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MODELLING THE DESTINATION PREFERENCES AND TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS OF TOURISTS IN AN EMERGING MARKET CONTEXT

By

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ABSTRACT

The decision to travel is a complex occurrence involving a variety of multidimensional elements, considerations and decisions. It typically comprises travel motives (push factors) and negotiating destination choices (pull factors), which are influenced by circumstantial and contextual factors. Although a vast array of research has been done on the topic of travel motivation, very little research has been done to determine influences on these choices, as well as the role of barriers in selecting destinations. Most of the research on this topic has focused on plotting tourism movements and preferences, but very little research done to understand the drivers behind such behaviours and how choices are influenced. This thesis contributes to the body of knowledge on this topic.

The existing body of literature predominantly comprises of research on the experienced traveller, whilst often neglecting the emergent traveller. Due to historical social injustices and existing inequalities, emergent travellers face more travel barriers (structural and symbolic). In response to this conceptual and knowledge gap, this thesis focuses on the emergent traveller and factors that impact choices, considering different contextual factors and barriers. This is important if regenerative and sustained tourism growth is to be achieved.

This study seeks to better understand how those who have typically been marginalised by, or excluded from tourism, can be brought into the tourism industry. It promulgates adoption of a more inclusive tourism growth framework and investigates how some of the Westernised theories of tourism participation could meaningfully be adapted, amended or confirmed. Successful marketing and growth strategies are based on identifying and appropriately targeting homogenous groups from more heterogeneous populations. This study attempts to understand destination choices among emergent travellers better and will assist in segmenting emergent travellers which will assist enterprises in designing relevant marketing strategies suitable to discrete groups of tourists, including emergent travellers.

The thesis is set within South Africa which offers a unique opportunity to advance the theoretical and empirical understanding of the dynamics and predictors of destination/activity preferences of adults in an emerging market with ongoing high levels of material inequality and a history of legislative discrimination (in the case of South Africa toward a majority population). The context allows for research to determine the impact of barriers such as racial prejudice on travel preferences. South Africa is therefore considered ideal since it provides the opportunity to (a) explore destination choices among people that have experienced discriminatory practices; (b) provides a large contingent of emergent travellers, and (c) provides an opportunity to determine travel preferences for disparate socioeconomic groups. The thesis employs quantitative methodology, using nationally representative data, based on specialised travel modules fielded as part of the South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS). The sample sizes of each of the datasets exceed 2 800 respondents and are therefore large enough to conduct the analysis with adequate precision.

The first article focuses on travel constraints (both structural and symbolic) and how these have impacted specific destination choice preferences over time (2006-2017). The marginality/ethnicity hypothesis theories formed the basis of the article and regression analyses was used to determine trends in the predictors of travel destination preferences. Article two focuses on destination product preferences and how travel experience impacts the number and combinations of destination choices. It determined if (and how) different travel destination choices vary by rank order between well-travelled and emergent individuals. The analysis gauged whether destination preferences form a Travel Career Ladder (TCL) (Pearce, 1983) or Travel Career Pattern (TCP) (Pearce, 2005) as postulated by these longstanding theoretical models. The taxonomy of McKercher (2016) was used for destination classification, and a cluster and CHAID analysis formed the basis of the analysis. Article three determines the interlinkages between motives (push factors) and destinations (pull factors), considering household income level (banded income). This was done by means of a threshold regression that categorised the data on motivations provided for visiting certain destinations using income thresholds.



Results found that race, as a differential variable to travel destination choice, not only remained, but in fact increased despite the abolishment of legislative segregation policies. This related specifically to interest in Game Parks, where the significance of race as a discriminatory variable increased over the last decade. In addition, results from the thesis challenge the notion of a fixed racial preference in tourism and illustrate that differences in destination preferences among minority (ethnic) groups within race groups are often greater than between race groups. Another finding illustrated that preferences for destinations were best explained by the inter-relational effects of age, income and ethnic group. Geographic residency of the traveller was also found to have a large impact on destination choice and the formation of a travel habitus.

One of the most significant contributions of this thesis pertains to transitioning of groups to new leisure preferences. Young and wealthy individuals within a community generally mirror venturers' notions, exhibiting a heightened interest in tourism spaces outside the habitus. Age and wealth thus act as enablers for individuals within communities to start to explore new destinations, which are insightful, especially from a tourism growth perspective. Results indicated that travel experience furthermore impacted travel choice set sizes, implying that travel experience creates a desire for travel and interest in a greater variety of travel destinations. This study also showed that travel experience does not create travel habits that form a career ladder – thus not creating a heightened interest in lower order taxon destinations or more specific destinations. Travel experience rather creates a travel career pattern with certain destinations being universally popular. In this case, going to the beach, shopping and VFR emerged as core and popular, regardless of travel experience. A threshold regression, which grouped travellers with similar motives into categories using income thresholds, revealed that different income groups have different motives for visiting different destinations, showing that a marketing strategy based on generic motives per destination would not have universal appeal.

Collectively, this thesis provides novel insight into advancing the theoretical and empirical understanding of the dynamics and predictors of destination preferences of



adults in an emerging market with a history of legislative discrimination and high levels of material inequality. It challenges existing theory and illustrates that motives and combinations of motives differ for different income thresholds, thus advancing the TCP theory. It contributes to the body of knowledge on pull factors, illustrating that some destinations can be considered as core or popular, regardless of income or travel experience. This study also makes a methodological contribution when undertaking a threshold regression based on income to group motives of travel. It furthermore uses a range of quantitative methodologies to interrogate data within a unique context, where travel behaviour could be investigated given distinct time periods.

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS AND LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

This section describes the key concepts and abbreviations used in this thesis.

Apartheid

Translated from the Afrikaans meaning 'apartness', apartheid was the ideology supported by the National Party (NP) government and was introduced in South Africa in 1948. Apartheid called for the separate development of the different racial groups in South Africa with the intention of creating a biased administrative infrastructure for bolstering the position of Afrikaners' superiority. It made race and racism central to its nation building (SAHO, 2019; Seekings, 2020).

Attractions

An attraction is defined as some phenomena, experience, activity or feeling offered at specific locations that pulls or motivates tourists with a need to travel out of their usual environments and without which no trip would have been made (Ngwira & Kankhuni, 2018).

Boundary maintenance

Boundary maintenance occurs when a community sets well-defined boundaries between foreign and local cultures (Bello & Kamanga, 2019).

Culture

According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), culture is a set of distinctive spiritual, intellectual, emotional and material features of a social group which encompass lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs (UNESCO, 2002).



Cultural distance

Cultural distance refers to the extent to which the culture of the originating place differs from that of the host place (Ahn & McKercher, 2015). Common measures used to measure cultural distance are language, religious similarity or ethnicity (Yang, Liu & Li, 2019).

Dependables

This term describes tourists who are inhibited, nervous and non-adventurous travellers (Plog, 1974; Plog, 2001). The original term for this type of tourist was a psychocentric but in order to make the terminology more understandable and commercial, the term was changed by Plog (1995) to dependables who has preferred and used the latter term ever since (Plog, 2001). The opposite of dependables are venturers.

Destination positioning

Destination positioning is concerned with the analysis of market perceptions not in isolation as in the measurement of destination image, but relative to a competing set of brands (Fyall, 2019).

Domestic tourism

The tourism of resident visitors within the economic territory of the country of reference (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

Emerging market

The emerging tourism market refers to population groups entering the market in increasing numbers as domestic tourists, especially those previously neglected (Kruger & Douglas, 2015). In South Africa, the emerging market would typically consist of black African, coloured and Indian/Asian race groups.



Ethnicity

Ethnicity denotes groups that share a common identity-based ancestry, language, or culture. Ethnic classification is often based on religion, beliefs, and customs as well as memories of migration or colonisation (Cornell & Hartmann, 2006).

Inclusive tourism

Initiatives which include new people and new places in tourism in ways that promote social, spatial and economic integration (Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2018).

Leisure constraints

Leisure constraints are conceptualised as structural, intrapersonal and interpersonal barriers that affect participation in leisure activities, including travel and tourism (Godbey, Crawford & Shen, 2010).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a motivational theory in psychology comprising a five-level hierarchy of human needs. This model is depicted as a pyramid with five levels. From the bottom of the hierarchy upwards, the needs are: physiological (food and clothing), safety (job security), love and belonging needs (friendship), esteem, and self-actualisation. This hierarchy suggests that people are motivated to fulfil basic needs before moving on to other, more advanced needs (Maslow, 1970).

Multi-ethnicity

Multi-ethnicity refers to an environment or context that reflects the society's constituent ethnic/racial communities and are typically structured as group-based hierarchies (Sidanius, Brubacher & Silinda, 2019).

Pull factors

Pull factors are factors that attract a tourist to a given destination (Dann, 1977).

Push factors

Push factors are intrinsic to the traveller and deal with desires to travel (Dann, 1977).

Symbolic boundaries

Symbolic boundaries imply an understanding of who belongs to the in-groups and who to the out-groups (Edgell, Stewart, Billups & Larson, 2020).

Taxonomy

Taxonomy is a classification system which classifies organisms into groups according to their similarities and differences. Items, animals or plants are first classified into similar groups or populations and then classification is done in a hierarchical fashion, from the broadest down to the more specific. A taxonomic framework therefore progresses downward to the more specific and *vice versa* upward to the more general. In this study, tourism products were sorted in a taxonomy according to the need families (pleasure, personal quest, human endeavour and nature). Each need family then progressed to more specific products within the need family; namely the product family, product class, product line, product type and product subtype (McKercher, 2016).

Territorial tourism spaces

Territorial tourism spaces imply tourism enclaves consisting of spaces perceived to be geographies of exclusive spaces in tourism (Saarinen & Wall-Reinius, 2021).

Threshold regression

Threshold regression is a technique that internally sorts the data, on the basis of some threshold determinant, into groups of observations, each of which obeys the same model. In essence, threshold regressions are breakpoint least squares regressions with data reordered with respect to a threshold variable (Fong, Huang, Gilbert &

Permar, 2017). In the case of this study, the threshold variable included is income and the analysis therefore creates different groups, based on income thresholds for travel motives considering each travel destination separately.

Travel Career Ladder (TCL)

The Travel Career Ladder (TCL) is a multi-motive model depicting travellers' motivations through five needs levels. Based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the TCL levels include physiological, safety or security, relationship, self-esteem or development, and fulfilment motives (Pearce, 1988; Pearce and Moscardo, 1985; Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983). Throughout a tourist's life span, travel motivations will change as travel experiences accumulate (Ryan, 1998).

Travel Career Pattern (TCP)

The Travel Career Pattern (TCP) model is an adaptation of the Travel Career Ladder (TCL) approach to understanding tourist motivation (Pearce, 2005). The assumption of the TCL, based on Maslow's needs hierarchy, was that one level of motives must be fulfilled before moving up the hierarchy or 'ladder'. In contrast, the TCP disregards the hierarchical order and places travel motivations in a more multi-level structure by rather emphasising the changes in motivation patterns (Pearce, 2005).

Tourist consciousness

Tourist consciousness is the way in which people or communities attribute meaning to a tourism context and the impressions they form as a result of the process. This consciousness can be based on real experiences, or on perceptions (Musavengane & Leonard, 2019).

Tourism destination

A tourism destination is viewed as a complex adaptive system which implies that a destination is not only a geographic space, but rather a system of many parts which are coupled in a non-linear fashion (Jovicic, 2019).

Tourism destination attractiveness

The attractiveness of a destination is referred to as the opinions of people about the ability of the destination to fulfil their needs (Vengesayi, Mavondo & Reisinger, 2009).

Travel habitus

Habitus is shared cultural traits, dispositions, norms and values held by groups. It is developed unconsciously through the thoughts, habits and feelings of individuals as they respond to the immediate social environment. Habitus clarifies human behaviour in terms of socio-historical conditions and the way in which individuals react to them. Often, what is regarded as appropriate or inappropriate is determined by group members' norms and values or conduct modes (Lee and Scott 2017).

Tourism motivation

Tourism motivation is a complex system of biological, cultural and structural forces which impacts travel choices (Pearce, Morrison & Rutledge, 1998). Understanding tourism motivation is a key requisite to understanding tourist destination choice and the entire decision-making process (Wangari, 2017).

Tourist preferences

Tourist preference refers to visitors' perceptions and comments on destinations and conveys a notion of comparison (Sun, Ma & Chan, 2018).

Venturers

This term describes tourists who are outgoing, self-confident and adventurous. (Plog, 2001; Plog, 1974). The original term for this type of tourist was allocentric, but in order to make the terminology more understandable and commercial, the term was changed by Plog (1995) to venturer and since then he has preferred to use the term venturer (Plog, 2001). The opposite of venturers are dependables.



The table below provides a summary of abbreviations and meanings referred to in this thesis.

Abbreviation	Meaning
AGRI-SA	Agri-South Africa
CHAID	Chi-square Automatic Interaction Detector
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GIS	Geographic Information System
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PSU	Primary Sampling Unit
RO	Research Objective
SAL	Small Area Layer
SAS	Statistical Analysis System
SASAS	South African Social Attitudes Survey
SAS CALMAR	Statistical Analysis System Calibration on Margins
SSU	Secondary Sampling Unit
StatsSA	Statistics South Africa
TCL	Travel Career Ladder
TCP	Travel Career Pattern
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNIANOVA	Univariate Analysis of Variance
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
VFR	Visiting Friends and Relatives
ZCC	Zionist Christian Church



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CHAPTER 1: CONTEXTUALISATION OF THE STUDY

MODELLING THE DESTINATION PREFERENCES AND TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS OF TOURISTS IN AN EMERGING MARKET CONTEXT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the globe has been devastating on many fronts. From a tourism perspective, international and national lockdowns during the pandemic made travel virtually impossible and the loss in revenue is estimated to be in the vicinity of \$ 2.1 trillion, with 62 million tourism jobs lost in 2020 (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2020; Statista, 2022). Countries more dependent on tourism were most affected and developing countries were also hard hit, not only due to the loss of vital foreign currency but also the opportunity loss in terms of tourism supply chains, local firm productivity and job creation. In spite of the enormous challenges posed by the pandemic, some academics and tourism practitioners saw this as an opportunity to pause, reflect and use a “future-back” evaluation to determine what opportunities or better practices can arise from this pandemic (Haywood, 2020). Although these evaluations mostly focus on restorative and regenerative justice for local communities to ensure respect for local rights, social and physical spaces (Haywood, 2020; Rastegar, Higgins-Desbiolles & Ruhanen, 2021), they also reference the exclusive nature of tourism and the skewed participation in travel and tourism. They allude to the challenges and opportunities that exist to develop tourism in more transformational and transcendent ways, thus being more inclusive (Haywood, 2020; Higgins-Desbiolles, Doering & Bigby, 2021).

Such an inclusive tourism approach does not only present transformative value, but also has commercial value. The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) has alluded to the profitability of emergent tourists and markets and indicated they



should be considered given their increasing importance in the competitive marketplace (Rasool, Maqbool & Tarique, 2021; UNWTO, 2017). According to forecasts, the Global North, more specifically Western Europe and Northern America, would experience slower tourism growth in the next decade whilst Africa, the Middle East, the Pacific and especially Asia would grow much faster. The in-bound tourism base as well as domestic tourism in these regions are expected to increase as new labour rights legislations, automation and other enablers, such as the relaxing of government regulations, create better infrastructure and a more stable set of middle-income earners (Claveria, 2016). An increase in economic wealth, improvements in transport, relaxation of regulations and increases in worker benefits generally act as enablers for tourism growth and generally lead to an increase in interest in tourism activities (Rogerson, 2015a). Greater mobility and more disposable income are potentially the catalysts for a more “formal manifestation of domestic tourism” (Rogerson, 2015a:122). Although these projections were made prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, there is no reason to believe that emergent markets will not continue to grow as people seek new experiences (OECD, 2020; Rasool *et al.*, 2021)

The challenge is that new and emergent travellers typically differ from more established markets or experienced travellers. Emergent travellers do not only face financial barriers, but also administrative and political barriers that impact their travel motivation. Progress in tourism development is being hampered by a failure to understand the impact and significance of a context and tourism’s past (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2019; Saarinen, Rogerson & Hall, 2017; Walton, 2009). It is, therefore, prudent to consider motivation holistically and include the impact of constraints and barriers on travel intention and behaviour (Bakker & Messerli, 2017; Cohen & Cohen, 2015; Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2018; Xie & Ritchie, 2019). Despite the importance of context, there is an insistent failure of tourism’s scholarship to grasp the significance of tourism's past, which has impoverished understanding of current developments and tourism growth models.

The basis of constraints and exclusion among emergent tourists is often associated with factors including race, ethnicity and poverty. These factors tend to hamper, or at the very least impact tourism participation and hinder more inclusive tourism growth



(Hampton, Jeyacheya & Long, 2018; Rogerson, 2020; Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2018). Communities and individuals are excluded from developments based on these grounds and Samdahl (2005) believes that these types of constraints are the consequences of a structural order in societies that benefit certain people and disempower others. When considering emergent travellers, the social context is therefore critical (Stodolska, Shinew & Camarillo, 2019), but many tourism studies ignore social realities and the broader context of people's lives. Not only does context impact tourism participation *per se*, but it also has a bearing on the types of travel and destinations chosen.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Our theoretical understanding of travel inclusion and progression among emergent travellers and travel destination choice preferences is limited. Novice and emergent travellers and markets are typically different from more established markets and motivational models do not cater for these groups (Stodolska *et al.*, 2019). The tourism phenomenon has generally been viewed as a modern Western occurrence, underscored by a pursuit for wholeness and authenticity to remedy the discontent, monotony and isolation of modernity (Cohen & Cohen, 2015). This approach has inevitably influenced the theoretical discourse of tourism studies, forcing travel motivation studies to be strongly biased towards Western paradigms (Bui & Jolliffe, 2011) and by implication focused on resourceful individuals. Given the Westernised bias of tourism motivation theory, scholars have argued that these paradigms and assumptions struggle to effectively address tourism challenges in developing regions or emerging tourists (Bui & Jolliffe, 2011; Cohen & Cohen, 2015). Critics have argued that tourism theories originating in the West do not cater for and adequately consider unique, non-Western tourism trends and motives (Kruger & Douglas, 2015; Rogerson, 2020). According to these critics, the approach to tourism should be universal "etic" but is in fact "emic", focused on modern Western travellers (Cohen & Cohen, 2015). This Westernised bias of travel motivation theories underplays the informal, ordinary, more localised tourism practices in developing countries and cultures (Bui & Jolliffe, 2011).



The Western bias of these theories has resulted in an oversupply of theories on travel motives and why people travel and visit certain destinations. In the process, theories on why people fail to travel or avoid certain destinations have been neglected (Chang, 2009; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Tjiptono & Yang, 2018). Travel destinations are not always neutral terrain but historically-loaded constructs, containing images and traces from the past (Rogerson, 2017; Saarinen *et al.*, 2017). For instance, due to previous discriminatory policies, individuals and societies could perceive certain destinations as risky, with an anticipation of being treated hostile at a destination. Some studies provide evidence of the impact of perceived risk on destination choice and the decision to avoid these destinations (Chang, 2009; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Tjiptono & Yang, 2018). Even though barriers and discriminatory policies have largely been removed, the symbolic effect of the impact of such discriminatory policies remains and still affects destination and activity preferences. It can explain why one's choice of travel destination or activity is not merely spontaneous or an impulsive personal decision, but rather the result of a complex interplay between the tourist and his/her social and historical circumstances (Jovicic, 2019).

The result of these dynamics forms the basis of the habitus theory (Lee & Scott, 2017). According to the habitus theory, differences among social groups created by social and historical circumstances, are eventually internalised and institutionalised within social groups and become socialised norms or tendencies that guide behaviour and thinking. Habitus is therefore developed unconsciously through habits, feelings and thoughts within individuals in response to their surrounding social environment, shaped by the socio-historical circumstances (Lee & Scott, 2017). Tourism behaviour is comprehensible as a manifestation and reinforcement of a social environment, upbringing, cultural norm, and social class. Among emergent travellers, the habitus theory potentially explains why travel patterns remain entrenched and travel expansion outside habitus formation is difficult (Lee & Scott, 2017).

Another void that exists in the tourism literature hindering progress towards tourist inclusion is an understanding of the prioritisation of travel destinations *per se*. Prioritisation of travel motives (push factors) has been established; consider for



instance the Travel Career Ladder (TCL) (Moscardo, Morrison, Pearce, Lang & O'Leary, 1996; Pearce, 1988; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983) and Travel Career Pattern (TCP) (Pearce, 2005). However, it is unknown if destinations (pull factors) also form some hierarchy (prioritisation) of preference. The lack of such information hampers tourism growth models, given that research in tourism has shown that novice travellers tend to be low-risk takers, territory bound, anxious and nervous travellers. They prefer the familiar (characteristics associated with dependables) rather than being risk takers, curious, adventurous travellers who enjoy a sense of discovery and new experiences (characteristics associated with venturers) (Plog, 2001). Understanding the hierarchy of destination choices will therefore assist in creating a better understanding of sequenced preferences.

A further limitation that is problematic in growing tourism among emergent travellers is the lack of information regarding the impact of income bands on motives for different destination preferences. The TCP is the most comprehensive framework explaining travel motives to date, but further segmentation of specific travel motives per income band per destination would enable researchers to understand travel motives, especially emergent travellers even better (McKercher *et al.*, 2021b). Considering income bands in the TCP model will assist in identifying homogenous groups with specific motives and will identify smaller segments which will enable better targeted interventions, based on appropriate product offerings.

1.3 STUDY AIM AND OBJECTIVES

This study investigates the dynamics associated with travel destination choice of adults in an emerging market, with a history of legislative discrimination and high levels of material inequality. The aim is to increase the theoretical and empirical understanding of travel inclusion and progression among emergent travellers by considering constraints (symbolic and structural) and determining the prioritisation of destination choices. It also determines the relationships between motives, destination choices and income thresholds.



Exploring the balance between low and high travel experience and understanding destination choice from a numeric and taxonomic position, further the understanding of the process involved in selecting destinations. During the invoked phase, alternatives are weighed up against each other and destinations are essentially ranked prior to being actioned (Karl et al., 2015). Information on positioning of destination choices considering travel experience has the potential to shape and guide tourism growth models and attract new and emergent tourists.

More specifically, the research objectives of the study are as follows:

- RO1: To determine if race remains a barrier in travel destination choice, despite the long-gone removal of all formal racial discriminatory legislature.
- RO2: To determine the relative importance of socio-demographic (race, ethnicity, age, gender) and socio-economic (income, education) variables on destination choice preferences.
- RO3: To determine if education, income, geotype, race, ethnicity, employment, cohabitation status, age or a combination of these socio-demographic variables facilitate transition to destinations considered to be outside the habitus of emergent travellers.
- RO4: To determine if interest in the number of destination preferences varies between emergent travellers and experienced travellers.
- RO5: To determine if travel experience impacts destination preference and if travel experience results in a travel career or travel pattern of choice.
- RO6: To determine which travel motivations (as per the Travel Career Pattern) or socio-demographic variables drive or dominate destination preferences, given income levels.

