which indicate the more accessible a destination, the more appealing it will become as a potential holiday destination.

It is therefore recommended that travel companies:

- Market destinations by emphasising the accessibility of the destinations in term of health safety conditions;
- Display a list of health service providers that can assist travellers when vaccinations are required, to promote travelling to these countries;
- Assist travellers in obtaining visas when facilities are not available in their home town, and forge partnerships with companies providing visa assistance services. They can then include this service in the travel package fees;
- Develop separate packages for no- or electronic visa (e-visa) countries such as Ireland, Brazil, Thailand and New Zealand;
- Develop travel packages with attractions in close vicinity of each other; and
- Display on their website or in their offices the countries where there are level three travel warnings so that travellers can make informed decisions when wishing to travel to these destinations.

In the following section conclusions and recommendations on significant relationships for pull forces will be presented.

7.4.4.2 Conclusions and recommendations of significant relationships of pull forces

Four significant relationships were found between *events, natural attractions, political issues, general infrastructure* (pull forces) and the dependent variable, *destination choice*.

(a) Events

Events ($H_{2.1a}$) presented a weak statistically significant relationship with *destination choice*. It appears that travellers choose destinations which host conferences, major product launches and trade shows. Getz (2007:143) states that events influence destination choice as travellers will travel to destinations hosting an event, even if it happens to be a once-off event.

It is therefore recommended that:

- Travel companies should not only offer leisure travel packages but also business travel packages. Business travel packages can be promoted where conferences, trade shows and major product launches are held.
- The business travel packages should be all inclusive and should include transportation, accommodation and entry to these events;
- Travel companies conduct research on these events and inform their business clientele of any upcoming events and offer them special individual- and group travel packages; and
- Travel agents should also provide an option for business and leisure combined travel packages, where the traveller can stay on after the event has taken place to explore the destination at leisure.

(b) Natural attractions

Natural attractions ($H_{2.2a}$) presented a weak statistically significant relationship with *destination choice*. It seems that travellers choose destinations that have national parks, wildlife reserves, waterfalls, lakes, dams and other water catchment areas as well as sandy beaches. Travellers also appear to select destinations where there are forests and rock- and cave formations. According to Spilsbury (2009:9), many tourists choose destinations based on the natural attractions available.

It is therefore recommended that:

- Tour operators compile several packages to cater for different travellers' needs such as safaris, beach resort holidays, visiting rock- and/or cave formations or for rock-climbing and natural water attractions such as waterfalls, lakes, dams and other water catchment areas; and
- The visual aids utilised within the marketing material, should entice travellers to want to see these natural attractions.

(c) Political issues

Political issues ($H_{2.3a}$) presented a weak statistically significant relationship with *destination choice*. According to Chauhan and Khanna (2009:41), political issues within the tourist destination influence the perception the tourist has of the destination. In this study, it appears that travellers choose destinations where terrorism and labour unrest are absent and the country is perceived to be politically stable. Travellers also choose destinations with a favourable exchange rate.

It is therefore recommended that travel companies:

- Highlight the political stability of the destination when marketing it;
- Confirm the safety, lack of terrorism and labour unrest within some destinations; and
- Use the exchange rate favourable to South African travellers, as a marketing tool for the specific countries.

(c) General infrastructure

General infrastructure ($H_{2.4a}$) presented an average statistically significant relationship with *destination choice*. It seems as if tourists have a preference for destinations where English is widely understood. It also appears that tourists prefer destinations with a good road-, well-developed airport- and up-to-date telecommunication infrastructure, and in particular an efficient public transportation structure. The empirical findings also indicated that tourists favour destinations with modern banking facilities that provide easy access to money, and destinations that offer good value for money. It also seems as if tourists have a preference for destinations that offer quality accommodation, high food standards and modern sanitation facilities. Most of these findings are confirmed in a study by Campbell and Ortíz (2011:42) who points out that the availability of a general infrastructure at the tourist destination plays an important role in the destination selection process and how appealing a destination will be for tourists.

It is therefore recommended that:

- Marketing material outline the favourable general infrastructure available at the tourist destinations, in particular road-, air- and public transport;
- Tourist destinations are graded according to the level of sanitation present at the destination and that the grading rating is made available to travellers;
- Travel agents provide tourists with information regarding the banking infrastructure at the selected destination and how favourable the SA rand is compared to the currency of the chosen destination; and
- Tourists are informed about the quality of accommodation and food facilities available at the destination and if they will be able to communicate in English with service providers or not.

In the section to follow, conclusions and recommendations will be given regarding the practical significant relationships found in the ANOVA results.

7.4.5 Conclusions and recommendations regarding the practical significant relationships

ANOVAs were utilised in this study to identify which demographic factors can predict the independent variables. Twelve separate ANOVAs were performed on the nine valid and reliable factors confirmed by the EFA conducted and Cronbach's alpha values. Differences between the means of the statistically significant relationships were determined by doing a post hoc Sheffè test. Cohen's d-tests established which of these mean differences were of practical significance.

A significant difference was found between males and females regarding physical or stature destination choice motivators as well as their general infrastructure requirements. These results are in line with findings of Meece, Glinke and Burg (2006:352) who indicate that there is a difference in the motivational factors that influence male- and female travel behaviour. Different age groups have different physical- and stature motivators when choosing an outbound destination. These findings are confirmed in a study by Jonsson and Devonish (2008:406) that suggests that the age of the tourists influences destination selection as well as the activities in which they partake in while on holiday. The employment position of an individual can influence the outbound travel destination events in which they wish to partake. Selecting a potential holiday destination based on physical- and stature motivators, events taking place and how political issues are viewed, will differ according to the work status of the potential traveller.

Different races have different physical- and stature motivators, choose different events and have different general infrastructure expectations which influence their outbound tourist destination choices. Mbuthia and Maingi (2010:1) confirm that racial groups differ in tourism behaviour. The language a potential traveller speaks, may determine how his destination choice is influenced in terms of physical- and stature motivators, destination accessibility, events and general infrastructure requirements. These empirical findings are in accordance with the findings of a study by Ritchie and Crouch (2003:133) that indicate that there is a difference in the motivational factors for different language groups. The income of individuals influences which destinations known for their natural attractions, they will choose. A study by Guillet *et al.* (2011:557) confirms that there is a difference in travel buying behaviour based on the income of the traveller.

The marital status of potential travellers influences interpersonal and stature motivators, events and political issues when making destination choices. These findings concur with the findings in a study by Molina, Gómez and Martin-Consuegra (2010:724) that indicate that marital status influences which destination and travel package will be appealing to specific individuals. The number of children influences destination choice driven by interpersonal motivators, the richness of art history and culture and events in the country, the political status prevailing in the country and quality of general infrastructure. A study by Blichfeldt, Pedersen, Johansen and Hansen (2010:1) states that children influence family vacation decision-making and the choice of destination.

There were no practical significant differences found between work experience and education level and any of the independent variables. There were also no practical significant relationships found between the employment sector of respondents and stature motivators, events, political issues and general infrastructure when choosing an outbound destination.

It is therefore recommended that travel agents:

- Market traveller packages to females with the focus on relaxation, and emphasise the good accommodation and public transport availability. With males the destination should be marketed as sought-after destinations as males regard status as important;
- Include physical activities and adventures when marketing sought-after destinations to the age group 18 to 35 years as physical and stature motivators influence their destination choice. Relaxation-based travel packages should be marketed to individuals in the age group 56 to 65 years as they value this when choosing an outbound travel destination;
- Design travel packages to incorporate racial differences and preferences. To coloured individuals, destinations should be marketed in such a manner that they will appear sought-after as they want to impress friends and family with their destination choice. Destinations which host events should be marketed to black individuals as they prefer these destinations, and also highly regard well-developed infrastructure at the destination;
- Consider the home language of the traveller when compiling marketing material to promote destinations. For Afrikaans-speaking individuals, physical and emotional relaxation, a good road- and airport infrastructure, as well as the availability of modern sanitation facilities should be emphasised. For Xhosa-speaking individuals destinations, hosting events as well as the availability of high quality infrastructure should be highlighted;