The thesis sheds light on the factors at play when considering destinations and undertaking travel. It determines the lasting impact of symbolic boundaries, in the form of race, on travel destination preferences and how transition to new destinations can be facilitated amongst emergent travellers. It thereby creates an understanding of how those who have typically been marginalised by, or excluded from tourism, can be brought into the tourism industry. It promulgates adoption of a more inclusive tourism



growth framework and investigates how some of the Westernised theories of tourism participation could meaningfully be adapted, amended or confirmed. The study uses South African data, which presents an ideal case study given its unique characteristics in terms of its history of legislative travel segregation, extreme socio-political challenges and multi-ethnic societal composition. South Africa offers a unique opportunity for researching emergent tourists and the impact of actual and subtle leisure constraints on different destinations/activities.

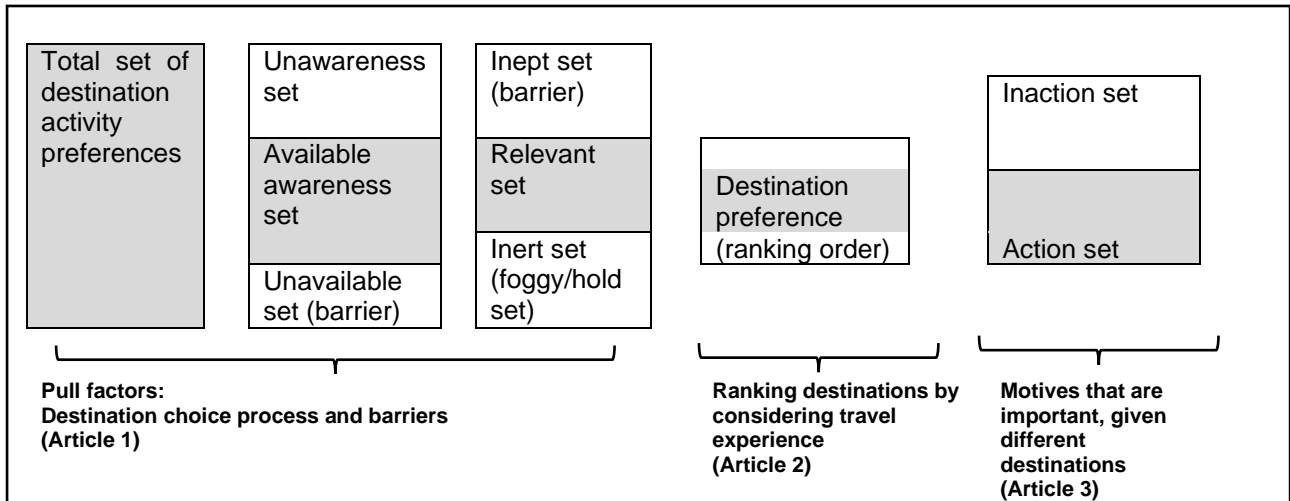
1.4 BACKGROUND TO DESTINATION CHOICE

The contribution and aim of this thesis can be illustrated at the hand of the set theory (Karl, Reintinger & Schmude, 2015). Accordingly, Figure 1 provides a conceptual layout of the study and how the articles in the thesis relate to destination choice given the set theory framework. Destination choice is a multi-stage process, where various alternative destinations/activities are reduced in a funnel-like manner (Karl *et al.*, 2015; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), progressively eliminating destination choices during three core stages. It starts with an individual's awareness of destinations; followed by distinctions based on availability, ability and acceptability to visit these destinations; and lastly taking action towards visiting destinations deemed relevant (Karl *et al.*, 2015; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). During the initial phase of decision-making, several destinations are considered, which are grouped in an unawareness set (the person is not aware of potential destinations); an unavailable awareness set (the person is aware of the destinations, but it is not available due to a variety of reasons); and an available awareness set. The available awareness set is further divided into a relevant set (destinations considered), an inept set (destinations which are ruled unacceptable to the person for a variety of reasons) and an inert set (destinations which the traveller is undecided on). Article 1 (Chapter 2) will contribute to a better understanding of why certain destinations are ruled as unacceptable, thus becoming part of the inept set.

In the framework of Karl *et al.* (2015), a destination preference is derived but no mention is made of the ranking of these destinations in order of preference (destination positioning) conveying a notion of comparison (Fyall, 2019; Sun, Ma & Chan, 2018).

This thesis contributes to this framework by investigating the rank order of destinations in Article 2. The last phase of the framework illustrates the actioning of travel and in Article 3, the thesis interrogates motives associated with destination choices in further detail, specifically by investigating income bands.

Figure 1: A conceptual framework of the study following the set theory framework

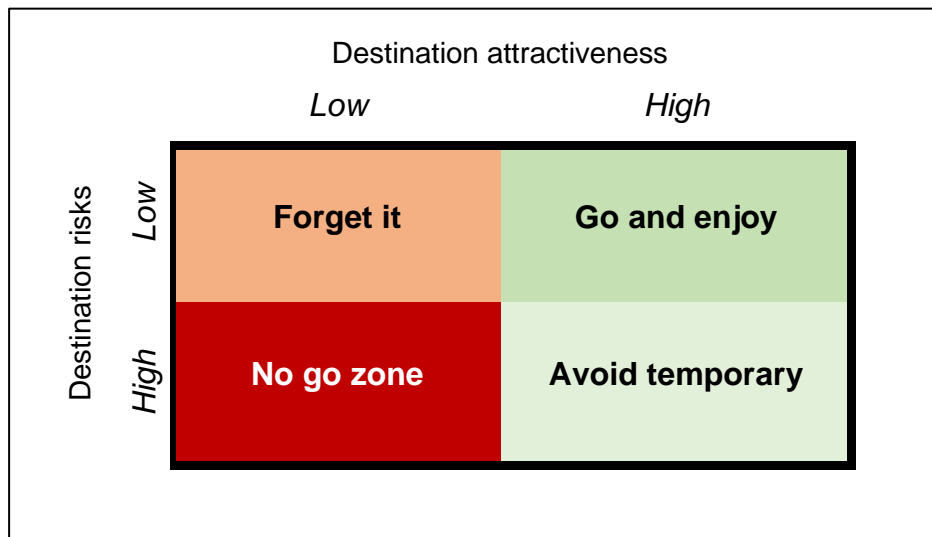


Source: Adapted from Karl *et al.* (2015).

Understanding why travellers avoid particular activities or destinations is critical when attempting to entice emergent travellers to travel or to extend travel beyond their habitus. In an attempt to fill this void, Tjiptono and Yang (2018) created a typology of tourist destination acceptance/avoidance, based on a summation of the available literature (Figure 2). The typology consists of four quadrants depicting destination avoidance or acceptance scenarios. It has two axes, one negative (depicting risks) and one positive (depicting destination attractiveness). The first quadrant depicts a non-avoidance situation, namely the “Go and enjoy” option, where the destination attractiveness is high and the perceived destination risks low. This situation typically depicts a situation of no threat. To the emergent traveller this would depict a destination that is culturally familiar, with no symbolic boundaries and where no challenges or conflict with an identity or lifestyle is evident. The opposite to this is the so called “No-go” zone, where the risks are high and the destination attractiveness is low. From a traveller’s perspective, this is the least preferred destination and there is no enticement to visit this destination. From a marketer’s perspective, this is almost an impossible

situation to rectify, and these destinations would typically form part of the inept destination set. The “Forget it” quadrant is where the destination attractiveness is low, and the perceived risks are low. From a traveller’s perspective, there is thus no desire to visit such an area (Tjiptono & Yang, 2018).

Figure 2: A typology of tourist destination avoidance



Source: Tjiptono and Yang (2018).

The “Avoid temporary” dimension depicts a situation where the desire is high, and the dangers and negatives associated with the destination are also high. From an emergent traveller’s perspective, perceived symbolic boundaries might be at the heart of the avoidance. Negative forms of socio-cultural consciousness can cause travellers to avoid such destinations, products or experiences (Tjiptono & Yang, 2018).

The “Avoid temporary” dimension of the destination avoidance typology is the dimension that is considered as important in this thesis. Marginalised groups would typically find a destination attractive and would like to visit the destination, but due to perceived risks (for instance covert and overt discrimination or fear of alienation), these destinations have been avoided. From a traveller’s perspective, the likelihood of visiting an “Avoid temporary” destination seems to be higher than to travel to a “Forget it” region. From a tourism growth perspective, it would therefore be prudent to focus and understand the perceived barriers to these destinations and the enablers of moving from the “Avoid temporary” to “Go and enjoy” category”. When considering



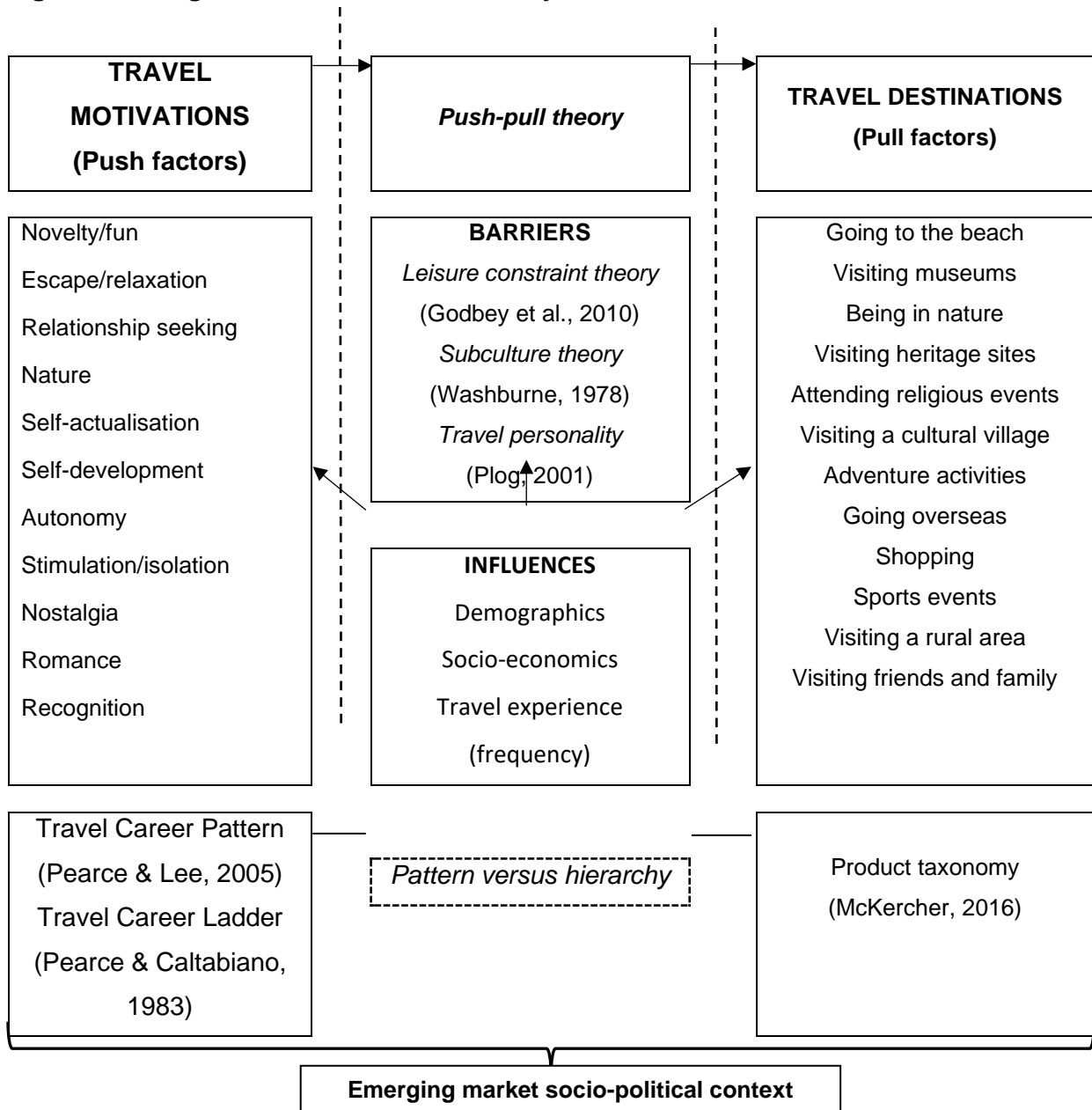
tourism growth models and specifically, when the intention is to grow tourism among the emergent contingent, facilitating the transition between “Avoid temporary” and “Go and enjoy” is the challenge.

1.5 INTEGRATED FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

This section presents a schematic framework of the study. It indicates the three empirical phases, theoretical underpinning and theories applied. The intention of the study is to increase the theoretical and empirical understanding of travel inclusion and progression among emergent travellers, by considering constraints (symbolic and structural) and determining the prioritisation of destination choices. The study also aims to determine relationships between motives, destination choices and income thresholds. Figure 3 serves to illustrate the integrated framework of the study and helps to understand how the aim of the study is achieved. At the core of the framework is the sign-gestalt paradigm or “push” and “pull” framework. As can be seen, travel motives (push factors) and travel destinations (pull factors) are juxtaposed in the blocks on the sides. The travel motives (push factors) illustrated in the left box are the travel motives according to the TCP which are considered the most comprehensive to date (McKercher, Tolkach, Mahadewi & Byomantara, 2021a). The pull factors or destinations used in this study are illustrated in the right-hand box. Between the push and pull factors are the barriers that potentially hinder realisation of destination selection. Factors that influence travel motives, destination preferences and potentially act as barriers are accordingly presented in the framework between the push and pull factors. Article 1 (Chapter 2) of the thesis determines whether socio-demographics act as symbolic and structural barriers to pull factors. It also investigates the longevity of these symbolic boundaries. Article 2 investigates the ordering of travel destination preferences and determines if it forms a hierarchy or pattern, thereby determining the ranking of destinations. The methodology of the TCL is used and the destination choices are ranked according to the product taxonomy (McKercher, 2016). The framework illustrates that travel motives impact destination choice and in Article 3, the impact of motives on destination choice is reviewed. In what is regarded as novel work, a threshold regression technique is implemented, using income to determine which motives are associated with which income threshold. In other words, for each income

threshold, the motives that are significant to a specific destination are identified. As is illustrated in the figure, this study considers emergent travellers and indicates that the socio-political context is critical (Stodolska *et al.*, 2019).

Figure 3: Integrated framework of the study



Source: Author's construct (2022).



1.6 THEORETICAL CONTEXT AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The push and pull framework (Dann, 1977) is one of the most popular frameworks to understand tourism motivation, which explains that a link exists between motives why people travel to specific destinations. This framework provides the basis for understanding the relationship between motives (push factors) and destinations (pull factors) and is particularly important given the intention of Article 3 (RO6) to determine relationships between motives, destination choices and income thresholds. This theory is discussed in more detail in section 1.6.1. The Travel Career Ladder (TCL) (Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983) and Travel Career Pattern (TCP) (Pearce & Lee, 2005) theories are discussed in depth in the next section (section 1.6.2). The intention of this section is to illustrate the conceptual thinking around the ladder and pattern of motives. This is important since a central aim of the thesis is to determine if pull destinations potentially form a hierarchy or pattern similar to push motives. The next section, section 1.6.3 introduces a discussion on the taxonomy of tourism products (McKercher, 2016). The taxonomy indicates the position of destination products/activities in a hierarchical manner. These theories are relevant to Article 2, RO4 and RO5.

To contextualise the impact of barriers (symbolic and structural) on destination preferences, the theory of leisure constraints and the ecological model of leisure constraints are discussed in section 1.6.4, and introduce the relative importance of intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints. According to the theory of leisure constraints, structural constraints (finances) and interpersonal issues (socio-cultural variables) are the most important reasons for non-participation and disinterest in leisure activities. In order to test whether structural constraints or symbolic boundaries based on race dominate in leisure preference, section 1.6.5 introduces the sub-cultural theory of Washburne (1978) with the marginality/ethnicity hypothesis as subsets. This leads into a discussion of the theory of Plog (1974), which conceptually explains the transition to destinations considered to be outside travel habitus (Section 1.6.6). Sections 1.6.4-1.6.6 therefore covers RO1-RO3.



1.6.1 Push and pull factors

Over the years, travel motivation has been measured by many researchers using various conceptual frameworks and scales but the sign-gestalt paradigm, better known as “push” and “pull” factors, which was first introduced by Tolman (Wangari, 2017) and later advanced by Dann (1977), is the conceptual framework most used by researchers, practitioners and theorists to explain the process that dictates travel destination choice. By the 1970s push and pull factors had been accepted as common tourism vocabulary, but literature dealing with this topic tended to deal with push factors (Cha, McCleary & Uysal, 1995; Fodness, 1994; Pearce, 1988) and pull factors (Cha *et al.*, 1995; Sirakaya & McLellan, 1997) separately. Fewer studies focused on both push and pull factors (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Basala & Klenosky, 2001; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Kassean & Gassita, 2013; Khuong & Ha, 2014; Oh, Uysal & Weaver, 1995; Turnbull & Uysal, 1995).

The work of Dann (1977) essentially concretised the link between push and pull factors. His work, together with the work of Crompton (1979) and Plog (1974), triggered a voluminous number of publications on push and pull factors in travel and tourism, attempting to not only understand reasons and motives why people travel, but also why people travel to specific destinations. As literature developed, push factors became known as intrinsic, internal motivation factors and pull factors, on the other hand, were considered as extrinsic or external motivators, linked to a destination or activity (Khuong & Ha, 2014).

The most prominent literature using the push and pull theory suggests that motives are not static and can vary according to a life stage, psychographics, travel experience or socio-demographics such as income, education and a variety of other factors. Studies have confirmed that motives differ among travellers from different countries (Kim & Prideaux, 2005; You, O'Leary, Morrison & Hong, 2000), students from different countries (Marques, Mohsin & Lengler, 2018), across various destinations and nationalities (Kozak, 2002) and among tourists participating in specific activities, such as white water rafting (Albayrak & Caber, 2018). Although these and other studies have been undertaken to determine the link between push and pull factors, not much is



known about the nuances between the change in motives of those interested in a specific destination. All motives might play a role in the travel decision process, but the weight of each motive for different destinations and trips vary (McKercher *et al.*, 2021a). This study contributes to the push and pull theory by undertaking a threshold regression, using income to understand which motives dominate in the different income thresholds for a specific destination. Income was used as the threshold variable, given the focus on emergent travelers in this thesis.

1.6.2. The Travel Career Ladder (Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983) and the Travel Career Pattern (Pearce & Lee, 2005)

Motivational research has explored whether travel motivations (push factors) form a hierarchy or pattern (as subsequently discussed). Literature is however lacking on the evolving nature of travellers' destination and activity preferences (pull factors) and whether pull factors form a hierarchy or pattern. Such an undertaking would theoretically and practically be valuable. If a hierarchy forms, it implies that marketers should incrementally determine on which level travellers are to entice them to progress further and expand the market. If destination choice forms a pattern, then the intention would be to focus on the core destinations/activities and expand the market from there. In this thesis, destinations/activities (pull factors) are thus investigated. In undertaking their study on motivational push factors, Pearce and Lee (2005) used Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1970) as the conceptual framework for their travel motivation theories. This study uses the product taxonomy of McKercher (2016) as a framework to determine the placement of destinations. The next section discusses the methodology of the TCL and TCP in detail to illustrate the rationale and methodology employed. This is important, given that this thesis will employ a similar conceptual rationale to determine if destinations/activities form a hierarchy or pattern.

Before discussing the TCL and TCP and the central role of these frameworks in the thesis, it would be remiss not to mention a concern associated with the TCL, TCP and travel motivational theories in general. The concern pertains to the fact that research on motivational research, including the TCL and its latter pattern version, is based on post-hoc recollections, thus based on narrations of travel after the fact. Travelers explain and justify their travel choices retrospectively, which might result in recall error

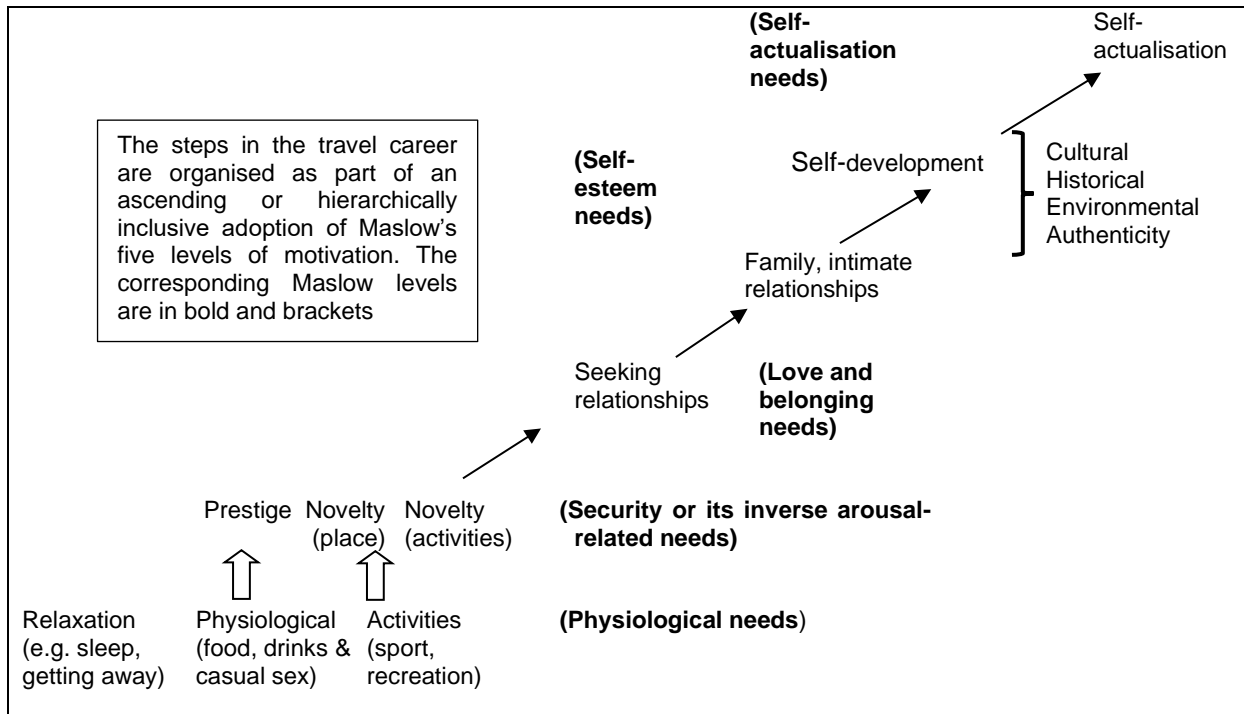


or the use of socially acceptable reasons for their destination choices. As a result, the TCP and TCL is not based on insights or motives before the actual travel takes place but rather offers insight into perceived motives after the actual travel experience. The criticism is therefore largely that this might bias and impact the true nature of actual motives. In this study, the investigation relies on prospective (interest in destinations) rather than retrospective analysis and is therefore based on intentions and not subject to retrospective recall error.