- Compile budget travel packages for students to destinations hosting events and also indicate the stature of the events so to attract employed individuals too;
- Market destinations with natural attractions, specifically to lower income groups, and provide budget accommodation as inclusive in the travel package. For higher income groups, more luxury accommodation options should be made available to lure them to destinations with natural attractions;
- Tailor travel packages according to marital status e.g. market destinations to unmarried individuals with the focus on exclusivity and popularity as they regard status as important, and market politically stable destinations to divorcees as they normally travel alone and value safety;
- Focus on a message of family togetherness and strengthening of family bonds in family travel packages, especially for one-child families. Family travel packages should be made attractive to individuals with more than one child with special deals such as to pay for one child while the second child can travel for free.

In the following section the contribution of the study will be discussed.

7.5 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The push- and pull forces influencing outbound destination choice in tourism in a comprehensive study in South Africa have not been identified previously. This research study has made several contributions especially to outbound destination choice. The contributions include the following:

- The study has built a body of knowledge by identifying push- and pull forces that influence outbound destination choice within the South African context;
- STATISTICA (2014) were utilised to perform multiple regression to identify highly significant relationships between the push- and pull forces and outbound destination choice to which travel companies should pay attention to encourage travelling to specific international destinations;
- This study found that push forces such as physical- and stature motivators and destination accessibility have practical significance when selecting an outbound travel destination. These forces are needs-driven and it means that travel companies, when marketing outbound destinations, must emphasise these needs to motivate tourists to travel to these outbound destinations;

- This study also found that attributes (pull forces) such as events, natural attractions, political issues and general infrastructure have practical significance when selecting an outbound travel destination. This means that travel companies, when marketing outbound destinations, must emphasise these attributes to attract tourists to these outbound destinations;
- The study has also developed a hypothetical model that illustrates which push- and pull forces influence outbound destination choice for South African travellers. This model can now be used extensively by other researchers as a framework for further testing or for travel companies to design travel packages which highlight issues that motivate (push) or attract (pull) travellers to a destination;
- The findings of this study also greatly contributed to the body of knowledge with regard to the interrelationship between push- and pull forces within outbound destination choice as the findings of this study contradict the existing theory that push forces influence pull forces to a larger extent;
- This study determined the top 10 destination choices of the NMBM-travellers. It identified their specific needs with regard to product offerings;
- Many demographic indicators that motivate destination choice, were also determined. These results provide advice to travel agents on how to market destinations according to, for example, age, marital status, income and language spoken and indicate which tourism products will appeal to them;
- The outcomes of the study provide all tourism businesses with insight to design appropriate marketing strategies for outbound destination marketing, especially for tour operators and travel agents within the NMBM and South Africa with regard to preferred travel destinations, as no such study has been conducted before in this region;
- The information will assist tourism businesses with knowledge on which destinations to market when compiling tours and travel packages based on to where NMBM-residents wish to travel; and
- The findings of the research will assist travel-related businesses to develop new products that are better suited to the needs of the residents of the NMBM, and for that matter, South Africans, as well as to develop specific outbound tourist marketing strategies. With new product offerings available, it will ensure that

local NMBM-travel agents retain local customers and limit financial leakages to other regions, especially to international travel agencies in other cities in South Africa and abroad.

In the following section the researcher reflects on lessons learnt while conducting the research.