1.6.2.1 The Travel Career Ladder

Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) undertook a study to determine if travel motives could be dovetailed to Maslow's hierarchy of needs. One of the reasons for undertaking the study was that other seminal studies on tourism motivation, such as Dann (1977) and Crompton (1979) observed that tourists are not able to reflect or express real travel motives, and as such they aimed to develop a framework of travel motives. A group of 110 experienced and a group of 44 inexperienced travellers were asked to write down one positive and one negative experience from their holidays. Coding revealed that these experiences could be grouped according to the motivational needs of Maslow. Many observations pertained to experiences involving food, sun and relaxation and were scored as representing 'physiological needs'. Experiences involving a sense of comfort and safety were classified as 'security needs'. Close relationships and cementing family ties were coded as 'love and belonging'. Improved self-image was classified as 'self-esteem', while experiences reflecting profound important issues pertaining to the meaning of life were coded as 'self-actualisation' (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Suggested steps in the tourists' travel careers



Source: Pearce (1988). Note: Maslow's motivational needs in bold and brackets

Another intention of the study of Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) was to determine if motivational change would occur over time as a result of more travel experience. Travel experiences were disaggregated between low and high travel experience groups and it was concluded that travel experience does impact travel motivation. More experienced travellers were more concerned with higher order needs (love and belonging, as well as self-actualisation) in terms of describing positive experiences. They were also more concerned with threats to their self-esteem and self-actualisation experiences than less experienced travellers. Contrary, low travel experience groups were more concerned with basic physiological needs. Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) concluded that this work was valuable to the industry since destination characteristics could be recast from a motivational point of view. The attractiveness of destinations was also not just a conglomerate of attractive features, but something that appealed to inner needs.

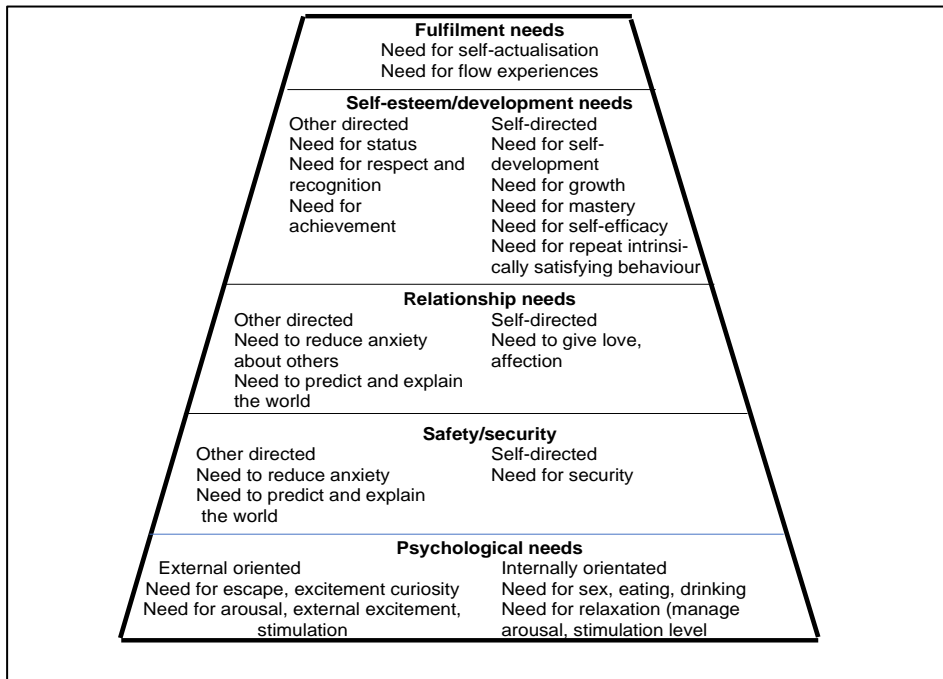
After the paper in 1983, Pearce continued his work and conceptualised the TCL (Pearce & Lee, 2005). Although the term career is mostly associated with a work life, it can be used in a broader context. The term poses the idea that a person progresses



through an ordinal series of stages and that each of these stages involves experiences, which will have different influences on his/her self-concept and future decisions (Pearce, 1988). This work is based on the notion that tourists have a travel career and it provides both for a short and long term account of motivation in the travel area. Mills (1985) also studied tourist motivations and specifically motives of skiers. The author confirmed the existence of a travel career and that it can be seen as a ladder system, involving the possibilities of change and promotion, both across and within levels. In the TCL the assumption of Maslow's initial model, hierarchical inclusion, thus remains intact, implying that a person who exhibits a higher need (e.g., self-esteem) carries the assumption that lower needs have been temporarily sated. It is also possible for individuals to start their career in different positions and move through positions at different rates. Goffman (1961) and Pearce (1988) also pointed out that reactions of peers and reference groups are very important in the career movement. These significant others can make people regress, stop at certain points, drop out, change a career, or retire.

Pearce (1988) acknowledged that one of the dangers of basing the TCL on Maslow's theory is the hidden assumption that a higher order need is somehow better than a lower order need. Maslow's theory was organised to understand personality holistically, whilst the travel career ladder is only confined to the expression of motives within a limited domain of life, namely travel. Expressions of self-esteem or self-actualisation needs in terms of travel could therefore not be interpreted as indicating a more complete person. Consequently, any elitist overtones implicit in Maslow's formulation were considered inappropriate for the travel career level of analysis. Motivations of tourists have to be accepted and appraised on their own terms, without allowing value judgments which reflect academic preoccupations and a middle class lifestyle to interfere with such assessments (Pearce, 1988).

Figure 5: Travel Career Ladder



Source: Pearce and Stringer (1991).

1.6.2.2 The Travel Career Pattern

Ryan (1998) undertook an appraisal of the TCL after acknowledging that it had been cited quite extensively as well as utilised in the commercial sector and felt that an appraisal was in order. His thorough review of the TCL led to an appeal for reconsideration of the TCL, based on a few issues; the main issue being the concept of a ladder. According to him, there was not enough evidence to suggest that people systematically progress on the TCL. He argued that the same individuals had not been questioned over time and it would therefore be conspicuous to assume that individuals progress universally step by step on the ladder.

Pearce took this as constructive criticism and reconceptualised the TCL (Pearce, 2005) to address the issues raised by Ryan (1998). The criticism was mainly aimed at the career concept and even Pearce (2005) recognised from the onset that the term travel career was problematic, since it drew too much attention to a comparison with a physical ladder, thus descending or ascending one step at a time. He undertook a very comprehensive study with the primary goal to obtain comprehensive information on pleasure travel motivation patterns and conceptualised it in relation to the travel career.



The study included a qualitative and quantitative component. In the qualitative component, he conducted semi-structured interviews with 12 Australian subjects on the topic of their travel motivations. The selection criteria were their number of previous international holiday experiences. In addition to the interviews, they had to complete a two-page questionnaire with 38 travel motivation questions. Results showed that the dominant motives for overseas holidays were novelty, self-development (including cultural experience), relationship building, as well as relaxation and escape. He concluded that these four types of motivational travel experiences serve as the core motives and might not change regardless of progress through the travel career levels.

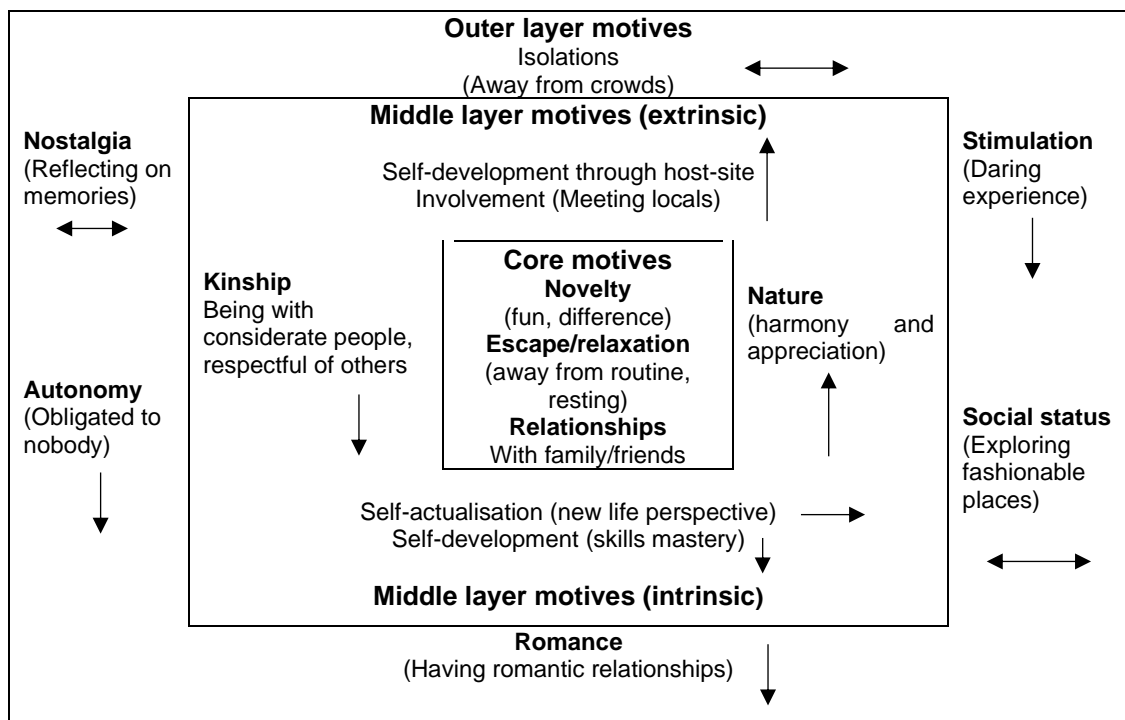
In a subsequent phase, he used a self-administered questionnaire of 74 items to determine travel motivations of 1 012 respondents in Australia from Western cultural backgrounds. A PCA was done and 14 factors identified; namely (i) novelty, (ii) escape, (iii) relationship (strengthen), (iv) autonomy, (v) nature, (vi) self-development (host-site development), (vii) stimulation, (viii) self-development (personal development), (ix) relationship (security), (x) self-actualisation, (xi) isolation, (xii) nostalgia, (xiii) romance, and (xiv) recognition. A cluster analysis was undertaken to classify the collected samples into identifiable groups. Two clusters emerged, namely a high travel experience group and a low travel experience group. To determine the predictor variables that contribute the most, a discriminant analysis was performed. People were then classified into two groups (low and high travel experience), based on discriminant scores.

Between the two levels of travel experience, nature, self-development (host-site involvement), stimulation, self-development (personal development), relationship building, self-actualisation, romance and recognition resulted in significant differences. Nature and self-development (host-site involvement) were more important to people with high travel experience, while personal development and self-actualisation (which generally comprise the upper levels of the TCL) turned out to be emphasised more by people with a low travel experience. Three motivation factors; namely novelty, escape and relationship building were important for both high and low experience travellers.

Results showed that travel motivation can be identified as patterns and combinations of multiple motives that influence travel experience.

The first important finding from this work in terms of travel motivation is that escape/relaxation, novelty, relationship building and self-development are the most important factors in forming travel reasons, regardless of one’s travel experience and can be considered as core motives. These motives are the backbone of all travel experience. Secondly, travel motives reflecting self-development through host-site involvement, such as experiencing different cultures and meeting the locals, were considered more important by those with higher levels of travel experience. Thirdly, contradicting the original TCL theory, higher levels of motivation, such as self-development were emphasised more by the lower travel experience group. This article, therefore, suggests an alternative and a modification of the Travel Career Ladder of Pearce (1988) and suggests a more nuanced approach to travel motivation in the form of a Travel Career Pattern (TCP).

Figure 6: Travel Career Pattern



Source: Erfurt-Cooper and Cooper (2009).

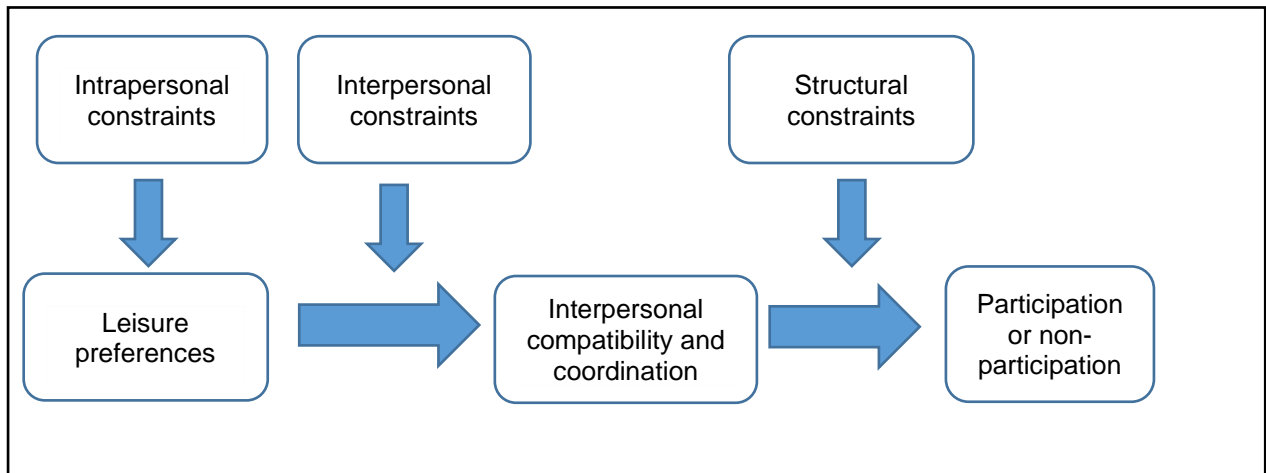


Having established the relationship between push motives and travel experience, as well as the formation of a hierarchy or pattern, the question now begs if similar patterns can be detected when considering pull factors.

1.6.3 Leisure constraints

One of the aims of the thesis is to increase our theoretical understanding of travel inclusion and progression among emergent travellers by considering the impact of constraints (symbolic and structural) on destination preferences. As such, it is important to discuss frameworks measuring leisure constraints. Leisure constraint research has been forthcoming for the past 35 years (Gürbüz & Henderson, 2014). During the formative years of studying this topic, the research focus was on recreational activities, rather than on leisure or travel activities. As academics specialising in leisure and tourism immersed themselves in this field, it became more accommodating of leisure and travel constraints. The framework that emerged as most popular and which has shaped most of the literature on travel and leisure constraints is the framework by Crawford & Godbey (1987), Crawford, Jackson & Godbey (1991) and Godbey *et al.* (2010). This framework proposes that constraints can be clustered into three domains, namely intrapersonal (intrinsic to the person such as stress, fear, depression and anxiety); interpersonal (arising from social interaction, such as lack of interest of friends and partners); as well as structural (such as income, time access, family, work and climate). According to their research, structural constraints are the most important, followed by interpersonal and then intrapersonal constraints. For this reason, the model was coined the hierarchical model of leisure constraints.

Figure 7: Hierarchical model of leisure constraints



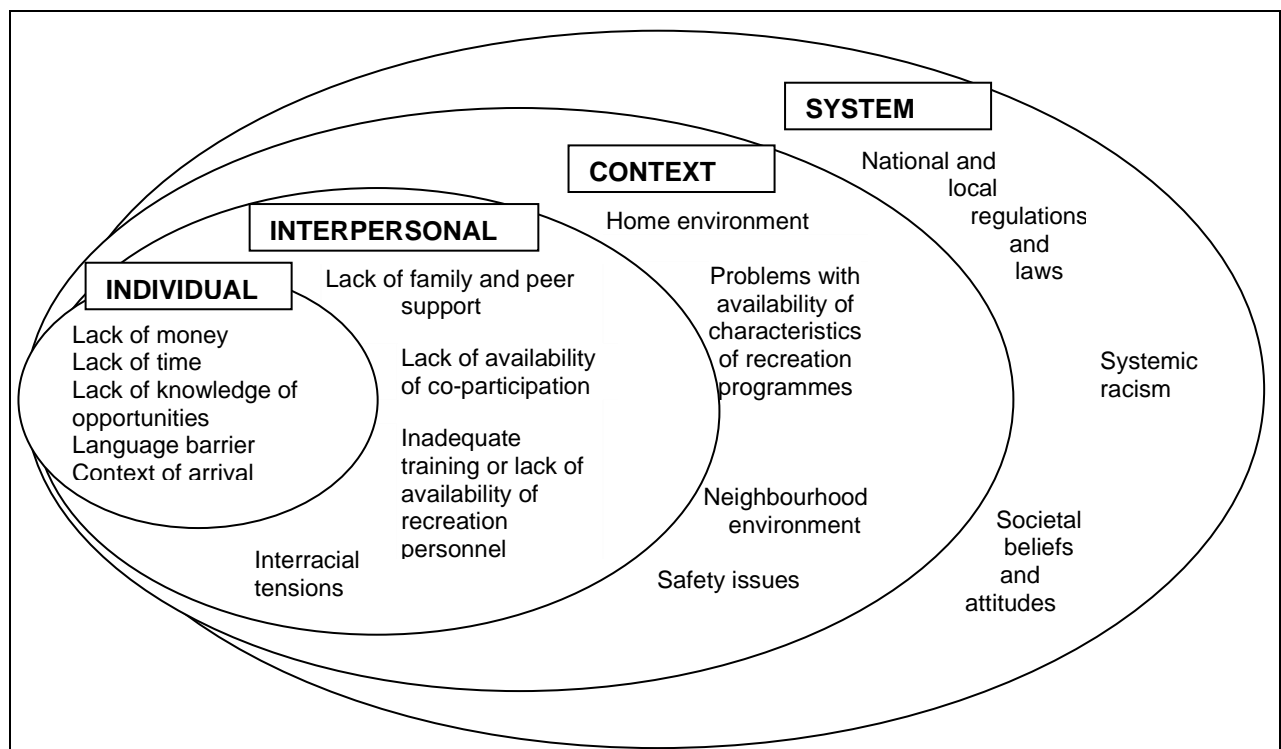
Source: Crawford *et al.* (1991).

This model has become very popular, and most of the research done on travel constraints or barriers typically use this model as a foundation. Despite this framework being very popular, it has been criticised for being too simplistic, not taking societal issues such as social structures, ideologies, religious and other societal values into consideration (Gürbüz & Henderson, 2014; Samdahl, 2005; Stodolska *et al.*, 2019). In particular, Samdahl (2005) believed that the constraints framework was not well-suited for the nuanced elements of people’s leisure motives and behaviours and did not adequately cover the intricacy of people’s situations (Stodolska *et al.*, 2019). Samdahl (2005) believed that constraints are the consequences of a structural order in society that benefit certain people and disempower others. For this reason, she criticised the hierarchical leisure constraints theory and argued that the model overemphasised activity participation and put too little emphasis on the social context (Stodolska *et al.*, 2019).

The ecological model of leisure constraints conceptualised by Samdahl (2005) has four layers, ranging from the more specific to the most general. These layers are: (i) individual; (ii) interpersonal; (iii) context; and (iv) system. Figure 8 depicts how these components are structured, moving from the most specific towards the most diffuse. The first component identified by Samdal, namely individual, represents the most specific set of issues; including lack of money, time knowledge and opportunities, language barriers, and the context of arrival. This component is to a certain extent

within a person’s control. The second layer addresses interpersonal issues and includes issues pertaining to a lack of social support, as well as interracial tension. The third layer is context, which includes issues pertaining to the environment that impacts travel intention. Fourthly, the national political, regulatory system is addressed which impacts broad societal beliefs and attitudes.

Figure 8: Ecological model of leisure constraints



Source: Stodolska, Shinew and Camarillo (2019).

The emphasis on the individual and the assumption that it is the responsibility of the individual to engage in constraints negotiation is unrealistic. The assumption that the person can engage in such actions, is a form of concern and likely to be unrealistic. Collective action is needed to change the structures that generate constraints and individuals are often unable to change it individually, since they operate within a context (for instance a neighbourhood) or within a system (which might include systemic racism) (Figure 8). Emergent travellers typically differ from more established, experienced travellers, in that they not only face financial barriers but also the lingering aftereffects of administrative, as well as political barriers that impact their travel motivation. It is therefore prudent to consider motivation holistically and include the



impact of constraints and barriers on travel intention and behaviour. Given these debates, this thesis will attempt to understand how different barriers (structural and symbolic) impact different destination product preferences. South Africa's history offers a unique opportunity to specifically unpack actual and subtle leisure constraints on different destinations/activities and socio-economic, racial and cultural constraints will specifically be investigated.

1.6.4 Subcultural theory (Washburne, 1978)

The concept of subculture was first used at the Chicago School of Sociology (Blackman, 2014). This concept was initially closely linked with biology and psychology to define deviant behaviour in both in the American and British literature. The concept was accordingly also adopted by sociologists and criminologist to explain deviant behaviour. In the early 1900s, Durkheim broadened out the understanding of the concept of subculture to include groups who reacted to objects that affected them through unity to confront anomie. During the 1950's, the term was broadened further and Cohen theorised that subcultures form as a result of frustration with status levels (Blackman, 2014). From here, subcultures were interpreted as collective social formations within the wider social, political and historical moments, responding to material and other experiences. Modern subcultural theory therefore involves minority groups where the focus can be spatiality, locality and fluid individual identity; thereby viewing subcultures as liberating identities from the subservience of oppression.

Subcultural theory by its very nature assumes that a minority would be involved. The existing literature on subcultures are based on evidence from countries where the marginalised groups are in the minority in terms of population size and often without challenges to mainstream power struggles. In this respect, South Africa offers a unique situation in that the dominant norm /culture during apartheid was based on a white minority. White culture and norms were considered the mainstream and any other race group or ethnic group were considered as inferior and marginalised. Testing the subcultural theory in South Africa and how it has changed over time, becomes interesting since it applies to the majority whose movement to recognition and political power was based much more clearly in group identity and overt challenges to the



existing power system. Testing the subcultural theory in such a context therefore offers an interesting perspective.

Washburne (1978) was one of the first to explore the subcultural theory in relation to constraints to outdoor recreation. He suggested that racial and ethnic minorities may perceive different constraints compared to the white majority in the United States (Rushing, Needham, D'Antonio & Metcalf, 2019) and that these constraints might not only be as a result of economic marginalisation. To this effect, he developed his subcultural theory, consisting of the marginalisation and ethnicity hypothesis which essentially juxtaposes material deprivation and cultural preference to determine the dominant factors explaining underrepresentation in leisure participation. Since this ground-breaking article, researchers have examined inter and intra-ethnic group constraints and found that racial and ethnic minorities experience more constraints to recreation compared to non-minorities with some of these differences at least partially explained by historic discrimination, economic and other related disadvantages, different cultural values, and personal or institutional forms of discrimination (see Floyd, Shinew, McGuire & Noe, 1994; Floyd & Stodolska, 2019; Scott & Lee, 2018; Stodolska, Shinew & Camarillo, 2019; Stodolska, Shinew, Floyd & Walker, 2014). Others, however, have found that different factors, such as available income, may be more influential than race or ethnicity in contributing to constraints (see de Almeida & Kastenholtz, 2019; Godbey, Crawford & Shen, 2010; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020; Scott & Lee, 2018; Stodolska et al., 2019).

The theory of Washburne (1978) is one of the most cited theories to understand underrepresentation in leisure and despite criticism by some scholars preferring multiple hierarchy modelling techniques to explain constraints, this theory has recently made a resurgence (Stodolska *et al.*, 2019). Given the uniqueness of the South African situation and the limited literature on the application of the subcultural thesis on the South African society, this thesis will use the more basic theory of Washburn to determine if economic marginalisation or ethnicity dominates with regards to preferences for destinations. While the author acknowledges the existence of hierarchical constraints models, the intention was to get a basic understanding of



destination preferences in the South African society and the subcultural theory consisting of the marginalisation and ethnicity hypothesis was therefore preferred.

Before continuing, it is important to explain race and ethnicity in the South African context. According to the 2017 report of the South African Reconciliation Barometer Survey and the South African Social Attitude Survey, language and race is by far the most prominent self-describing identities of South Africans. About one half of South Africans consider language and race as either their primary or secondary identities (Gordon, 2021; Potgieter, 2017). This is not surprising given that apartheid policies were based on race and ethnic classification. In South Africa, during the apartheid period, the government introduced legislations based on racial classification and as such the Population Registration Act No. 30 of 1950 divided the South African population into four racial groups: Whites, black Africans, Indians and Coloured people (people of mixed race)¹. Race was used for political, social and economic purposes and discriminatory practices were based on this classification. Although these definitions are inappropriate or out-of-date, these classifications remain instilled in South Africans.

Determination of ethnicity in South African can be considered as being dual in nature. Ethnic groups evolved in relatively autonomous ways, much as they would have in other parts of Africa, but were shaped by colonial influences (Hino, Leibbrandt, Machema, Shifa & Soudien, 2018). These identities therefore have both natural and constructed dimensions. The natural dimension is rooted in the ideas of bonds in kinship, biology, and ancestry and are based on the premise that ethnic groups are extended kinship networks that serve as basic dividing lines within societies; embracing groups differentiated by colour, language, religion and race. In South Africa, ethnicity involves visible local communities, built on face-to-face signal of dialect, kinship, status, religion and cultural practices (Hino et al., 2018).

¹ Throughout the paper, the author will refer to race groups as black African, coloured, Indian/Asian and white as per the Statistics South Africa terminology and capitalisation rules. The author acknowledges the sensitivities around these terms and that racial classification remains offensive.



In terms of the constructed dimension, much of the character emanated from the complex structural colonial forces which played out around these identities. For instance, ethnic groups sharpened their distinct identities during the apartheid era as a result of the country's homeland policy, which had as its intention the disenfranchising of all South Africans who were classified 'Bantu'². The effects of these developments enhanced identities based on ethnicity (Hino et al., 2018) and the most common measure used to measure ethnicity in South Africa is language.

1.6.4.1 Marginalisation hypothesis

Socio-economic constraints are one of the most important constraints that affect travel behaviour, especially in developing countries (de Almeida & Kastenholz, 2019; Godbey *et al.*, 2010; Rogerson, 2020; Scott & Lee, 2018; Stodolska *et al.*, 2019). Studies by Dzikiti and Leonard (2016), Butler and Richardson (2015) and Kruger and Douglas (2015) for example, confirm the importance of socio-economic constraints as the main constraints to travel in South Africa and Kenya. In the US, studies have also shown that regardless of race, background or ethnicity, low-income Americans are far more constrained in their leisure compared to other Americans (Scott, 2013). Stodolska *et al.* (2019) showed that a lack of resources leads to lower access and interest in leisure. The marginalisation hypothesis stipulates that if differences in recreational behaviour were attributed to socio-economic and structural barriers, such as a lack of discretionary funds, the marginalisation hypothesis rather than the ethnicity hypothesis would be accepted. By implication, recreational differences could be explained by a lack of funding and socio-economic barriers. The marginalisation hypothesis has become popular and since its inception has evolved to include further stratification of marginalised groups. For instance, the multiple hierarchy theory and class polarisation theory were used to identify specific marginalised societal positions, based on income and considering age, gender and race group (Shinew, Floyd, McGuire & Noe, 1996). These studies found that interactions between income, race and gender (for instance

² The author would like to acknowledge that "Bantustan" and "Homeland" are terms that remain offensive. These separate territories were some of the most telling sites and symbols of domestic colonialism and are reminders of overt and covert racism. The term ethnicity has also often been used as a synonym for race and the author is also aware of the sensitivity surrounding this term.



poor females from minority race groups) were even more marginalised in terms of recreational opportunities and participation (Floyd & Gramann, 1993).

1.6.4.2 Ethnicity hypothesis

Washburne (1978) introduced the ethnicity hypothesis to the literature in an effort to explain recreational preferences among African Americans (Scott & Lee, 2018). He noticed forces within communities that viewed certain activities as “white” activities and, as such, was not encouraged among the community. By implication, he speculated that ethnic and racial identity, at least in part, form part of leisure preferences and can be ascribed to differences in cultural norms, value systems and socialisation practices (Floyd & Stodolska, 2019). Cultural norms, values and customs provide followers with a script on where to go and how to conform to leisure and outdoor recreation behaviours. In this regard, cultural factors both facilitate and constrain participation in different leisure activities.

A history of discrimination, segregation and poverty produces a heightened sense of group consciousness and a strong orientation towards collective values and behaviours which differ from the rest of the population. Even if discriminatory practices and segregation based on legislation have been removed, their absence does not eradicate prejudices in leisure participation (Tucker & Deale, 2018). To the extent that members adhere to cultural norms, they engage in boundary maintenance, which is the process of actively constructing and highlighting ethnic and/or racial differences in leisure activities, which in part explains differences among cultural groups (Scott & Lee, 2018).

These distinctions create boundaries that influence both the choice of a recreation activity and its location (Tucker & Deale, 2018). Once these boundaries are established, boundary maintenance occurs, insulating group members and advocating leisure activities and venues considered as racially and culturally relevant to a group (Bello & Kamanga, 2019). Certain race and culture groups might therefore abstain from participating in certain outdoor recreational activities and avoid outdoor settings, “because they do not reinforce the ethnicity of the group’s collective identity” (Floyd &



Stodolska, 2014:13). Because of these characteristics, boundary maintenance was identified as a precursor to habitus (Lee & Scott, 2017). Habitus is created through a social process leading to enduring patterns that are transferred from one context and generation to another. Habitus is therefore not a result of free will or structural enforcement, but rather an interplay between these factors shaped over time resulting in current practices. Habitus formation is also not static or permanent, and can be “changed under unexpected situations or over a long historical period” (Navarro, 2006:16). It is therefore a promising theoretical framework for understanding travel patterns, as well as being helpful in that it regards habitus as changeable. This allows for the notion that strategies can be employed to facilitate change, despite habitus formation.

This thesis juxtaposes the marginalisation and ethnicity hypothesis to determine if the boundary maintenance and habitus created by years of discrimination still impact travel choice preference, or if marginalisation dominate

1.6.5 Venturers versus dependables (Plog, 1974)

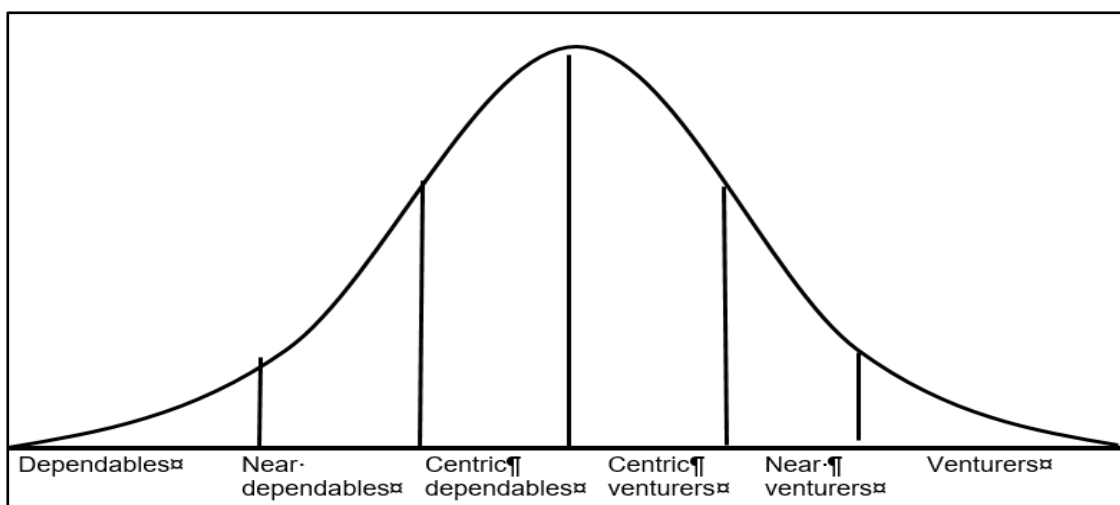
The theory of Plog (1974) is important for the current study since it explains transition out of travel habitus. Plog’s research began back in 1967, when he started to examine how tourism destinations develop, grow and decline in popularity (Plog, 2001). He found that there are distinct correlations between the appeal of a destination to different types of tourists, and the rise and fall in popularity of a destination. He developed a schema, organising tourists into personality types and destinations they are most likely visit, dividing tourists into two broad groups, namely allocentrics and psychocentrics (Plog, 1974). These terms were later changed to venturers and dependables, due to being more user-friendly and have remained the preferred terminology ever since (Plog, 2001). It is also used as such in this thesis.

Venturers are tourists who are intellectually curious, risk takers, likely to use disposable income, curious about new products, relatively anxiety-free, adventurous and prefer non-touristy areas and enjoy a sense of discovery and new experiences. They are more likely to be looking for places that are new and provide novelty and escape from

the boredom of everyday life. Venturers and near venturers are inclined to view travel as a chance to experience a sense of freedom, to search for the exotic and novel, to develop new friendships in foreign places, to explore, and to try some new lifestyles (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2007; Plog, 1974). The second group of tourists is known as dependables. They are more likely to take low risks, are territory bound, have a sense of powerlessness, are anxious and nervous, and prefer the familiar in travel. These tourists travel infrequently, have a low income and prefer familiar destinations. Dependables prefer the safety of the familiar to the thrills of discovery, and basically typify the leisure patterns of novice travellers. Dependables and near dependables tend to travel because it is a cultural norm, to enhance their egos, to gain status, to gain acceptance, and to be comfortable socially (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2007; Plog, 1974).

Between these two extremes are gradations and Plog (1974) portrays the transition from the first type of tourist to the second by means of a continuous bell-shaped curve, with dependables on one end and venturers on the other. In the middle of the bell curve are mid-centrics, possessing both venturer and dependable traits. The five categories identified and depicted in his continuum are: “dependables”, “near dependables”, “mid-centrics”, “near venturers” and “venturers”.

Figure 9: Distribution of psychographic personality types



Source: Plog (2001).



According to Plog (2001), venturers and dependables distribute normally across the population with a small percentage (2.5-4%) classified either as pure venturers, or pure dependables. A large number of people fall into the near venturer or near dependable category, with the majority of the population falling in the middle of the curve, being either centric dependable or centric venturers.

Venturers, according to Plog (1974), discover new places. Since they are curious and adventurous, they reach out and explore the world around them. They tend to seek and explore unfamiliar, new destinations and have no problems adapting to native habits, eat indigenous foods or stay in local accommodation. They feel comfortable in places with foreign cultures or languages. When returning home, they share their experiences and more people start to visit these destinations. New destinations are initially characterised by the presence of the venturers, with relatively few tourists. As the destination grows in popularity, it reaches a peak. When the destination is at a midpoint, it is referred to as the centric phase. Once the destination has been established as a safe destination, the dependables will start visiting the destination. He used this theory to explain why destinations rise and fall in popularity. This theory will be used to explain how symbolic boundaries can be transcended, facilitating growth and the expansion of tourism preferences among emergent travellers.

From the onset it must be acknowledged that the author is aware that Plog's theory is based on a micro level psychological concept and in this thesis it is applied as a macro level sociological concept. The application of the theory of Plog is however relevant to the current study since it potentially explains the transition out of travel habitus for groups of travellers. Certain socio-demographic variables seem to act as enablers eliciting behaviour associated with Plog's venturesome psychographics whilst other socio-demographics tend to elicit behaviour similar to what is exhibited by dependables. In this thesis it was found that socio-demographic characteristics such as young age, wealth and education are associated with preferences for destinations that are culturally less familiar. This trend mirrors notions associated with venturesome characteristics. People who are older, less wealthy with a lower education however tended to have preferences for destinations considered to be within the cultural habitus and exhibited notions of dependables. Although psychographic characteristics of



people were not measured similar to what Plog did, the applicability of his theory potentially explains the finding that certain socio-demographics facilitate more interest in travel preferences considered to be outside the travel habitus.

1.7 SOUTH AFRICA AS A CASE STUDY

Prior and during the Second World War, South Africa was a popular destination for visitors from colonial territories and remained popular during the war, given that British pilots and airmen obtained training in South Africa, which resulted in South Africa incidentally receiving a host of potential tourists (Grundlingh, 2006). This created a demand for tourism facilities, which ensured the maintenance and upgrading of tourist facilities during that period. In 1948, the National Party (NP) came into power in South Africa. The party was an Afrikaner ethnic nationalist party that promoted white Afrikaner interests (Seekings, 2020) and after its election, the party began implementing its policy of racial segregation, known as apartheid (the Afrikaans term for “separateness”). In pursuing its apartheid ideal, the government wanted to minimise contact between whites and blacks. Parks, public toilets, public transport and recreation facilities were all segregated. Under apartheid, non-white South Africans (a majority of the population including black African, coloured, Asian/Indian³) would be forced to live in separate areas from whites and use separate public facilities.

Tourism and recreational activities during this period operated within government’s discriminatory policies. Some of these policies included: The Land Act of 1910 and 1936; The Reservation of Separate Amenities Act of 1953; The Group Areas Act of 1955; The General Sea-Shore Regulations of 1962; and the Black Affairs Administration Act of 1971 (Magi & Nzama, 2002). These policies all precluded the black majority of freely participating in travel and leisure activities. Because of apartheid policies, South Africa became politically isolated from the international arena

³ Throughout the thesis, the author will refer to race groups as black African, coloured, Indian/Asian and white as per the Statistics South Africa terminology and capitalisation rules. The author acknowledges the sensitivities around these terms and that racial classification remains offensive.



and received limited international tourists. In 1986, at the height of the State of Emergency in South Africa, only 50 000 international tourists visited South Africa (Rogerson, 2002). Foreign visitors refused to visit South Africa and the domestic market was essentially limited to a selected few privileged white people. As Visser and Rogerson (2004) point out, of all the sectors of South Africa's economy, tourism was most adversely affected by apartheid and subsequent international sanctions. The volume of international tourism flows was severely curtailed and domestic tourism was limited, as most of the black population could not enjoy access to most touristy facilities such as beaches, game parks, etc. As Visser & Rogerson (2004:201) rightly observe, "Under apartheid, therefore, in many respects, tourism was anti-developmental".

Apart from the obviously lost economic opportunities, apartheid legislation also created a fragmented South African population. Years of stereotyping and discrimination such as experienced during apartheid, created racialised views of space and leisure boundaries. Even after the abolishment of apartheid, these boundaries remain and have formed part of a tourism habitus. "Tourism activities during apartheid were consumed by the white community only, so even after the 1994 democratic elections, many people lost the interest to participate in domestic tourism, even amongst the youth" (Dzikiti & Leonard, 2016:9). Exclusion has also left the perceptions of "Tourism is a white man's thing and not for us" (South Africa, 1996:12). Suspicion and mistrust in tourism initiatives remain part of modern-day realities of South Africans.

In many developing countries, including South Africa, the Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR) sector essentially started as a consequence of the reinforcement of migratory labour systems and has become one of the biggest sectors of domestic travel in many countries (Rogerson, 2015b). Apartheid economic policies advanced and entrenched certain VFR travel patterns. In developing countries, the majority of people undertaking these trips typically do not make use of traditional tourist-orientated transport, accommodation or services; but generally make use of public transport and accommodation provided by friends or relatives (Cohen & Cohen, 2015). Among the less affluent, massive rural/urban migration patterns are entrenched and form the principal segment of domestic travel in South Africa (Adinolfi, Harilal & Giddy, 2021;



Musavengane & Leonard, 2019). It is a critical element of travel in South Africa. Although developed countries also embark on visiting friends and relatives, the nature of these trips in developing countries somewhat different and less institutionalised.

Another form of travel that has emerged as a habitus in developing countries among less affluent travellers is travel for religious purposes (Adinolfi *et al.*, 2021; Cohen & Cohen, 2015). People typically travel during specific religious periods to religious sights in groups of between 20 to 40 and they tend to travel in buses, vans, on the back of lorries and trucks to get to the destination. They tend to bring their own groceries and prepare their meals where they stay. This description fits the pilgrimage of South Africans on Easter to Moria and typically resembles religious outings also undertaken in other developing countries such as Peru, India and Brazil (Cohen & Cohen, 2015).

South Africa, with its history of legislative discrimination towards a majority population, therefore, offers a unique opportunity to advance our theoretical and empirical understanding of the dynamics and predictors of destination/activity preferences of adults in an emerging market with a history of legislative discrimination and high levels of material inequality. The case study provides (a) the opportunity to explore destination choices among people that have experienced discriminatory practices; (b) access to a large contingent of emergent travellers; and (c) an opportunity to determine travel preferences across dispersed income groups.

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

As stated in the previous section, South Africa offers an ideal opportunity to research predictors of destination/activity preferences of adults in an emerging market with a history of legislative discrimination and high levels of material inequality. The data used in this survey is quantitative and nationally representative, based on specialised travel modules fielded as part of the South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS).

1.8.1 Introduction to the South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS)

The South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS) is a cross-sectional survey conducted annually by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). It is a

nationally representative survey with a sample size of 3 500 respondents. The SASAS is based on a principle of core and rotating modules (sets of questions). The core modules comprise a stable set of key questions fielded annually, designed to monitor critical aspects of social change over time. The rotating modules are important topics, but are not fielded annually.

In 2006, a set of tourism questions was included in the survey as a rotating module. These questions were modelled on questions from the domestic tourism survey undertaken by the HSRC in 2001 and intentioned to determine domestic tourism preferences in South Africa. In 2017, a subset of the same questions was fielded to enable the researchers to compare changes in preference over this period. Article 1 made use of this 2006 and 2017 data (see APPENDIX A for copies of the questionnaires).

In 2018, a set of questions on tourism motivation based on the TCL (Pearce, 1989) was fielded together with questions on destination preferences to determine and test a combination of pull factors or destination/activity preference among South Africans. This data was used in Article 2 (see Appendix A for a copy of the questionnaire). The data for Article 3 is derived from the SASAS 2020, where a set of questions on travel motivations and destination preferences was again fielded (refer to Appendix A for a copy of the questionnaire) to determine and test hypothesis on motives and pull factors for travel patterns in South Africa.

Table 1: Data source and number of respondents

Article	SASAS Round (Year)	Topic	Sample size (n)	Weighted sample Weighted (N)
Data used for article one	2006	Travel preferences	2 904	31 136 800
	2017	Travel preferences, destination preferences	3 067	39 797 128
Data used for article two	2017	Travel motivations (TCL) and destination preferences	3 067	39 797 128
Data used for article three	2019	Travel motivations (TCL) and destination preferences	2 844	42 573 093

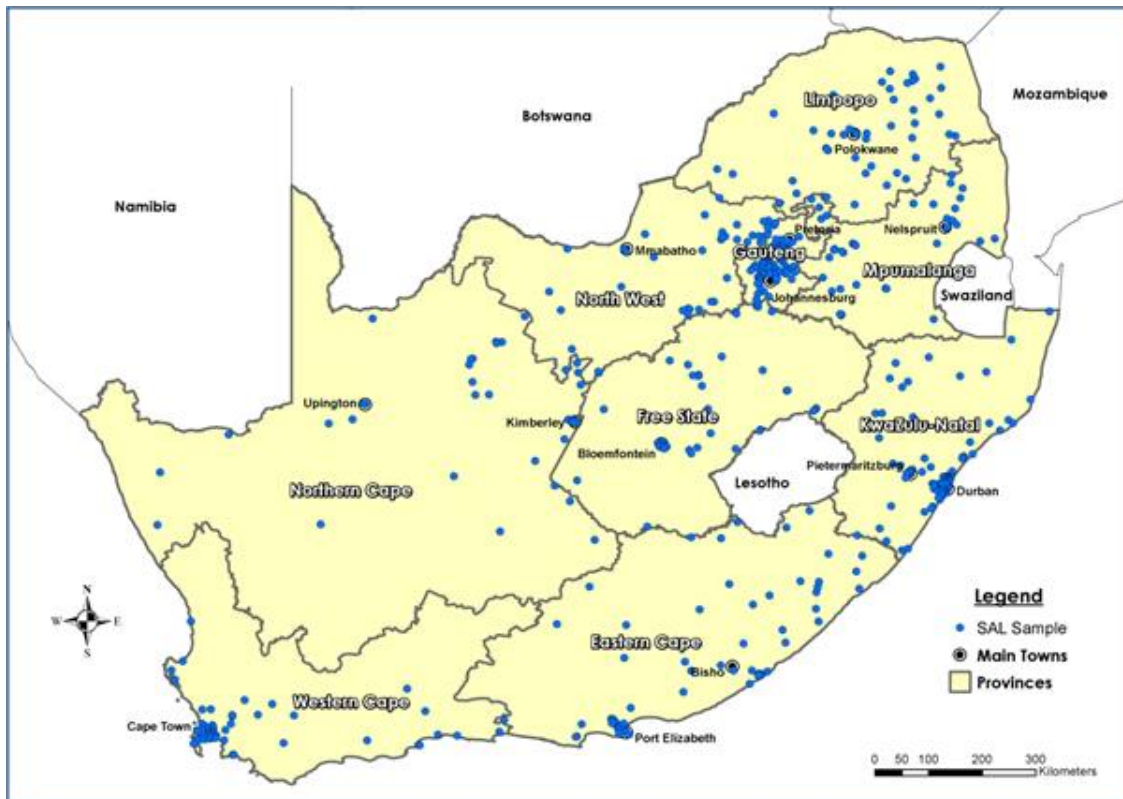


1.8.2 Target population and the sample

The SASAS is a survey of adult South Africans (individuals 16 and older) living in households or hostels. People living in military camps, hospitals, old age homes, prisons, schools and university hostels are excluded from the sample. The inclusion of people living in these institutions compromises random selection. Also, past experience has shown that access to people in these institutions is extremely difficult, since obtaining permission can be cumbersome and complex.

In sum, SASAS is designed to yield a representative sample of 3 500 adult South African citizens aged 16 and older (with no upper age limit), in households geographically spread across the country's nine provinces. The sample design is based on stratification and multi-stage sampling procedures. The explicit stratification variables used in the samples are province and geographical subtypes, which include urban areas (both formal and informal) and rural areas (including traditional authority areas and farms). Implicit stratification variables include race, age and sex. The latest census framework available is used as the sampling frame and a set of 500 small area layers (SALs) are selected (see Figure 10). Estimates of the population numbers for various categories of the census variables are obtained per SAL. In this sampling frame, special institutions (such as hospitals, military camps, old age homes, schools and university hostels), recreational areas, industrial areas and vacant SALs are excluded prior to the drawing of the sample.

Figure 10: Visual presentation of the 500 SALs drawn



Source: Produced by GIS unit of the HSRC (2018).

A three-stage sampling strategy is used. In the first sampling stage, the primary sampling units (SALs) are drawn with probability proportional to size, using the estimated number of dwelling units in a SAL as a measure of size. A total of 500 SALs are drawn in the first sampling stage. The dwelling units, as secondary sampling units, are defined as “separate (non-vacant) residential stands, addresses, structures, flats, homesteads, etc”. In the second sampling stage, seven individual dwelling units (or visiting points) are drawn with equal probability in each of the drawn SALs. Finally, in the third sampling stage, a person is drawn randomly from all persons 16 years and older in the drawn dwelling units.