7.6 SELF-REFLECTION

This exploratory study has posed an in-depth perspective into which push- and pull forces influence outbound destination choice, and it forms the basis for future studies. It is encouraging to note that there were both statistical- and practical significant relationships among the demographical variables and the independent variables which enabled the researcher to provide recommendations which can the utilised in practice.

On a personal level, this study enabled the researcher to become more knowledgeable on the tourism industry and which forces influence tourism demand. The study provided the researcher with the opportunity to become an expert in the field of push- and pull forces as a driver in tourism demand. The research greatly increased the researcher's knowledge and ability to execute quantitative research effectively.

In the following section the limitations to the study will be highlighted.

7.7 LIMITATIONS TO THE STUDY

The sample selection in this study was limited to residents in NMBM. Convenience- and snowball sampling were used as the sampling methods within this study, which may have influenced the fact that the sample is not fully representative of the population. However, as it was a rather large sample size, it should not have influenced the generalisability of results too much. It was difficult to find recent literature on outbound push- and pull forces, especially South African literature. The researcher utilised only the databases to which the university has access. Literature from global sources could be utilised as the findings in the study of the top 10 destinations correlate, to a large extent, with the top ten global destination choices.

Despite these limitations, this exploratory study offers a distinct contribution to the literature on push- and pull forces with regards to outbound destinations.

Recommendations for future studies will be discussed next.

7.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

Based on the findings and conclusions derived from this study, the following recommendations are provided:

- The study could be extended to other regions in South Africa;
- A further study to investigate the interrelationship between push and pull forces;
- A qualitative study to confirm the findings of this study and to provide greater clarity on outbound tourism within South Africa.

Concluding remarks of this study will be provided next.

7.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The primary objective and motivation for conducting this study were to determine the push- and pull forces within outbound destination choice. Based on the results and discussion in this chapter, it can be accepted that both the primary and secondary objectives constructed for this study, were achieved. The results of this study greatly contributed to the body of knowledge from a South African perspective, on push- and pull forces within outbound destination choice. The main push factors were physical- and stature motivators and destination accessibility, and the main pull factors influencing destination choice, were events, natural attractions, political issues and general infrastructure. It is clear that there is an interrelationship between push- and pull factors but in this study it was proven that there is a stronger statistical relationship between pull forces influencing push forces than vice versa, contrary to what was found in other studies. This signifies that highlighting destination attributes can be a powerful destination marketing tool.

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ANNEXURE A: QUESTIONNAIRE

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for tomorrow

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30 May 2014

PUSH AND PULL FACTORS INFLUENCING OUTBOUND DESTINATION CHOICE

Dear respondent

The Unit for Applied Management Sciences, a research unit functioning under the auspices of the Department of Business Management and School of Management Sciences at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU), Port Elizabeth, South Africa, is conducting research on the push and pull factors that influence outbound destination choice. We are collecting information in the form of a survey to gauge the perceptions of travellers regarding the reasons why they choose particular outbound travel destinations. This study will provide useful insight to travel agents and the like on what motivate travels and which factors play a role when choosing an outbound destination. All data sources will be treated as confidential and would be used for research purposes only. The majority of the data will be reported in statistical form and no individual respondents will be identified. You can complete the questionnaire anonymously.

The questionnaire comprises of six sections:

- **Section A** canvasses demographic information
- **Section B** seeks psychographic information
- **Section C** explores travel constraints and booking preferences
- **Section D** investigates motivations for travel
- **Section E** surveys destination attributes attracting travellers
- **Section F** explores issues relating to destination choice preferences.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely

Mr D Ferreira Prof S Perks Mrs N Oosthuizen

STUDENT **SUPERVISORS**

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please indicate your choice by means of an (X).

1. Gender			
Male	1	Female	2

2. Age group (in years)			
18-25	1	46-55	4
26-35	2	56-65	5
36-45	3	66+	6

3. Race (for statistical purposes)			
Asian	1	Coloured	3
Black	2	Indian	4
White	5	Not willing to disclose	6

4. Language			
Afrikaans	1	Xhosa	3
English	2	Zulu	4
Other, specify			5

5. Work status			
Full-time employed	1	Retired	4
Part-time employed	2	Student	5
Self-employed	3	Unemployed	6

6. Employment sector			
Mining	1	Real Estate, Rental and Leasing	9
Construction	2	Educational Services	10
Manufacturing	3	Health Care and Social Assistance	11
Wholesaling	4	Art, Entertainment and Recreation	12
Retailing	5	Accommodation and Food Services	13
Transportation and Warehousing	6	Public Administration	14
Information Technology	7	Other, specify:	15
Finance and Insurance	8		

7. Position in organisation			
Business owner	1	Employee	3
Management	2	Other, specify	4

8. Income per month			
< R10 000	1	R40 001 – R50 000	5
R10 001 – R20 000	2	R50 001 – R60 000	6
R20 001 - R30 000	3	R60 001 +	7
R30 001 – R40 000	4	Not willing to disclose	8

9. Work experience (in years)			
None	1	4 - 6	4
<1	2	7 – 9	5
1 - 3	3	10 – 12	6
13 +			7

10. Highest level of education			
Grade12	1	Degree	4
Certificate	2	Post-graduate degree/ diploma	5
Diploma	3		

11. Marital status			
Unmarried	1	Widowed	4
Married	2	Living together	5
Divorced	3		

12. Number of children			
None	1	3	4
1	2	4	5
2	3	5 +	6

SECTION B: DESTINATION INFORMATION

1. Reason for mostly travelling to international destinations	
Business	1
Leisure	2

2. Indicate your previous international destination visited (you may choose more than one alternative)	**Leisure**	**Business**
France		
United States of America		
Spain		
China		
Italy		
Turkey		
United Kingdom		
Germany		
Malaysia		
Mexico		
Russian Federation		
Mauritius		
Australia		
Greece		
The Netherlands		
Sweden		
Switzerland		
Austria		
Belgium		
Canada		
Other, specify		

3. **Indicate the next international destination you would like to visit (select only one alternative)**	**Leisure**	**Business**
France		
United States of America		
Spain		
China		
Italy		
Turkey		
United Kingdom		
Germany		
Malaysia		
Mexico		
Russian Federation		
Mauritius		
Australia		
Greece		
The Netherlands		
Sweden		
Switzerland		
Austria		
Belgium		
Canada		
Other, specify		

SECTION C: TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS AND BOOKING PREFERENCES

	1. **I travel to a limited extent due to …**	**Strongly agree**	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
1	Financial constraints	5	4	3	2	1
2	Number of days leave available	5	4	3	2	1
3	Work pressure	5	4	3	2	1
4	Fear of the unknown	5	4	3	2	1
5	A disability	5	4	3	2	1
6	Inconvenience of obtaining travel documents	5	4	3	2	1
	2. **I prefer to book my international holiday …**					
7	Through a local travel agent as they can answer my questions face-to-face	5	4	3	2	1
8	With international travel agents as they provide better travel deals	5	4	3	2	1
9	Online as it provides me with flexibility with my travel	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION D: MOTIVATION FOR TRAVEL