In sum, 500 SALs are drawn and within each of the 500 SALs, seven households are randomly drawn. Within these households, one person of 16 years or older is randomly selected and interviewed. The total is thus 3 500 respondents. The list of the 500 drawn SALs is given to a geographic information systems (GIS) unit and maps are created

for each of the 500 areas, indicating certain navigational beacons such as schools, roads, churches etc.

Figure 11: An example of a SAL map used to assist the fieldwork teams to navigate to the correct areas



Source: Produced by GIS unit of the HSRC (2018).

1.8.3 Piloting and translation

In the survey, all questionnaires are pre-tested in a rural, peri-urban and urban setting. Approximately 60 interviews are done as part of the pre-testing. A debriefing is then held, where the data collectors relate their experience with the questionnaire and offer their views on problematic areas. Adjustments are made to the questionnaires once feedback is reviewed. The questionnaires are then translated into six languages; namely Afrikaans, isiZulu, isiXhosa, Setswana, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. Data collection is done by means of face-to-face interviewing.

1.8.4 Field worker training, data collection and ethics

A two-day training session is held in the various provinces. The main training session takes place in Gauteng (Pretoria) and covers the Northern parts of the country namely Gauteng, Limpopo, Mpumalanga and North West. Other training sessions are held in



the Eastern Cape (East London, Umtata and Port Elizabeth/Gqeberha). Two training sessions are also held in KwaZulu-Natal (Durban), one in the Western Cape (Cape Town) and one in the Northern Cape (Kimberley), which also covers the Free State.

These training sessions are designed to be participatory, practical and interactive, giving fieldworkers an opportunity to roleplay questions and difficult situations that they might encounter in the field. The training sessions further covers selection and sampling of households; fieldwork operating procedures; research protocol; and ethical considerations. A training manual is also developed as part of the training toolkit.

A network of supervisors and sub-supervisors, who are based in the nine provinces of South Africa, is contracted to oversee the data collection. Locally-based fieldworkers from the various provinces are employed via the supervisors. These fieldworkers have a thorough understanding of the local areas and can speak the local languages. A navigational toolkit is provided to fieldwork teams. These toolkits are developed to assist the field teams in finding the selected SALs. These kits assist the supervisors and fieldworkers to locate the exact SAL where the interviews are to take place. The navigational kits include:

- Route descriptions, to assist the teams to navigate their way into the selected SAL.
- Maps that, using aerial photographs as a base, identify the exact geographic location of the SAL to be sampled throughout the country.
- More detailed maps that pinpoint street names and places of interest, such as schools, clinics, hospitals, etc. These maps also indicate latitude-longitude and GPS coordinates, based on the centroid of the SAL.

Each fieldwork team (consisting of four fieldworkers) is transported in a vehicle driven by a sub-supervisor. The sub-supervisor is responsible for ensuring that the correct households are selected, and the correct respondents interviewed. The sub-supervisor remains in the area to oversee the proceedings.

The HSRC subscribes to a strict internal Code of Ethics and all surveys undergo a formal review by the HSRC Research Ethics Committee before being implemented.



The project is conducted in a confidential manner and information is only discussed with designated representatives and participants. Confidentiality of information is adhered to at all times. All participants have to agree to participate and sign consent forms. In the case of 16-17-year-olds, assent and consent forms are signed. Introductory letters with the contact details of the HSRC SASAS coordinators are handed to the respondents, should they need more information. The number of the HSRC ethics hotline is also provided on the letters.

1.8.5 Data collection protocols and quality control

Prior to undertaking fieldwork, the nine provincial police commissioners, as well as AGRI-SA are informed of the study. Apart from this, other data collection protocols include:

- Notifying the relevant local authorities of data collection activities in the area. In traditional authority areas the Inkosi or Induna needs to be informed of the study, whilst in urban formal or urban informal areas, fieldworkers have to report to the local police station. In some areas, appointments are made with local councillors to inform them of the study.
- Official letters describing the project, its aim and duration are distributed to the local authorities. The purpose of this is to increase safety protocols for fieldworkers and to reassure respondents.
- Before entering a farm, fieldworkers first report to the local Agri South Africa (Agri SA) offices. Protocols are then established on how to enter farms safely.
- Fieldworkers are issued with name tags and letters of introduction to be used in the field. The introductory letter is translated from English into six other languages. Fieldworkers have to present their identity cards when introducing themselves.

HSRC researchers do physical backchecks and also extensive telephonic backchecks in all provinces. A total of more than 15 % backchecks for all provinces are undertaken. This is over and above the backchecks done by the supervisors and sub-supervisors.



1.8.6 Data capturing and cleaning

Prior to the 2018 survey round, data collection was done using hard copies of questionnaires. These questionnaires were then couriered back to the HSRC for data capture. Since 2018, the SASAS data has been captured electronically by making use of tablets and transmitted to a central database. In both cases, once data was captured, it was downloaded and converted into SAS and SPSS and a data manager embarked on a data-cleaning exercise. Data is checked and edited for logical consistency, permitted ranges, reliability on derived variables and filter instructions. Data with wrong EA numbers is corrected.

The data is then weighted to take account of the fact that not all units covered in the survey had the same probability of selection. The weighting reflects the relative selection probabilities of the individual at the three main stages of selection: (i) visiting point (address); (ii) household; and (iii) individual. In order to ensure representativity of smaller groups (e.g. Northern Cape residents or Indian/Asian people), some oversampling occurs. Person and household weights are benchmarked using the SAS CALMAR macro and province, population group, gender and five age groups are used for benchmarking. The marginal totals for the benchmark variables are obtained from mid-year population estimates, as published by Statistics South Africa. The estimated South African population is therefore, used as the target population.

1.8.7 Research approach/philosophy

All research has a meta theoretical bias and it is important to declare the philosophical paradigm upfront given that theoretical assumptions direct the research and impact the results reported. The same research question can yield different outcomes depending on the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions. The theoretical approach which is based on a specific paradigm is therefore the frame of reference for observations and reasoning. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), questions and methods (i.e. qualitative or quantitative) are actually secondary to a world view or paradigm.



The intra-paradigm for this study is positivism. Positivism assumes a reality that can be studied objectively by means of mostly quantitative methods. A primary goal of a positivist inquiry is to generate explanatory associations or causal relationships that ultimately lead to prediction and control of the phenomena in question. Positivism typically involves the use of existing theory to develop hypotheses to be tested during the research process. The results from hypothesis testing are then used to inform and advance science. Given the aims and methodology employed in this study, the positivist paradigm is applicable. The intention of the study is to explain and predict travel preferences using a hypothetico-deductive model, taking a theory-verification approach.

This study is based on a large national survey. The positivist approach favours large samples given that empirically based findings from generalised inferences are made with the possibilities of replicating of findings. Given the nature of datasets used in positivistic approaches, researchers can use statistical techniques such as hypothesis testing, correlation, regression, and probability to reach conclusions. In this study a variety of statistical techniques were undertaken. One of the restrictions of a positivism is that it does not attempt an in-depth explanation and interrogation of a phenomenon and in line with this the thesis does not aim to explain why certain destination choices are made but rather explore the typical travel destination choices and preferences given certain situational factors.

The data used in this thesis derives from the South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS). The author of this manuscript is a co-ordinator of the SASAS survey and was the primary researcher designing the tourism questionnaire. The author was involved in all facets of the survey and the data collection can therefore be regarded as primary data collection since the data was collected with the aim of analysing the specific research problem at hand using procedures that fit the research problem (Hox & Boeijs, 2005).

It must however be mentioned that the data collected formed part of a larger survey questionnaire that also contained other topics. The content of the questionnaire was



therefore not exclusively tourism related and as such background variables (such as income) had to be standardised to accommodate all themes and not necessarily geared towards measuring concepts in an ideal way based on tourism literature. The table below gives a breakdown of the explanatory background variables used in this study.

Table 2: Variables used for the different research objectives

Variable	Value label	Weighted N	RO1/2/3	RO4/5	RO6
Education	No or primary school	6 891 672	Variables used (2006 and 2017 datasets)	Variable used (2018 dataset)	
	Some secondary school	10 803 575			
	Matric	8 257 524			
	Post matric	2 488 487			
Age	16-24	7 951 549	Variables used (2006 and 2017 datasets)	Age but used as continuous variable (2018 dataset)	
	25-34	7 569 834			
	35-49	6 769 414			
	50-64	3 894 637			
	65+	2 255 824			
Geotype	Urban,formal	15 603 151	Variables used (2006 and 2017 datasets)		
	Urban,informal	2 222 947			
	Tribal	8 994 225			
	Rural,formal	1 620 935			
Subjective wealth	Wealthy	328 659	Variables used (2006 and 2017 datasets)	Variable used (2018 dataset)	
	Very comfortable	1 862 365			
	Reasonably comfortable	7 298 141			
	Just getting along	10 744 529			
	Poor	6 582 018			
Very poor	1 625 546				
Ethnicity	Sesotho	2 519 419	Variables used (2006 and 2017 datasets)		
	Setswana	2 315 488			
	Sepedi	3 427 465			
	Siswati	968 917			
	IsiNdebele	407 935			
	IsiXhosa	4 117 651			
	IsiZulu	6 591 718			
	Xitsonga	983 301			
	Venda	436 989			
	Afrikaans white	1 890 340			
	Eng White	1 173 504			
	Coloured Afrikaans	1 784 448			
	Coloured Eng	650 540			
	Indian Eng	810 992			
	African Afrikaans	76 828			
African Eng	285 723				
Race	Black African	22 024 559	Variables used (2006 and 2017 datasets)		
	Coloured	2 527 189			
	Indian/Asian	810 992			
	White	3 078 518			
Marital status	Married	9 971 649	Variables used (2006 and 2017 datasets)		
	Widdowed	2 215 114			
	Divorced/Separated	1 100 486			
	Never married	15 154 009			



Variable	Value label	Weighted N	RO1/2/3	RO4/5	RO6
Employment status	Unemployed	1 8614 530	Variables used (2006 and 2017 datasets)		
	Employed	9 638 987			
	Other	187 741			
N of holiday trips (last 12 months)		39 797 122		Variable used (2017 dataset)	
N of business trips (last 12 months)		39 797 122		Variable used (2017 dataset)	
Household income	No income	2 493 364			Variable used (2019 dataset)
	R1 - R500	866 743			
	R 501 - R 750	899 456			
	R 751 - R 1 000	1 172 945			
	R 1 001 - R 1 500	1 988 869			
	R 1 501 - R 2 000	4 807 018			
	R 2 001 – R 3 000	3 256 048			
	R 3 001 - R 5000	4 547 042			
	R 5 001 - R 7 500	3 244 104			
	R 7 501 - R 10 000	2 121 796			
	R 10 001 - R 15 000	1 676 110			
	R 15 001 - R 20 000	1 592 902			
	R 20 001 - R 30 000	1 811 587			
	R 30 001 - R 50 000	724 034			
	R 50 000 +	389 249			
	Refuse to answer	6 867 878			
Uncertain/Don't know	4 110 340				

1.9 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study increases the theoretical understanding of travel inclusion and progression among emergent travellers by advancing the empirical understanding of the dynamics associated with travel barriers, travel destination choice preferences and motives of adults in a context of a history of travel segregation policies. This study also contributes theoretically to the debate about how historical discriminatory practices influence contemporary preferences. Years of stereotyping and discrimination create symbolic boundaries in travel and create a form of habitus that remains entrenched, despite the removal of leisure barriers. Theoretical discourses on leisure participation can therefore not assume equal participation in leisure, despite the absence of racialised legislation.

Another contribution of this study is the confirmation and expansion of the application of the theory of Plog (1974). This theory essentially explains how destinations get discovered and rise and fall in popularity, with people with psychographic



characteristics associated with venturers first discovering new destinations and people exhibiting characteristics associated with dependables following once the destination becomes well-known or commercial. The current study expands the theory of Plog (1974) in that it shows that certain socio-demographic characteristics facilitate notions of venturers and dependables. This thesis therefore broadens out the applicability of Plog (1974) to include movements of social groups into new and possibly culturally distant destinations, thus shedding light on factors that facilitate movement to areas outside the typical travel habitus.

This study makes a theoretical contribution to the destination choice literature in understanding whether a pattern or hierarchy forms when considering destinations. This study employed the rationale of the Travel Career Ladder (Pearce 1983) and Travel Career Pattern (Pearce 2005) theories of push motives and determined if pull factors (travel destinations) similarly form a ladder or pattern. This is a novel study and contributes to a better understanding of destination choice, revealing that a pattern rather than a ladder is set to form. The TCP (Pearce 2005) shows that motives differ for high- and low-income groups, but do not differentiate between more specific income brackets. This thesis illustrates that for different income thresholds, the importance of motives differs, thereby furthering this body of knowledge by illustrating that motives and combinations of motives differ for different income thresholds.

Many governments around the world supports a diverse and inclusive tourism economy (South African Tourism 2021). The challenge is, however, how to grow tourism in a more inclusive manner. This thesis attempts to allude to challenges but also opportunities that exist to develop tourism in more transformational and transcendent ways, thus being more inclusive. In the concluding chapter, some findings are mentioned that could be valuable from a policy perspective, which governments might find useful to adjust or amend to ensure a more inclusive domestic market.



1.10 THESIS OUTLINE

This study consists of five chapters. In this section a brief overview of each chapter is given. Since this thesis is submitted by way of articles, there is some amount of duplication, given that the articles need to be standalone pieces as well as integrated as part of a thesis.

Chapter 1: Contextualisation of the study

Chapter 1 provides a contextual overview of the study. It starts by introducing the subject, followed by the problem statement, objective and aim of the study, as well as discussing destination choice. The next section presents an integrated framework, depicting the lay-out and intention of the study, as well as the hypothesis and research objectives of the study. This is followed by a theoretical context, which reviews and discusses the various theories applicable to this thesis and how they relate conceptually. A historical overview of tourism in South Africa and why South Africa presents an ideal case study is presented in the next section. The final section in Chapter one discusses the contribution of the study.

The empirical investigation of the study consists of three separate chapters which form articles which either have been or will be submitted for consideration for publication in accredited academic journals.

Chapter 2: Article 1

The first article focuses on travel constraints (both structural and symbolic) and how these have impacted specific destination choice preferences over time (2006-2017). The marginality/ethnic hypothesis theory will form the basis of the article and regression analysis will be used to determine trends in the predictors of travel destination preferences.



Chapter 3: Article 2

Chapter 3, which is article 2, focuses on destination product preferences and how travel experience impacts the number and combinations of destination choices. This article will determine if (and how) different travel destination choices vary by rank order between well-travelled and emergent individuals. This will determine whether destination preferences form a Travel Career Ladder (TCL) or Travel Career Pattern (TCP). The taxonomy of McKercher (2016) will be used for destination classification, and a cluster as well as the CHAID analysis form the basis of the analysis.

Chapter 4: Article 3

The third article, presented in Chapter 4, determines the interlinkages between motives (push factors) and destinations (pull factors), considering household income level (banded income), using a threshold regression. The threshold regression categorises the data on motivations provided by South Africans for visiting certain destinations, using income thresholds.

Chapter 5: Summary, conclusions and recommendations

The final chapter discusses the main findings and describe how the research objectives were achieved, followed by a discussion on the theoretical, methodological and practical contributions of the study, as well as general recommendations and recommendations to researchers. Lastly, before the conclusion, a section on the limitations of the study, as well as directions for further research are presented. Taken together, it is hoped that this thesis will provide novel insight into advancing our theoretical and empirical understanding of the unique dynamics involved in emergent tourism development.



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CHAPTER 2: ARTICLE 1

LINKING DISCRIMINATORY LEGISLATION AND EVOLVING DOMESTIC TOURISM DESTINATION PREFERENCES

Chapter 2 presents the first article of this study, which is the result of an analysis of 2006 and 2017 SASAS data which explores domestic tourism patterns in post-‘apartheid’ South Africa. The article postulates that, tourism participation operates within a context and must be understood as deeply embedded within the historical, societal and economic structures. This study investigates the extent to which race, ethnicity or socio-economic factors interact with destination/activity preferences in visiting game parks, the beach and VFR. It also investigates if race continues to act as a determinant of destination choice. The study not only investigates these variables as main variables, but also investigates the inter-relational effects of these variables on preference to these destinations. The study further identifies socio-demographic characteristics associated with venturers’ notions. Venturers tend to be the first to have the desire to explore destinations outside of the territorial tourism space, thus venturing to extend the travel habitus.

This article was submitted to the Journal of Leisure Research. The journal addresses issues of access to and engagement in leisure behaviours at individual, group and societal levels. It presents articles with a strong theoretical and methodological base which focus on leisure aspects within the social, psychological, cultural, political and environmental contexts. The article presented in this chapter remains in its original form. Headings, page margins, font and font size presented here are not according to editorial guidelines but were kept consistent throughout the thesis.

LINKING DISCRIMINATORY LEGISLATION AND EVOLVING DOMESTIC TOURISM DESTINATION PREFERENCES

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ABSTRACT

Participation in tourism is deeply embedded within societal structures; and imbalances upheld through social structures such as systemic racism, leave symbolic boundaries through images and traces from the past. As a result, travel preferences may differ between racial and ethnic groups, where certain activities are perceived to belong to designated groups. At the same time, socio-economic factors are regarded as the most important constraints impacting travel behaviour, especially in emerging markets. This paper explores domestic tourism patterns in post-'apartheid' South Africa and considers whether three key destination/activity preferences are a function of race, ethnicity or socio-economic factors. Preferences are tested over time, using two nationally representative samples of the 2006 and 2017 South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS) of the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). Results indicate ethnicity as the main variable impacting destination preference, rather than race and socio-economic factors. Furthermore, it is found that interactional effects, notably between ethnicity, age, income and education, explain more variance than single main effect variables. Findings also show that age and income serve as enablers of preference change within groups. The young and wealthy exhibit venturesome notions, being the first to exhibit preference for destinations considered culturally distant. Factors such as cultural distance and geographic proximity are also important influencers. Recommendations for future research are presented.

Keywords: Destination preference; race; ethnicity; discrimination; domestic tourism; symbolic boundaries

1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism preferences, destination images and travel behaviour are believed to be historically loaded constructs, impacted by images and traces from the past (Grundlingh, 2006; Rogerson, 2017; Saarinen *et al.*, 2017; Sixaba & Rogerson, 2019). As with any other construct, tourism participation operates within contexts and systems (including systemic racism) and must be understood as deeply embedded within the historical, societal and even global power structures (Alderman, Williams & Bottone, 2019; Stodolska *et al.*, 2019). Despite the importance of context, scholars persistently fail to grasp the significance of tourism's past; weakening the understanding of current developments and tourism growth models (Alderman *et al.*, 2019; Benjamin, Kline, Alderman & Hoggard, 2016; Chio, Gill, Gonzalez, Harp, McDonald, Rosenbaum, Rugh & Thomas, 2020; Dillette, Benjamin & Carpenter, 2019; Grundlingh, 2006; Lee & Scott, 2017; Musavengane & Leonard, 2019; Walton, 2014).

Preferences for, or decisions to embark on activities or visit destinations incorporate three components; namely the cognitive, affective and conative (Pike & Ryan, 2004; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). The cognitive component refers to an individual's own knowledge and beliefs about a destination; affective appraisals refer to the individual's feelings towards a destination; and the conative refers to intended behaviour as a result of the previous components (Pike & Ryan, 2004). If one agrees with this assessment; historical knowledge, experience and beliefs about a particular destination will influence the affective appraisal thereof and ultimately influence behaviour. Not only would this perception impact a person directly, but will also form part of a tourism consciousness that may be carried over from generation to generation (Musavengane & Leonard, 2019). This creates territorial tourism spaces (Saarinen *et al.*, 2017), leisure cultural distance (Ahn & McKercher, 2015; Yang, Liu & Li, 2019) or travel habitus (Lee & Scott, 2017), impacting travel preferences (Lee & Scott, 2017; Musavengane & Leonard, 2019).

Philipp (1994) maintains that tourism preferences are learned behaviour and may persist for decades, and it is critical to understand how these preferences are created and maintained from one generation to another. Years of stereotyping and

discrimination such as experienced in the US during the Jim Crow period (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020) affect leisure preferences, thereby influencing future leisure choices. African Americans differ from their white counterparts because of their racialised view of space, while white counterparts view most spaces as neutral or unracialised. (Tucker, 2018). Dynamics associated with race and ethnicity therefore create forms of symbolic boundaries (Edgell, Stewart, Billups & Larson, 2020) and in the leisure, travel and tourism industry, subtly implies who are welcome at certain leisure and tourism spaces (Davis, 2019; Floyd & Stodolska, 2019; Pinckney, Mowatt, Outley, Brown, Floyd & Black, 2018). If a destination is seen to confront, challenge or conflict with an identity and lifestyle (Chien & Ritchie, 2018), or perceived to be exploitative and entitled (Grier, Thomas & Johnson, 2019), a consciousness of aversions towards a destination for tourism develops (Lawson & Thyne, 2001). Such negative forms of socio-cultural consciousness can cause travellers to avoid destinations, products or experiences (Tjiptono & Yang, 2018).

Studies on the topic of race and destination aversion have been undertaken (Aizlewood, Bevelander & Pendakur, 2006; Alderman *et al.*, 2019; Benjamin *et al.*, 2016; Dilletta *et al.*, 2019), but these studies have tended to focus on race as a homogenous group. This has resulted in tourism research often being reduced to basic stereotypical views on destination choice and race (Tung, 2019; Tung, King & Tse, 2020), where the assumption is that interracial variation is non-existent. This notion of similarity has been criticised, given that societies are becoming much more stratified due to greater mobility and migration (Floyd, 1999; Lee & Scott, 2017; Whiting, Larson, Green & Kralowec, 2017). Neglecting distinctions between minorities and ethnic groups within race has hampered efforts to understand minority participation in outdoor recreation.

Literature on how different ethnic groups evaluate and decide on host destinations is therefore sparse (Ma, Chow, Cheung, Lee & Liu, 2018). In order to understand tourism and leisure preferences better, closer attention has to be given to minority groups within race groups (McKercher, Tung & Ahn, 2021c; Shores, Scott & Floyd, 2007). With the stratification of communities, these finer segmentations become increasingly

important. Literature reflects this notion, with the increase in historical and ancestral cultural tourism studies; encompassing terms such as ancestral tourism (Weaver, Kwek & Wang, 2017), roots tourism (Basu, 2004), genealogical tourism (Meethan, 2004), legacy tourism (McCain & Ray, 2003) and diasporic tourism (Li, McKercher & Chan, 2020). The term ‘cultural distance’ has also become more common in tourism literature; referring to the extent of differences between the culture of tourists’ origins and that of the host place (Ahn & McKercher, 2015).

The following research questions guide the investigation:

RQ 1: Do symbolic boundaries in the form of race remain even after the removal of all formal racial discriminatory barriers?

RQ 2: Do structural (socio-economic) variables or race/ethnicity (measuring symbolic boundaries) dominate destination product preferences?

RQ 3: Which factors are enablers for emergent travellers for transition to destinations considered to be outside their habitus?

To answer RQ1 and RQ2, a regression analysis was performed on two datasets, a 2006 and 2017 dataset. Three hypotheses are formulated:

H₁: Relative to other demographic and socio-economic factors⁴, race remains the most important predictor of tourism destination preferences when discriminatory policies no longer apply.

H₂: Relative to other demographic and socio-economic factors, ethnicity remains the most important predictor of tourism destination preferences when discriminatory policies no longer apply.

H₃: Relative to other demographic and socio-economic factors, income remains the strongest predictor of tourism destination preference when discriminatory policies no longer apply.

⁴ Other demographic and socio-economic factors are indicated in the methods section under the description of the independent variables.

RQ3 is answered by investigating interactional effects and destination preference scores.

This paper adds to the existing literature by not only distinguishing between races, but also using a finer grained ethnicity variable in the analysis and determining interactional effects on travel preferences for different destinations. Given the country's discriminatory 'apartheid' policy, South Africa offers a unique opportunity to investigate travel preferences and the impact of race, ethnicity and socio-economic status on preferences. The paper uses data from two different time points, 2006 and 2017, and explores whether cleavages between race and ethnic groups concerning travel preferences remain, despite the abolishment of discriminatory legislation more than two decades ago. The paper contributes to the limited scholarship on the impact of systemic racism (such as 'apartheid') within a tourism context (Dillette *et al.*, 2019; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020).

2. SUBCULTURAL THEORY

2.1. The ethnicity hypothesis

The growth of the Black Lives Matter movement and the global spotlight on injustices faced by Black lives have sensitised many industries to overt and covert racism practices (Jamal & Higham, 2021). In the tourism industry, it has highlighted the need to better understand the patterns and reasons for uneven participation of minority groups in leisure and tourism. By exploring and understanding these patterns, the tourism fraternity can contribute towards the social movement of racial equality. The majority studies on this topic have been undertaken in the US, most likely as a result of the discriminatory Jim Crow period in the US (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020) which influenced all spheres of life, including mobility and leisure (Finney & Potter, 2018). These studies have led to the development of theories on leisure non-participation among minorities. The marginality-ethnicity hypothesis of Washburne (1978) has commonly been applied to explain the impact of historical discrimination on travel and tourism (Aizlewood *et al.*, 2006; Floyd, Shinew, McGuire & Noe, 1994; Gómez, 2006; Shinew *et al.*, 1996). Washburne (1978) noticed communities often regarded certain

activities as privileged to the white race group and that these activities were not encouraged among the non-white community. He developed the marginality-ethnicity hypothesis, which implied a broad interpretation of the two ideas. Socio-economic causes of non- or under-participation in leisure were coined marginality and racial/ethnic or subcultural causes explained as ethnicity (Stodolska, Shinew, Floyd & Walker, 2014). Accordingly, the ethnicity hypothesis would be accepted if races or ethnic minorities possess unique cultural value systems that determine their recreational behaviour. Testing this empirically, the ethnicity hypothesis would be accepted if racial differences remained after controlling for socio-economic variables, such as income and education.

Despite being well-established, the ethnicity hypothesis has been criticised for the fact that it uses the race and ethnicity variables interchangeably (Floyd, 1999; Johnson, 1997; Stodolska, 2018). Though the distinction between race and ethnicity is vague, these concepts differ (Bell, 2015; Mersha & Beck, 2020). Both are socially designed concepts (Bell, 2015; Floyd, 1999; Mersha & Beck, 2020); with the definition of race being based on physical characteristics, while ethnicity is rather based on boundedness (Cornell & Hartmann, 2006; Sidanius, Brubacher & Silinda, 2019). The latter is typically more difficult to define and based on own or parents' country of birth, nationality, language and geography (du Preez & Govender, 2020; Yang, Liu & Li, 2019) of which language and geographical location are considered the most powerful ethnic group markers (Malesevic & Malešević, 2004).

Intra-racial variations in leisure preferences exist, making it important to determine the role of ethnicity in leisure preferences (Li & Mckercher, 2016; Li *et al.*, 2020). Prayag and Ryan (2011) showed that destination images are culturally specific and important since some groups may not participate in certain outdoor recreational activities and must avoid outdoor settings, "because they do not reinforce an ethnic group's collective identity" (Floyd & Stodolska, 2014: 13). Even without travel barriers and restrictions, values and customs within groups provide followers with a script about the kinds of leisure and outdoor recreational behaviours to which they ought to conform. To the extent that members adhere to cultural norms, they engage in boundary maintenance.

This process of actively constructing and highlighting ethnic differences in leisure activities partially explains differences among cultural groups (Scott & Lee, 2018).

In this study, race and ethnicity were both tested together with other socio-demographics to determine if ethnicity or race dominates travel preferences.

H₁: Relative to other demographic and socio-economic factors⁵, race remains the most important predictor of tourism destination preferences when discriminatory policies no longer apply.

H₂: Relative to other demographic and socio-economic factors, ethnicity remains the most important predictor of tourism destination preferences when discriminatory policies no longer apply.

2.2. The marginality hypothesis

According to the literature, socio-economic constraints are in fact one of the most important constraints that affect travel behaviour, especially in developing countries (de Almeida & Kastenholz, 2019; Godbey *et al.*, 2010; Rogerson, 2020; Scott & Lee, 2018; Stodolska *et al.*, 2019). Studies by Dzikiti and Leonard (2016), Butler and Richardson (2015) and Kruger and Douglas (2015) confirm the importance of socio-economic constraints as the main constraints to travel in South Africa and Kenya. In the US, studies have also shown that regardless of race, background or ethnicity, low-income Americans are far more constrained in their leisure compared to other Americans (Scott, 2013). Stodolska *et al.* (2019) showed that a lack of resources, specifically between ethnic and racial groups, leads to lower access and interest in leisure. The marginality hypothesis of Washburne (1978) stipulated that if differences in recreational behaviour were attributed to socio-economic and structural barriers, such as a lack of discretionary funds, the marginality hypothesis would be accepted. As such, socio-economic differences would account for differences in black/white

⁵ Other demographic and socio-economic factors are indicated in the methods section under the description of the independent variables.

leisure participation and not ethnicity per se. Given the role of socio-economic realities in leisure participation, it was tested against the ethnicity hypothesis.

H₃: Relative to other demographic and socio-economic factors, income remains the strongest predictor of tourism destination preference when discriminatory policies no longer apply.

3. SOUTH AFRICA AS CASE STUDY

South Africa offers a unique opportunity to study the impact of the difference between race and ethnicity on leisure preferences. The South African Population Registration Act of 1950 provided the basic framework for what is known as ‘apartheid’ – a political system whereby all South Africans were crudely classified based on race as either black Africans, coloureds, Indian/Asians or white⁶ (Hino, Leibbrandt, Machema, Shifa & Soudien, 2018). The passing of the Bantu Authorities Act in 1951 further segregated the black African majority into ethnic groups for political reasons, with each group being entitled to a geographic area, or so-called Bantustan or homeland⁷. Specific apartheid policies that engineered the segregation of leisure in South Africa included The Land Act of 1910 and 1936; The Reservation of Separate Amenities Act of 1953; The Group Areas Act of 1955; The General Sea-Shore Regulations of 1962; and the Black Affairs Administration Act of 1971 (Magi & Nzama, 2002; Rogerson, 2017). These legislations and regulatory frameworks ensured that the growing tourism economy was almost exclusively a privilege of whites and that tourism spaces remained firmly under the control of the apartheid government. The most disadvantaged ‘non-white’ community

⁶ Throughout the paper, the author will refer to race groups as black African, coloured, Indian/Asian and white as per the Statistics South Africa terminology and capitalisation rules. The author acknowledges the sensitivities around these terms and that racial classification remains offensive.

⁷The author would like to acknowledge that “Bantustan” and “Homeland” are terms that remain offensive. These separate territories were some of the most telling sites and symbols of domestic colonialism and are reminders of overt and covert racism. The term ethnicity has also often been used as a synonym for race and the author is also aware of the sensitivity surrounding this term.

was the African majority, who only had access to limited designated tourism and leisure spaces and facilities (Dzikiti & Leonard, 2016). The coloured group (who included people of mixed black African, Khoisan, and European descent) and Indian/Asian group (not indigent to South Africa but immigrated as sugar cane labourers in the latter half of the 19th century) were also subjected to apartheid policies, but were excluded from pass laws and generally had better employment opportunities than black Africans (du Preez & Govender, 2020). Coloureds and Indians/Asians were relegated to an inferior position compared to whites, but a superior position *vis-à-vis* black Africans (Pirtle, 2020). Discriminatory policies were therefore based on race and not ethnicity.

The South African Population Registration Act of 1950 was designed to maintain white supremacy and strengthen the government's apartheid policy of separate development. In this undertaking, the apartheid government designed so called “homelands” to split up the black majority. Ten homelands were created of which four were declared independent (Transkei, Ciskei, Venda, Bophuthatswana) and six having limited self-determination (Gazankulu, KaNgwane, KwaNdebele, Lebowa, KwaZulu and QwaQwa). In 1970, the Bantu Homelands Citizenship Act was passed, which allowed black Africans legal citizenship within the homeland designated for their particular ethnic group. The Act did not give black Africans South African citizenship or civil and political rights. In creating these homelands, homogeneous societies were not steadily sought, and the government loosely considered tradition, proximity, practicality, and political expediency (Lever, 1982; Nengwekhulu, 1986; Ramutsindela, 1997).

A lasting legacy of apartheid is the high inequality levels which remain and continue to bear a persistent racial undertone (Leibbrandt, Woolard, Finn & Argen, 2010; Mbewe & Woolard, 2016). During the apartheid period, black South Africans in particular, but also coloured and Indian/Asian South Africans were deprived of economic opportunities (compared to whites) and this perpetuated a cycle of unequal distribution of income and wealth which remain a reality (Mbewe & Woolard, 2016). The latest inequality trends published show that, even two decades post-apartheid, white people earn three times more than black Africans on average (Statistics South Africa, 2019).

Given South Africa's history, it would therefore be interesting to determine if race, ethnicity or socio-economic factors dictate tourism/destination preferences and to what extent these have changed over the period under investigation.

4. RESEARCH METHODS

The study employed quantitative methodology to answer the research questions. This section presents the sampling and data collection, followed by a description of the dependent variable along with the analysis to determine construct validity. This is followed by a description of the independent variables, before commencing with inferential analyses to test main effects (hypotheses) and further interactional effects.

4.1. Sampling and data collection

The study made use of secondary data obtained from the South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS). The South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS) is a nationally representative, longitudinal cross-sectional survey conducted annually by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). The data collection mode is face-to-face interviewing, using structured questionnaires translated into all major language groupings (Afrikaans, isiZulu, isiXhosa, Setswana, Tshivenda and Xitsonga). The sampling frame used for each survey is based on the most recently conducted official population census at the time of each round. The estimated South African population for the applicable year is used as target population and data is weighted to the latest mid-year population estimates. In 2006 the sample size was 2 904 (weighted = 31 136 800) and 3 098 (weighted = 39 797 122) in 2017.⁸

4.2. The dependent variables

In 2003 a South African domestic tourism survey was undertaken by SATOUR to determine domestic travel patterns in South Africa (Rule, Struwig, Langa, Viljoen & Bouare, 2001). This was a very comprehensive and detailed tourism survey and in

⁸ More information about the survey can be found at (<http://www.hsrc.ac.za/departments/sasas>)

2006 and 2017, the HSRC researchers included a scale of 13 items from this survey in its SASAS survey to determine how travel preferences have changed over time. These items were selected because they measured the most popular leisure activities and would be best known to all members of the South African population.

To determine the linear combinations of the items, two initial principal component analyses (PCAs) were conducted for the 2006 and 2017 data respectively, using the 13 items. For both the 2006 and 2017 data, the KMO was 0.6 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity significant, implying sufficient underlying correlations to do a meaningful PCA. All the items had communalities of 0.3 and more, which are considered as sufficient (Tabachnick, Fidell & Ullman, 2007). The PCAs were followed by a Varimax orthogonal rotation, yielding five factors for both the 2006 and 2017 data. Only three of these factors were however retained for further data analysis, given they were the only factors with exactly similar items for both 2006 and 2017 (as indicated in Table 3) and could therefore be compared. The factors (dependent variables) were coined Game Park, Beach and Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR). After the reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha) (> 0.6 regarded as acceptable) (Kline, 2011), item 3 (I would love to spend time in the desert) was deleted from the first factor (for both 2006 and 2017), improving the alpha value from 0.637 to 0.739 in 2006 and 0.675 to 0.742 in 2017. Item 6 (Foreign destinations are better than local ones) was deleted from the second factor, improving the alpha from 0.512 to 0.556 in 2006 but reducing it to 0.493 from 0.531 to in 2017. These alphas represent acceptable levels for this type of analysis (Hinton, McMurray & Brownlow, 2014). Both the Game Park and Beach factors included two statements, including specific locations that are well known and part of South Africa's top attractions for both the international and domestic markets. The third dimension VFR's Cronbach alpha was very low (0.144 in 2006 and 0.251 in 2017) and for this reason only one item (Item 7) was used. A single statement was thus used to capture the essence of the construct (Dolnicar, 2019).

Table 3: Factor analysis of tourist preferences (2006; 2017)

Item	2006			2017		
	Game Park	Beach	VFR	Game Park	Beach	VFR
<i>Cronbach Alpha</i>	0.637	0.512	*	0.675	0.531	*
1. My favourite holiday destination is a Game Park	0.787			0.836		
2. I would rather go to the Kruger Park than the beach	0.857			0.629		
3. I would love to spend time in the desert	0.526			0.800		
4. The best place for a holiday is at the beach		0.823			0.697	
5. My favourite holiday destination is Cape Town		0.753			0.706	
7. Most of my holidays are spent at the homes of family members or relatives			0.688			0.682

Data source: South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS 2006; 2017). * Cronbach not calculated for single item factor

4.3 Independent variables

According to the 2017 Report of the South African Reconciliation Barometer Survey (Potgieter, 2017), language and race are by far the most prominent identities of South Africans and approximately one half of South Africans consider language and race as either their primary or secondary identities. In this study, race and language were combined to create an ethnicity variable across the four race groups and 11 official languages, resulting in the following groups being created: African Zulu, African Xhosa, African Swati and African Ndebele speakers (which form part of the bigger Nguni group); African Pedi, African Sotho and African Setswana speakers (part of the Sotho group), the African Venda group and African Tsonga group (SAHO, 2019). Black African respondents, who indicated Afrikaans and English as their main language, were also included. The minority non-African groups were grouped as coloured English, coloured Afrikaans and Indian/Asian English. European descents were grouped into white Afrikaans and white English speakers. Apart from ethnicity, the broader classification of race group was also an important independent variable, especially given that apartheid policies were based on this classification. The racial classification was black African, Indian/Asian, coloured and white; terminologies still commonly used to group South Africans (Hino *et al.*, 2018).

Additional variables that were critical for this study and have repeatedly shown to impact preference for certain destinations/activities, are socio-economic variables (Aizlewood *et al.*, 2006; Sevilla *et al.*, 2012; Stodolska *et al.*, 2019). The socio-economic variable that was used to determine economic status was a subjective measurement of personal and family wealth, rather than an objective measure. Floyd *et al.* (1994) established that subjective social class provides a more accurate reflection of the impact of socio-economic factors on recreational choices. Other socio-economic variables considered important as confirmed by Uvinha *et al.* (2017), included labour market status (employed, unemployed) and educational attainment (junior primary and below, senior primary, incomplete secondary, complete secondary and tertiary). Age was included as a continuous variable. Tomić, Leković and Tadić (2019) and Wangari (2017) found that age was a discriminating demographic variable influencing tourism preferences. Cohabitation has also been found to be important in destination/activity preferences (Kasim, Dzakiria, Park, Nor, Mokhtar & Rashid Radha, 2013) and was included (married, widowed, divorced/separated, never married). A variable measuring in which geotype a person resides (urban formal, urban informal, traditional authority areas and rural farms) was also included, since geography is strongly associated with ethnic identity (du Preez & Govender, 2020).

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study was guided by three research questions. To answer these questions a UNIANOVA was performed. Firstly, the main effects were interrogated to determine if race remain as a symbolic boundary even after the removal of discriminatory legislation. Similarly, from the main effects of the UNIANOVA the relative strength of socio-economic variables, race and ethnicity were tested. This analysis was used to answer RQ1 and RQ2. From analysing, detailing and considering the interactional effects between the variables, socio-demographic variables were identified that serve as enablers of transitioning to destinations considered outside the habitus.

Three separate models were constructed namely preferences for Game Parks, Beach and VFRs. Since there was only one dependent variable in each model, a UNIANOVA



was performed which provides a regression analysis and analysis of variance for one dependent variable by the independent variables included (UCLA, 2020). Multivariate tests all test the null hypothesis, namely that the mean on the composite variable is the same across groups. The test thus determines the equality of a composite of the means (optimised to yield the maximum possible F-ratio) across groups. After obtaining a statistically significant result for a specific main effect or interaction, the univariate F tests for each variable are examined to interpret the respective effect. It enables the identification of the specific independent variables that contributed to the significant overall effect. It is critical to measure the size of the effects of each of the variables. Partial eta squared statistics were calculated and presented to illustrate the effect size (Strasheim, 2019a; Strasheim, 2019b). In all models, all variables were found to be statistically significant ($p=0.000$). This is typically found with larger sample sizes and in this type of study, where the data is weighted to the population (Lin, Lucas Jr & Shmueli, 2013). Because of this, the partial eta squared (η^2) statistics were interpreted, where an effect size of 0.01 is considered as small, 0.06 as medium and 0.14 as large (Foster, Lane, Scott, Hebl, Guerra, Osherson & Zimmer, 2018). In the sections below, the discussion will firstly consider the main effect variables and thereafter the interaction effects.



5.1. Main effects

Table 4: UNIANOVA model to determine preferences for Game Parks, Beach and VFR (2006; 2017)

Source	2006						2017					
	Model 1 Game Park		Model 2 Beach		Model 3 VFR		Model 1 Game Park		Model 2 Beach		Model 3 VFR	
	Sig.	η^2	Sig.	η^2	Sig.	η^2	Sig.	η^2	Sig.	η^2	Sig.	η^2
Corrected Model	0.00	0.347	0.000	0.335	0.000	0.334	0.00	0.423	0.000	0.442	0.000	0.449
Intercept	0.00	0.913	0.000	0.938	0.000	0.944	0.00	0.918	0.000	0.961	0.000	0.966
Education	0.00	0.018	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.007	0.00	0.001	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.017
Income	0.00	0.005	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.007	0.00	0.001	0.000	0.006	0.000	0.005
Geotype	0.00	0.009	0.000	0.008	0.000	0.003	0.00	0.01	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.013
Race	0.00	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.000	0	0.00	0.002	0.000	0.009	0.000	0.002
Ethnicity	0.00	0.07	0.000	0.041	0.000	0.018	0.00	0.065	0.000	0.033	0.000	0.056
Employment	0.00	0.006	0.000	0.006	0.000	0.01	0.00	0.008	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.013
Cohabitation	0.00	0.003	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.00	0.004	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.000
Age	0.00	0.002	0.000	0.031	0.000	0.004	0.00	0.002	0.000	0.052	0.000	0.001
Age *Income	0.00	0.016	0.000	0.014	0.000	0.017	0.00	0.03	0.000	0.035	0.000	0.034
Age * Ethnicity	0.00	0.04	0.000	0.035	0.000	0.047	0.00	0.092	0.000	0.052	0.000	0.053
Age * Employment	0.00	0.009	0.000	0.008	0.000	0.011	0.00	0.024	0.000	0.016	0.000	0.025
Education * Income	0.00	0.007	0.000	0.01	0.000	0.016	0.00	0.034	0.000	0.027	0.000	0.022
Education *Ethnicity	0.00	0.036	0.000	0.036	0.000	0.042	0.00	0.032	0.000	0.029	0.000	0.044
Income * Ethnicity	0.00	0.043	0.000	0.046	0.000	0.042	0.00	0.061	0.000	0.079	0.000	0.063
Income * Race	0.00	0.001	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.00	0.003	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.000
Age * Race	0.00	0.002	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.002	0.00	0.004	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.002
Ethnicity*Employment	0.00	0.011	0.000	0.013	0.000	0.011	0.00	0.028	0.000	0.039	0.000	0.042
Age * Income * Ethnicity	0.00	0.079	0	0.086	0.000	0.099	0.00	0.129	0.000	0.102	0.000	0.147
R Squared	.407		.367		.428		.455		.491		.475	

Data source: South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS 2006; 2017).

5.1.1. Race and destination preference

From Table 4, it is evident that race was a significant predictor in all three models ($p=0.000$), but its contribution was minimal in discriminating between destination preferences. The contribution of race in Model 1 was almost non-existent ($\eta^2 = .001$) and remained weak in 2017 ($\eta^2 = .002$). In Model 2 (preference for beach activities), it was again evident that race is significant in terms of differentiating between the races,

but as in the previous model, the contribution to the model in 2006 was again very weak ($\eta^2 = .001$) but increased slightly in 2017 ($\eta^2 = .009$). Results for Model 3 similarly showed that the contribution of race was weak in terms of explaining preference in 2006 ($\eta^2 = .001$) and remained weak in 2017 ($\eta^2 = .002$). These results confirm literature on race and tourism which concludes that race plays a significant role in determining preferences and that race has an impact on tourism choices (Stodolska *et al.*, 2019). However, despite being significant, when controlling for other variables, it is clear from Table 4 that race is not the most important predictor of tourism destination preferences.

H₁ is therefore not supported.

Despite being weak, these differences remained statistically significant and should be considered. Of all the race groups, the white minority had the highest preference score in Model 1, thus preference for Game Parks, for both 2006 and 2017. This group was statistically different from all other race groups. Black Africans and Indians/Asians were statistically similar, while the coloured race group statistically differed from all other race groups, showing the lowest preference in Model 1. In addition, in 2017, the preference score from the black African group had decreased, widening the gap between preference for Game Parks between whites and other race groups. Continued limited visits of non-whites to South African national parks have similarly been found in other studies (Kruger & Douglas, 2015; Musavengane & Leonard, 2019).

For Model 2, in both 2006 and 2017, the coloured group was most interested in Beach activities, followed by Indians/Asians, black Africans and whites. This finding is not surprising, given the geographical proximity and intimate historical relationship of coloured people with the sea (Buchanan & Hurwitz, 1950; Visser, 2015). As was the case with interest in Game Parks, the African majority became less interested in Beach activities over time and in 2017, this race group had significantly lower preference scores than all other race groups.

Preferences for VFR (Model 3) was the only market not severely curtailed by discriminatory policies (Grundlingh, 2006; Rogerson, 2015b). Preference for VFR was

highest among black African respondents, followed by coloured respondents (statistically similar to black Africans), Indians/Asians and then white respondents. This positioning had remained similar between 2006 and 2017. This finding is in line with literature finding that VFR is often the main or only form of tourism undertaken by poorer population segments (Rogerson, 2015b).

5.1.2. Ethnicity and destination preference

From Table 4 it is evident that when considering ethnicity alongside other main variables, ethnicity had the most explanatory power in terms of distinguishing preference in all three models, both in 2006 and 2017. In Model 1, the partial eta squared for ethnicity in 2006 was medium ($\eta^2=0.07$) and in 2017 it was similar ($\eta^2=0.065$). In Model 2, ethnicity as a main variable had the biggest effect size in 2006 ($\eta^2=0.041$) and in 2017 ($\eta^2=0.033$), second only to age. This is in line with many other studies that show preference for Beach activities is linked to age, more specifically with younger age cohorts (Wu, Law, Fong & Liu, 2019).