	I travel to …	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Seek adventure	5	4	3	2	1
2	Relax physically	5	4	3	2	1
3	Relax emotionally	5	4	3	2	1
4	Participate in sport	5	4	3	2	1
5	Find peace and tranquility	5	4	3	2	1
6	Escape from work related stress	5	4	3	2	1
7	Taste new and exotic food	5	4	3	2	1
8	Build family togetherness and strengthen family bonds	5	4	3	2	1
9	Make new friends	5	4	3	2	1
10	Obtain a sentimental connection with a destination	5	4	3	2	1
11	Get to know the local people	5	4	3	2	1
12	Personally connect with people I met on social media	5	4	3	2	1
13	Broaden my experience in my hobbies	5	4	3	2	1
14	Learn and expand my knowledge	5	4	3	2	1
15	Experience the way of life of other cultures	5	4	3	2	1
16	Impress friends and family	5	4	3	2	1
17	Improve my social status	5	4	3	2	1
18	Visit sought-after destinations	5	4	3	2	1
19	Destinations which require a short travel time	5	4	3	2	1
20	Where there are few or no visa requirements	5	4	3	2	1
21	Destinations with a lot of attractions in close vicinity of each other	5	4	3	2	1
22	Countries without travel warnings	5	4	3	2	1
23	Destinations which does not require vaccinations to enter	5	4	3	2	1
24	Countries which will not put strain on my current state of health	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION E: DESTINATION ATTRIBUTES

	I travel to destinations …	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	With many cultural attractions	5	4	3	2	1
2	Rich in military history	5	4	3	2	1
3	With a variety of heritage attractions	5	4	3	2	1
4	Offering many different museums	5	4	3	2	1
5	With a variety of art available	5	4	3	2	1

	I travel to destinations …	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
6	That have archaeological remains	5	4	3	2	1
7	That have a tropical climate	5	4	3	2	1
8	With moderate wind conditions	5	4	3	2	1
9	That have low pollution levels	5	4	3	2	1
10	With a low rainfall	5	4	3	2	1
11	With low humidity levels	5	4	3	2	1
12	Hosting major sporting events	5	4	3	2	1
13	Offering festivals and carnivals	5	4	3	2	1
14	Hosting conferences	5	4	3	2	1
15	Holding major trade shows	5	4	3	2	1
16	Showcasing major product launches	5	4	3	2	1
17	With national parks and wildlife reserves	5	4	3	2	1
18	That have waterfalls, lakes, dams and other water catchment areas	5	4	3	2	1
19	With sandy beaches	5	4	3	2	1
20	That have forests	5	4	3	2	1
21	Known for caves and rock formations	5	4	3	2	1
22	Without terrorism activities	5	4	3	2	1
23	That have no labour unrest	5	4	3	2	1
24	Which are perceived to be politically stable	5	4	3	2	1
25	With low crime rate	5	4	3	2	1
26	That have similar laws as in my home country	5	4	3	2	1
27	With a favourable exchange rate	5	4	3	2	1
28	Where minimal taxes are imposed on tourism goods	5	4	3	2	1
29	That provide good value for money	5	4	3	2	1
30	Offering many shopping opportunities	5	4	3	2	1
31	With modern banking facilities providing easy access to money	5	4	3	2	1
32	With efficient public transport systems	5	4	3	2	1
33	Which have modern sanitation	5	4	3	2	1
34	That have effective waste management systems	5	4	3	2	1
35	Which have modern medical services available	5	4	3	2	1
36	With a good road infrastructure	5	4	3	2	1
37	That have a well-developed airport infrastructure	5	4	3	2	1
38	With an up-to-date telecommunication infrastructure	5	4	3	2	1
39	Offering outdoor activities	5	4	3	2	1
40	Where English is widely understood	5	4	3	2	1
41	With high quality accommodation available	5	4	3	2	1
42	Where food standards are high	5	4	3	2	1
43	That have gambling institutions	5	4	3	2	1
44	Which offer a vibrant nightlife	5	4	3	2	1
45	Where tourists are welcomed by the locals	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION F: DESTINATION CHOICE

	I prefer destinations …	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	With a wide variety of tourist attractions	5	4	3	2	1
2	Which are situated relatively close to South Africa	5	4	3	2	1
3	That have well-known landmarks	5	4	3	2	1
4	Possessing a favourable tourist image	5	4	3	2	1
5	That is affordable	5	4	3	2	1
6	Where I can enjoy religious freedom	5	4	3	2	1
7	That have strong security measures in place	5	4	3	2	1