As in Models 1 and 2, ethnicity was again the most important contributor as a main variable in distinguishing levels of preference in Model 3. In 2006 the effect size of ethnicity was large ($\eta^2=.018$) but became even more pronounced in 2017 ($\eta^2=0.056$). From Table 4 it is evident that among the main effect variables or contributors, ethnicity had the biggest effect for all three models and therefore the biggest discriminatory power and affect for preferences pertaining to Game Parks, Beach destinations and VFR.

H₂ is therefore supported.

Given that ethnicity has the biggest contribution to preferences in terms of a main variable, it was worth considering the ethnicity variable descriptively for each of the models. Looking at preference for Game Parks (Table 5), it is evident that although some shifts had taken place between ethnic groups between 2006 and 2017, the relative positioning in terms of preference for Game Parks remained stable. In both 2006 and 2017 the coloured minority (regardless of language) scored low, implying a



form of 'cultural distance'. Likewise, apart from the IsiNdebele group, the Nguni language groups also had low scores in Model 1, with Sotho speaking groups showing middling levels of interest in both 2006 and 2017. Interestingly though and nullifying popular perceptions that Game Parks are mostly preferred by white Afrikaans speakers, Venda and Xitsonga African ethnic groups scored higher (statistically similar) than the white Afrikaans speaking minority in both 2006 and 2017. Although this goes against the popular notion, this is not surprising since Xitsonga and Venda people are culturally close and have an intimate knowledge of game and surrounding nature (Anthony, 2006; Constant & Tshisikhawe, 2018; Fairer-Wessels, 2008).

From the results it seems evident that geographic proximity, a factor often considered in ethnic classification, plays a central role in destination preferences. The coloured minority is a group that resides mostly in Cape Town, which is geographically far removed from traditional Game Park areas. Conversely, Tsonga and Venda groups are adjacent to the biggest Game Park in South Africa, namely the Kruger Park. Geographical proximity is therefore an element that potentially plays a role when considering cultural distance factors for tourism preferences (McKercher, 2018; Waters, 2016).



Table 5: Preferences for Game Parks (Mean scores by ethnic grouping)

2006								2017									
	N	1	2	3	4	5	6		N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Coloured English	82	2.4						African IsiXhosa	402	2.3							
African Afrikaans	23	2.5						African Siswati	50	2.4	2.4						
Coloured Afrikaans	317	2.6	2.6					Coloured Afrikaans	364	2.4	2.4						
Indian English	266	2.7	2.7	2.7				Coloured English	120	2.5	2.5	2.5					
African IsiZulu	374	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7			African IsiZulu	423	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5				
African IsiXhosa	300		2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9		Indian English	308	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6			
African Siswati	89		2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9		African Sesotho	225		2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7			
White English	88		3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	African Afrikaans	28		2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7		
African Sesotho	230			3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	African English	41			2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	
African Setswana	233			3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	African Setswana	224			2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	
White Afrikaans	198				3.1	3.1	3.1	African Sepedi	233				2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	
African English	17				3.1	3.1	3.1	White English	93					2.9	2.9	2.9	
African Sepedi	266					3.2	3.2	African IsiNdebele	34					2.9	2.9	2.9	
African IsiNdebele	37					3.3	3.3	White Afrikaans	203						3.0	3.0	3.0
African Xitsonga	92						3.3	African Xitsonga	74							3.1	3.1
African Venda	46						3.3	African Venda	43								3.4
Significance		0.127	0.57	0.119	0.056	0.071	0.081	Significance		0.099	0.150	0.053	0.067	0.106	0.060	0.059	0.053

Data source: South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS 2006; 2017). $p < .001$.

Preference for Beach destinations again remained relatively similar between 2006 and 2017 (Table 6). In contrast to Game Park preferences, Venda and Xitsonga ethnic groups scored lowest in Beach destination preferences and could be considered as culturally distant from this form of tourism. These groups are also physically removed from beach areas and proximity again played a role (McKercher, 2018; Waters, 2016). The Nguni and Sotho groups showed middling interest levels. Non-black African minorities scored highest on preference for Beach destinations, typically groups who have a higher per capita income (Gradin, 2015; Hino *et al.*, 2018). Contrary to Game Park preferences, coloured Afrikaans and English speakers scored high on preferences for Beach. Again, geographic proximity seems to heighten preferences, given that majority of the coloured community reside in coastal areas in the Cape Province.

Table 6: Preferences for Beach (Mean scores by ethnic grouping)

2006					2017				
Ethnic group	N	1	2	3	Ethnic group	N	1	2	3
African Venda	46	3.0			African Xitsonga	67	3.0		
African Xitsonga	92	3.0	3.0		African Sesotho	215	3.0		
African IsiZulu	377	3.1	3.1	3.1	African Venda	42	3.0		
African Siswati	85	3.2	3.2	3.2	African Siswati	45	3.0	3.0	
African English	18	3.3	3.3	3.3	African IsiXhosa	397	3.1	3.1	
White English	93	3.3	3.3	3.3	African IsiNdebele	33	3.1	3.1	
African IsiXhosa	313	3.3	3.3	3.3	African IsiZulu	398	3.1	3.1	
African Setswana	237		3.4	3.4	African Sepedi	222	3.2	3.2	3.2
African Sepedi	271		3.4	3.4	African Setswana	214	3.2	3.2	3.2
Indian English	267			3.4	White Afrikaans	201	3.2	3.2	3.2
Coloured English	82			3.4	Indian English	301	3.2	3.2	3.2
Afrikaans white	206			3.4	White English	94	3.3	3.3	3.3
African Sesotho	236			3.4	African Afrikaans	27		3.3	3.3
African Afrikaans	26			3.5	Coloured Afrikaans	353		3.3	3.3
African IsiNdebele	36			3.5	Coloured English	118			3.4
Coloured Afrikaans	358			3.5	African English	41			3.5
Significance		0.054	0.063	0.052	Significance		0.072	0.054	0.060

Data source: South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS 2006; 2017). $p < .001$.

In both 2006 and 2017 the black African majority groups tended to have higher scores on Model 3 - indicating higher preference for VFR relative to other minority groups. Conversely, white English and Afrikaans speakers scored lowest, thus more disassociated with VFR than other ethnic groups. Although VFR is typically associated with lower income groups (Kasim



et al., 2013; Rogerson, 2015b), a history of migratory work patterns among black Africans also potentially entrench patterns of VFR (Rogerson, 2015b).

Table 7: Preferences for VFR (Mean scores by ethnic grouping)

2006							2017							
	N	1	2	3	4	5		N	1	2	3	4	5	6
English White	93	2.9					English White	94	3.5					
White Afrikaans	207	3.1					Afrikaans White	206	3.6	3.6				
African Xitsonga	94		3.4				African English	41	3.6	3.6	3.6			
Coloured English	83		3.5				African Siswati	51		3.9	3.9	3.9		
African Siswati	89		3.5	3.5			Indian English	313			3.9	3.9		
Indian English	269		3.5	3.5			Coloured English	123			3.9	3.9	3.9	
African IsiNdebele	38		3.6	3.6	3.6		African Sesotho	235				4.0	4.0	
African IsiZulu	389		3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	African Afrikaans	28				4.1	4.1	4.1
African English	19		3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	African IsiNdebele	35				4.1	4.1	4.1
African Sesotho	243		3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	Coloured Afrikaans	380				4.1	4.1	4.1
Coloured Afrikaans	378		3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	African IsiXhosa	420				4.2	4.2	4.2
African Venda	46		3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	African Xitsonga	75				4.2	4.2	4.2
African Sepedi	276				3.9	3.9	African Sepedi	238				4.2	4.2	4.2
African IsiXhosa	327				4.0	4.0	African Setswana	231				4.2	4.2	4.2
African Setswana	259					4.0	African IsiZulu	438					4.3	4.3
African Afrikaans	29					4.1	African Venda	43						4.3
Significance		0.301	0.053	0.063	0.089	0.108	Significance		0.591	0.56	0.58	0.67	0.61	0.169

Data source: South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS 2006; 2017). $p < .001$.

5.1.3. Socio-economic status and destination preference

To test the marginality hypothesis, it was necessary to consider the income variable in Table 4. Despite being statistically significant, the contribution of income was weak, both in 2006 and 2017. Education and employment, which can also be considered as socio-economic variables, also had very weak explanatory power. Despite the weak contribution, it is worth mentioning that in Model 1, education contributed positively ($\eta p^2 = .018$), implying that a higher education was associated with Model 1 (preference for Game Park destinations). At the same time, education had a negative association with VFR ($\eta p^2 = .017$) as well as employment, both in 2006 VFR ($\eta p^2 = .01$) and 2017 ($\eta p^2 = .01$).

Despite being significant, it is therefore evident that the effect size of socio-economic variables as main effect variable is very negligible with regards to Model 1, Model 2 and Model 3.

H₃ is therefore rejected.

5.2. Interactional effects

One of the most interesting findings of this analysis was that interactional effects between variables accounted for most of the variance. This is in line with Brown (2008) who states that reporting the traditional ANOVA source table and discussing the associated significance levels is merely the beginning since there is much more to learn from analysing, detailing and considering the interaction effects between variables. In the next section, the interactional effects for each of the different preferences or models will be discussed which assists in answering RO2 and RO3.

5.2.1 Preference for Game Parks (Model 1)

Preferences for travel and tourism activities are complex and preferences cannot merely be explained by a single domain factor, but rather by the interplay of demographics variables. The interactional effect of age and income in Model 1 was significant in both 2006 ($F(20,28440832)=20008.647$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.016$) and 2017 ($F(20,20573154)=20291.465$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.03$). In 2006, the 16-24 age group, regardless of income, had the highest scores but in 2017, the trend shifted with wealth rather than age dictating interest. Other socio-economic status variables such as income and educational attainment had a significant (and positive) association with preference for Game Parks. Higher education, income and better employment when interacting with age and ethnicity showed positive associations. This pattern was observed in 2006 but was even more pronounced in 2017. The effect size of the interactional effect of age and ethnicity was small in 2006 ($F(51,28440832)=19426.719$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.04$) but medium in 2017 ($F(49,20573154)=27301.264$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.092$). It also showed that regardless of age group, Xitsonga, Tshivenda and white Afrikaans respondents rated highest on preference for Game Parks.

The biggest interaction and explanatory power for Game Parks for both 2006 and 2017 was found for the interaction between age, income and ethnic group. In 2006 this contribution was large ($F(151,28440832)=13700.449$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.079$) and in 2017, even larger ($F(132,20573154)=14802.309$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.129$). Looking at the interactional effect of these variables in Model 1 over time, it is evident that the change over time and assimilation have not happened between ethnic groups, but rather between the youngest age groups within ethnic groups. Regardless of whether being wealthy, just getting along, poor, or very poor; youngsters of Sotho, Nguni, Afrikaans white, English white and Indian had the highest increase in scoring over time; indicating an increased preference for Game Parks. This strongly suggests a generational effect, with youngsters of most ethnic groups showing an increase in preference.

5.2.2. Preference for Beach (Model 2)

The interactional effect of age and income for Model 2 was significant in both 2006 ($F(20,29116602)=15713.777$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.014$) and 2017 ($F(20,19740697)=14693.46$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.035$). As was the case in Model 1, the 50+ cohort was statistically different from other age groups in both 2006 and 2017, showing an inverse association between age and interest in Beach. The interactional effect between age and ethnicity showed that among all ethnic groups, young respondents exhibited more interest. Preference for this domain was driven by age and the youngest cohort, regardless of income or employment, was positively associated with the dependent.

In 2006, the poor or very poor, those just getting along, as well as the wealthy all significantly differed from each other, with those incrementally wealthier and younger, more interested in Beach preferences. In 2017, a form of confluence took place between those just getting along and the wealthy, who became equally interested in Beach preferences. Education was positively associated with the dependent with the younger groups with a matric or post-matric qualification scoring highest and those self-employed (with employees) scoring highest in Model 2.

Interaction between cohort, income and ethnicity again proved to be the strongest predictor of preference for Beach activity with a large effect size ($F(152,29116602)=13392.348$,

$p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.086$) in 2006 and even bigger ($F(127,19740697)=7285.15$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.102$) in 2017. The results show that age was positively associated with the dependent with an almost universal inverse relationship between interest in Beach versus age. Younger people of all ethnicities were likely to score higher on this dimension.

5.2.3. Preference for VFR (Model 3)

The interaction between age and income was significant in Model 3 in both 2006 ($F(20,30087140)=21364.912$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.017$) and in 2017 ($F(20,21100000)=20816.226$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.034$). The interaction between age and income yielded the opposite effect than for the Beach dimensions, with the poor or very poor, as well as older individuals most interested in VFR. Other socio-economic variables such as education and employment were also negatively associated with the dependent. The interaction between class variables, such as income, had significant but very nominal effect sizes and it was mostly the unemployed, discouraged work seekers, the disabled and pensioners that measured high on this dimension. An inverse relationship between having a qualification and scoring on this dimension was evident in 2006 and 2017.

In 2006 the income-ethnicity interrelationship ($F(51,30087140)=21680.314$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.042$) revealed that almost universally, lower income groups scored highest on this dimension. The only exceptions were the Venda and English-speaking groups, where higher income earners were also interested in VFR. In 2017 the relationship between income and ethnicity ($F(50,21100000)=16159.528$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.063$) showed that for all ethnic groups, the tendency was to be less interested in VFR as income rose.

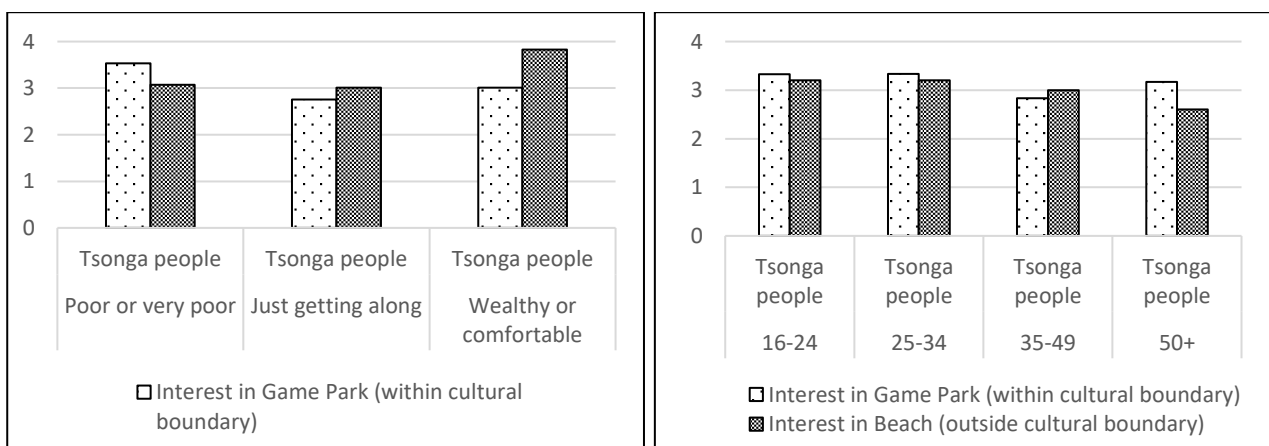
As with model 1 and model 2, the three-way interaction between age, income and ethnicity explained and contributed the most to the model. In 2006 the contribution was large ($F(155,30087140)=17734.818$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.099$) and in 2017, even bigger ($F(133,21100000)=15582.124$, $p=0.00$ $\eta^2=0.147$). However, contrary to Model 1 and Model 2, the relationships between age, income and interest were in different directions. Concerning interest in VFR, it was those with a lower income and higher age that was most interested in VFR. Contrary, youngsters with higher income were less interested.

5.3. Facilitating interest outside a cultural boundary

When analysing the data descriptively in more detail, it was found that youngsters and the wealthy were much more interested in destinations geographically far removed from the group’s location and outside the typical cultural boundary of the group. Older and less wealthy respondents were more interested in destinations which were closer in terms of geographical proximity and popular within the cultural boundary. To illustrate this, the Tsonga and Coloured groups are examined.

The Tsonga ethnic group are geographically proximate to a large game park and on average exhibit high levels of interest in game parks which can be construed as part of their habitus. This group is geographically removed from beach areas and on average exhibit low interest in beach destinations. Beach areas can therefore be considered outside their cultural boundary. In the graphs below, it is evident that among poorer Tsonga respondents, interest in game parks were high relative to wealthy Tsonga respondent whilst the wealthy Tsonga respondents had a heightened interest in beach destinations. Young Tsonga respondents showed high interest in both destinations but among the older people a preference for game parks rather than beach areas were evident. Descriptively the data therefore suggests that the wealthy and the young that tend to show more interest in destinations that can be considered as outside their cultural boundary or typical travel habitus.

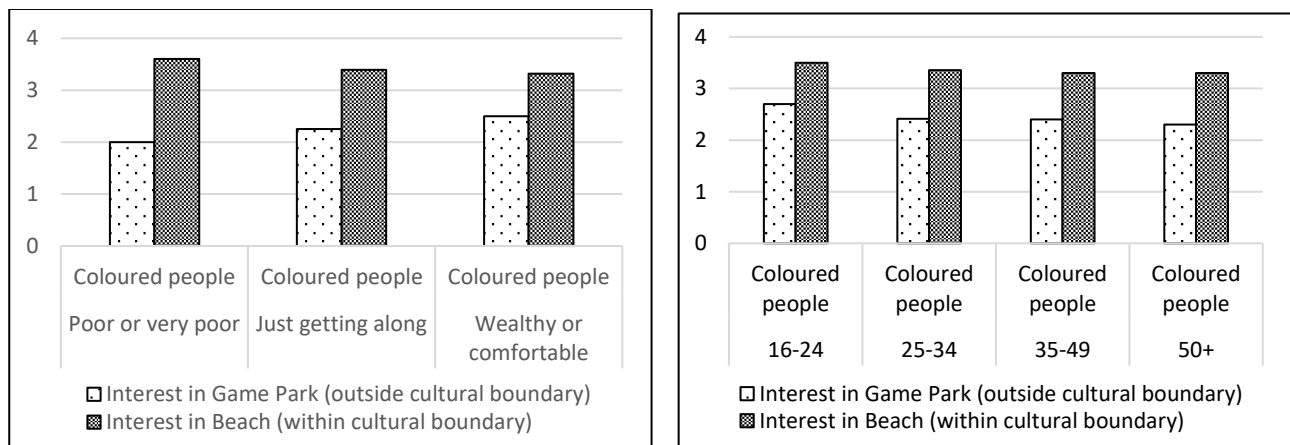
Figure 12: Travel preference among Tsonga people by age and subjective wealth (0-5 scale)



The coloured ethnic group is located near beach areas and have a habitus associated with beach areas. This group is geographically removed from game parks and on average exhibit

low interest in game parks. Game parks areas can therefore be considered outside their cultural boundary. In the graphs below, it is evident that among poorer Coloured respondents, interest in beach areas were high relative to wealthy Coloured respondent whilst the wealthy Coloured respondents had a heightened interest in game parks. Young coloured respondents showed higher interest in game parks than the other age groups. Descriptively the data therefore suggests that the wealthy and the young that tend to show more interest in destinations that can be considered as outside the travel habitus.

Figure 13: Travel preference among Coloured people by age and subjective wealth (0-5 scale)



Given the above, it seems that the young and the more affluent exhibited the most interest in destinations that can be considered outside of the habitus of the group. In this sense, the term venturers seem applicable. Certain characteristics (being wealthy and young) seem to facilitate venturer notions and these groups shows interest in destinations considered outside the cultural boundary or travel habitus. On the other hand, the older and less affluent travellers exhibited tendencies associated with dependables. They tend to prefer destinations that could be considered as culturally familiar and part of their habitus. This thesis therefore contributes to the theory of Plog in that it shows its applicability in terms of the movement of social groups (and not just individuals) into new and culturally distant destinations; and also contributes to understanding how groups potentially migrate to new travel destinations. Although these finding is based on descriptive findings and exploratory, it is worth considering for future interrogation and testing.

6. CONCLUSION

Given the history of South Africa, this study was particularly interested in testing the tourism preferences against the marginality-ethnicity hypothesis of Washburne (1978). The most significant finding pertaining to this theory was that the more refined ethnicity classification, rather than the overarching race variable, was a better predictor of preference for all types of travel preferences under review. This finding supports findings from other researchers (Floyd & Stodolska, 2014; Stodolska, 2018) that caution against the homogenisation of racial groups. Another finding from this paper showed that unidimensional, single or main effect variables only had small effect sizes, while medium effect sizes were noted for interrelational effects. This is in line with modern theory that argues that travel and leisure participation should be considered as driven by a multitude of effects and is multidimensional (Floyd & Stodolska, 2019; Stodolska *et al.*, 2019).

Results from the UNIANOVA showed that ethnicity as well as wealth contribute to preferences for certain destinations. This study corroborates national and international findings which show that as a race group, whites tend to dominate interest in Game Parks (Butler & Richardson, 2015; Kruger & Douglas, 2015; Musavengane & Leonard, 2019; Scott & Lee, 2018). However, this study also found that certain ethnic black groups (those residing adjacent to the biggest Game Park – the Kruger National Park) had the same levels of preference for Game Parks than whites. In line with many other studies such as Wu *et al.* (2019), the study found that preference for Beach activities are associated with age, more specifically with younger age cohorts. Interest in Game Parks was also associated with age (the younger generation), income and education. Growing interest among the emerging youth market bodes positive prospects for a sought-after, diversified visitor profile to sustain these natural areas. This study also reiterated findings that VFR is typically associated with lower income (Kasim *et al.*, 2013; Rogerson, 2015b) as well as age (older individuals) and that socio-economic realities dictate VFR preference.

Perhaps the biggest contribution of this paper is the finding pertaining to the transition of groups to new leisure preferences. Plog's (1974) psychographic motivation theory is valuable to explain the basis of change. Accordingly, tourists fall along a continuum, ranging from dependables who are nervous, non-adventurous and prefer the familiar; to venturers

who seek adventure or experience and are usually first to explore new destinations. Between these two extremes are mid-centrics who represent most tourists. Findings from this study suggest that if a destination is considered culturally distant for an ethnic group, it will be young and wealthy individuals who mirror ventures' notions with heightened interest in such destinations. These individuals also exhibit reduced interest in destinations that are familiar (those that can be considered within the cultural boundary). Among the poorer cohorts a heightened preference for the culturally familiar are noticed. The young and wealthy individuals within an ethnic group are therefore first to want to venture and explore destinations not familiar to the ethnic group. The socio-demographic variables, namely age and wealth, thus act as enablers for individuals to extend travel boundaries considered to be culturally distant.

Habitus is critical in understanding the tourism consciousness (Musavengane & Leonard, 2019) and factors such as geographic location and a sense of history are critical in determining habitus and if a destination is culturally distant or familiar. Cultural distance from destinations plays a critical role in the preference of destinations and results suggest that the notion of cultural distance is strongly linked to travel habitus (Buchanan & Hurwitz, 1950; Visser, 2015). In this regard, the significance of age should be considered. Greater interest in travel among youngsters from various ethnic groups that were previously marginalised through a discriminatory system, indicates the potential for the domestic tourism landscape to change across generations. This relates to levels of acculturation and ethnocultural identities of the youth and could determine the extent to which they will diversify the domestic tourism market (Du Preez & Govender, 2020).

A limitation of the study concerns the fact that examples of travel preferences are limited to Game Parks, Beach visits and VFR; and future research investigate other types of travel preferences in a similar manner. A further recommendation forthcoming from the study is that choice models such as multiple hierarchy stratification techniques would be critical in future research of this nature to determine the nuanced variations between generations, ethnicity and income, given that combinations and permutations of these variables explain variability in leisure preference best.



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CHAPTER 3: ARTICLE 2

EXPLORING RELATIVE POSITIONING OF DESTINATION CHOICES ACROSS A PRODUCT TAXONOMY

Chapter 3 presents the second article of this thesis and involves exploring the relative positioning of destination choices. This paper investigates the formation and evolution of destination choice sets given travel experience. The intention of this study is to determine whether destination set choice selection manifests a progressive hierarchy or pattern. The research follows the conceptual rationale of Pearce and Lee (2005), and attempts to determine if a travel career ladder (TCL) or travel career pattern (TCP) exists in relation to destination choice, using the conceptual taxonomy of tourism products of McKercher (2016) as framework. The study was based on a representative sample of 3 098 respondents from South Africa. Quantitative analysis included a Two-Step Cluster and CHAID analyses. The paper concludes with a proposed destination choice travel career pattern framework.

This article will be submitted to a journal focussing on tourism and marketing. The article presented in this chapter remains in its original form. Headings, page margins, font and font size presented here are not according to editorial guidelines but were kept consistent throughout the thesis.

EXPLORING RELATIVE POSITIONING OF DESTINATION CHOICES ACROSS A PRODUCT TAXONOMY

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ABSTRACT

Travel destination choice consists of an assessment and selection process, whereby alternative destinations are compared. Current studies on this topic mainly focus on the bases for such comparisons and commonly incorporate product attributes or socio-psychological and practical factors. The intention of this study is to further this literature by determining whether this choice selection manifests a progressive pattern similar to what has been proposed in terms of travel motivations and needs. To this end, the research follows the conceptual rationale of Pearce and Lee (2005), and attempts to determine if a travel career ladder (TCL) or travel career pattern (TCP) exists in relation to destination choice, using the conceptual taxonomy of tourism products of McKercher (2016) as framework. The positioning of destination preferences is essentially considered given travel experience. The study involved a representative sample of 3 098 respondents from South Africa; a country with extreme disparity between individuals' exposure to travel. Quantitative analysis included Two-Step Cluster and CHAID analyses. The study findings suggest a form of hierarchy of destination choice and while a travel career ladder is not confirmed, a travel career pattern emerged. For both the low socio-economic travel experience and high socio-economic travel experience groups going to the beach, visiting friends and relatives (VFR), and shopping were the most popular destination choices at the core of such a pattern of products. The high socio-economic travel experience group showed significantly higher interest in a variety of destinations, while the low socio-economic travel experience group exhibited proportionally higher interest in three destinations that can be considered as familiar and attainable as per Plog's psychocentric/dependable continuum. The paper concludes with a proposed destination choice travel career pattern.

Keywords: Destination choice; Set choice size; Product taxonomy; Travel Career Ladder; Travel Career Pattern.

1. INTRODUCTION

Destination choice (DC) has been studied intensively from a variety of perspectives in tourism literature. A recent bibliographical study found over 6 000 scientific publications under the keywords tourist destination or destination choice (Sunao Saito & Iara Strehlau, 2018) and the majority of these studies implemented the 'set theory' as a conceptual framework (Karl *et al.*, 2015). This theory stipulates that destination choices are essentially narrowed down among various alternatives in a funnel-like manner (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Sunao Saito & Iara Strehlau, 2018; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989); progressively eliminating destination choices during three core stages. It starts with an individual's awareness of destinations, followed by distinctions based on availability, ability and acceptability to visit these destinations, and lastly taking action towards visiting destinations deemed relevant (Karl *et al.*, 2015; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005).

Despite this topic being studied intensively, an area that is under-researched is the placements of destinations in the final choice sets and positioning of destinations relative to others (Decrop, 2010; Pike, 2017). Furthermore, although studies have been done on change in destination choice because of travel experience, none of these studies have determined if these changes result from a hierarchy or pattern of choice. The limited studies in this area of research can possibly be ascribed to the absence of a conceptual framework or taxonomy of tourism products against which destination choices, hierarchies, or patterns of placement can be researched. The first comprehensive taxonomy of tourism products was completed as recently as 2016, which now makes it possible and plausible to undertake a study on the positioning and sequencing of tourism products (McKercher, 2016).

This study contributes to destination choice literature by determining the prioritisation of destination choices and if prioritisation forms a ladder or a pattern. This study was inspired by the work of Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) and Pearce and Lee (2005) on travel motivation (push factors) and follows a similar approach to the latter publication, with the

difference that the focus of this study is pull factors. The study of Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) on travel motivation determined that push factors form a hierarchy and progression of travel experience leads to a career ladder (Travel Career Ladder - TCL). After some criticism, they refined their model by explaining that push motives rather form a pattern (Travel Career Pattern - TCP) (Pearce & Lee, 2005). Both studies had in common an evolutionary process that involved changes in travel needs as travel experience increased over time. After this work, literature on push factors became much more coherent due to the establishment of these theories. The TCL and TCP were based on Maslow's five-level hierarchy of needs which formed the conceptual framework to determine change and progression given travel experience (Maslow, 1970).

In this study, the taxonomy of tourism products of McKercher (2016) will be used as the basis of classifying tourism products. This study will be the first attempt to understand how travel experience generally impacts the number and combinations of destination choices on a taxonomy, and how travel experience influences destination choices and movement on the taxonomy. It is, for instance, conceivable that travel experience might lead to a preference for more specific destinations, thus lower taxon choices (McKercher & Tolkach, 2020). Information on preferences and positioning of destinations, such as undertaken in this study, has the potential to shape and guide product development; and the ontology can assist the tourism industry with more effective policy and planning (Coccosis & Constantoglou, 2008). The study also heeds to the appeal of McKercher and Tolkach (2020) to further the academic work on the position of attraction and motivations in different settings.

The main aims of this study are therefore to determine whether:

- (a) Travel experience impacts the set choice size (number of destinations chosen).
- (b) Travel experience has a bearing on combinations of destinations chosen.
- (c) Destination choice preferences form a hierarchy or pattern.

The study employed quantitative methodology and used nationally representative data from the 2017 South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS). South Africa offers an ideal context to research this topic, given the extreme disparity between individuals' exposure to travel experience (Acheampong, 2016). In terms of the analysis, a cluster analysis was

undertaken to explore the data and to determine if individuals can be segmented meaningfully, based on travel destination preferences. Results revealed that two groups formed, which could be classified as low socio-economic travel experience and high socio-economic travel experience groups. Descriptive and inferential techniques were used to validate and test the clusters for appropriateness. After ensuring the appropriateness of the clusters, the groups were analysed to examine and compare the number of destinations chosen, as well as the ranking of selected preferences per cluster. The differences in destination choice patterns were lastly examined by using CHAID analysis to determine whether a ladder or pattern forms, and whether choices differ significantly per high or low socio-economic travel experience group.

2. A TAXONOMY OF DESTINATION PRODUCTS (PULL FACTORS)

The need for a comprehensive classification of tourism products has been acknowledged (Mapingure, 2018; McKercher, 2016; McKercher & Tolkach, 2020) and many studies have attempted to classify or group selected tourism products. Most of these studies have used limited destination choices and classified them utilising factor analysis (Kassean & Gassita, 2013; Khuong & Ha, 2014; Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015; Said & Maryono, 2018), but have not attempted an actual taxonomy.

A taxonomy is a ranked order classification system which illustrates the relationships between items at different levels and is commonly used in natural sciences to classify fauna and flora. The top tier of a taxonomy generally defines a broader classification that captures the essence of all the groups and subgroups that fall under it. The taxa that fall under these groupings are then vertically arranged to reflect relationships from the general to the specific. Lower-level tiers are therefore much more specific (Kotler *et al.*, 2012). Some tourism studies have classified products at a certain level, for instance at the macro level (for example destinations) (Jørgensen, Law & King, 2018), or at a lower product class level such as culture or adventure (Du Cros & McKercher, 2014; Goldberg, Birtles, Marshall, Curnock, Case & Beeden, 2018). Other studies have even focused on the lower tier product classes, such as agritourism and medical tourism. Very few studies have attempted to create an actual matrix or taxonomy of tourism products (see Table 8 for relevant studies).



Table 8: Studies attempting taxonomies of destination products

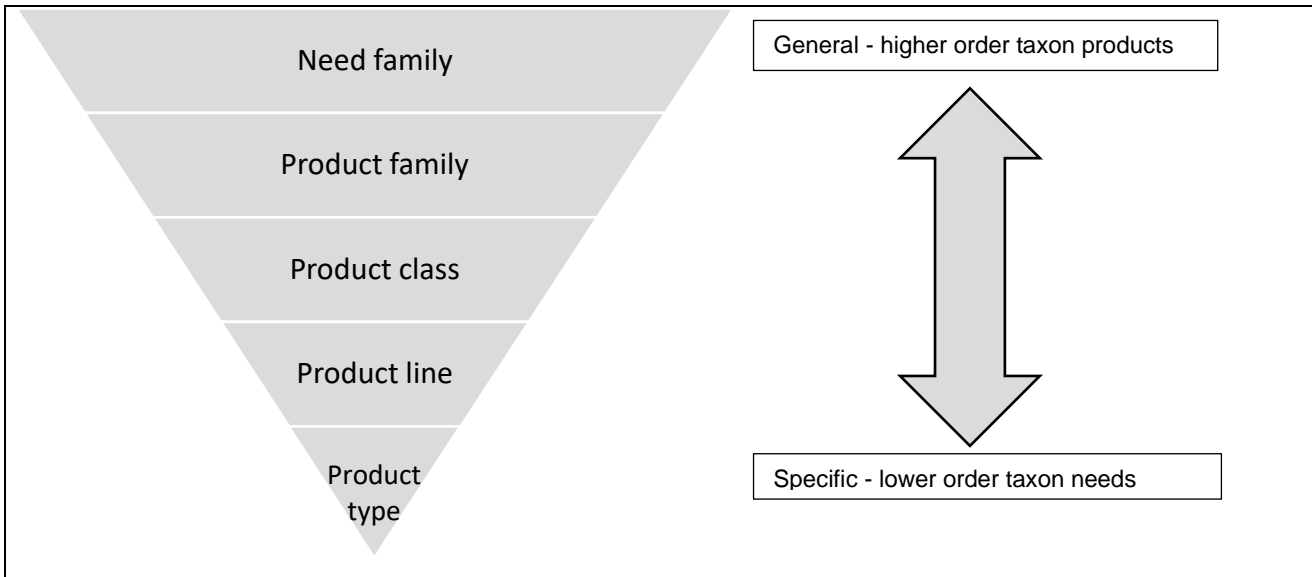
Tier	Sector	Author	Framework	Key findings
Nature	Adventure	Buckley (2010)	Matrix	Product pyramid of volume by skill required
	Nature	Arnegger, Woltering and Job (2010)	4 X 4 matrix	x axis e centrality of motive y axis e level of individuality
		Fennel (2012)	Two 2 X 2 matrices	Matrix 1 - Impact e consumptive vs. non-consumptive - Natural resource values e preservation vs. conservation Matrix 2 - Technical skills (high or low reliance) - Learning (activity-based or nature-based)
General	Attraction	Goeldner and Ritchie (2007)	Taxonomy	Main attraction types: cultural, natural, events, recreation, entertainment
Pleasure	Culinary	Hall and Mitchell (2005)	Matrix	Purpose (primary, secondary, tertiary)
	Sports events	Gammon (2011)	Taxonomy	Five main categories: special, mega, hallmark, sports heritage, parades and festivals, /community sports events
Human endeavour	Cultural/ heritage	Tweed (2005)	Taxonomy	Three main categories: object, event or place
	Cultural/ heritage	Du Cros and McKercher (2014)	Taxonomy	Cultural attractions defined-based on common management
	Cultural/ heritage	Richards (2001)	Matrix	x axis function (education to entertainment) y axis form (present to past)
	Cultural heritage dark tourism	Sharpley (2005)	Matrix	x axis level of interest (pale to dark) y axis level of development to exploit death (accidental or purposeful)
Personal	Poverty	Ausland (2010)	Taxonomy	Three main categories: learning (education travel), leisure (tourism), labour (volunteerism)
All tiers	Framework taxonomy-not populated with products	Keller and Kotler (2012)	Taxonomy	Framework of a taxonomy: family, progressing down through product family, product class, product line, product type, and the individual item
All tiers	Framework of taxonomy-populated with products	McKercher (2016)	Taxonomy	All products grouped under one of five types of need families of: pleasure, personal quest, understanding human endeavours, nature, and business

Source: Amended from McKercher (2016).

McKercher (2016) was the first to attempt a comprehensive tourism product/destination taxonomy by using the six-tier framework of Kotler *et al.* (2012). The top tier of a taxonomy consists of the need family, followed by the product family, product class, product line,

product type and item framework. The taxonomy therefore follows from a broad classification to a more specific classification of products.

Figure 14: Taxonomy of destination products

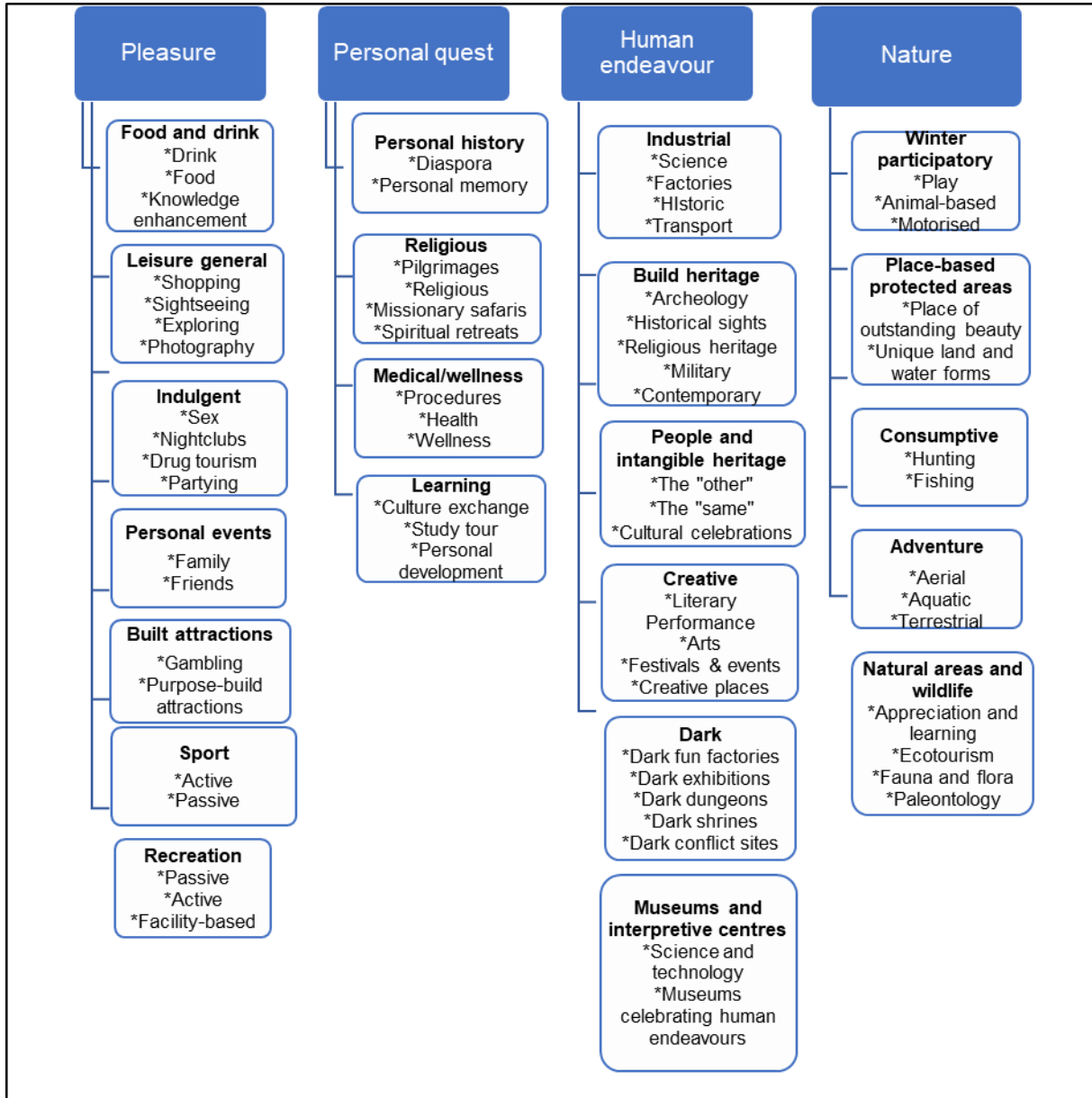


Source: Author's construct (2022).

At this point, it is important to reiterate that the intention of this study is not to match the motives of the TCL or TCP with the travel products on the taxonomy. The intention is to rather focus on travel products or destinations and to determine if they follow a ladder or pattern. Given that the taxonomy of McKercher (2016) will be used to classify tourism products and determine if a pattern or hierarchy forms, it is important to portray the taxonomy of products of McKercher.

Figure 15 illustrates the first three layers of the taxonomy of McKercher (2016). The top layer (boxes) consists of the four high level groupings or need families; namely pleasure, personal quest, human endeavour and nature (the business need family was excluded for this study). Under each need family the product boxes represent the different product families (in bold), with the product classes represented by asterisks (*). Under each of these product classes, a further tier is found, namely product lines, which are refined further to include product types and finally, product items. Due to limited space in this article, all these layers cannot be illustrated, but the comprehensive taxonomy can be found in McKercher (2016).

Figure 15: Domains and the product on the taxonomy (first three tiers)



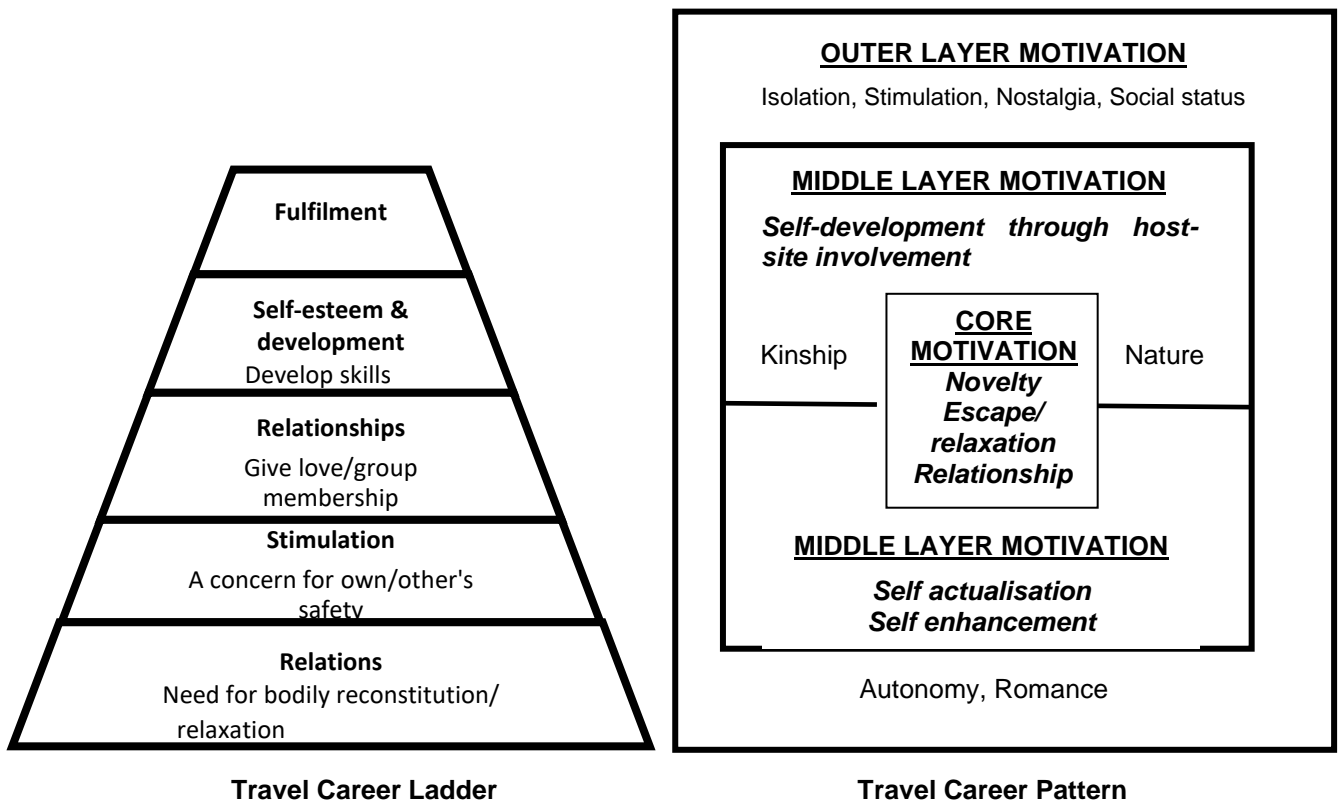
Source: McKercher (2016).

Given the creation of this comprehensive taxonomy, the question can be asked if (a) destination choice levels evolve and change on a taxonomy as travel experience is gained, and (b) if this change happens in the form of a hierarchy or pattern. In attempting to understand this, the TCL and TCP framework and methodologies will be used as a basis.

3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK EXPLAINING THE EVOLVING NATURE OF TRAVEL MOTIVES (PUSH FACTORS)

Theories about travel destination motives which involve the positioning of tourist destination can be divided into three major groupings (Yoo, Yoon & Park, 2018). These groupings include: (i) the classic works of the psychographic profile model, derived from Plog (1974); (ii) modes of travel experiences as type of social behaviour (Cohen, 1979); and (iii) the social psychological desires based on past experiences, derived from Pearce’s travel career ladder (TCL) (Pearce, 1988; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983), or travel career pattern (TCP) (Choi, 2020; Moscardo *et al.*, 1996; Pearce, 2014; Pearce & Lee, 2005; Yoo *et al.*, 2018). All three these theories have in common an evolutionary process that involves changed motivation as travel experience increases over time, but only two of these theories elaborate on the evolutionary process and suggest the existence of a hierarchy – the TCL (Pearce, 1988; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983) or a pattern - the TCP (Pearce & Lee, 2005). In the next section these theories will be discussed in more detail.

Figure 16: Travel Career Ladder and Travel Career Pattern



Source: Adapted from Song and Bae (2018).

3.1. Travel Career Ladder (TCL)

The work of Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) was an attempt to determine if travel motives dovetail to Maslow's motivation of needs hierarchy. The now infamous work confirmed that travellers' motivational needs can be incorporated into Maslow's five needs levels (see Figure 16); namely physiological, safety or security, relationships, self-esteem or development, and fulfilment (Pearce, 1988; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983; Pearce & Moscardo, 1985). Not only did they establish that motivations can be incorporated into Maslow's needs levels, but also that travel motives form a hierarchy, that a laddering effect is at play, and that tourists have a travel "career". Although the term career is mostly associated with a work life, the term in tourism involves the idea that a person progresses through an ordinal series of stages and as experience is gained, higher level travel motivations become more important. It was determined that travel experience leads to travel motives higher on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, hence the conceptualisation of the TCL.

3.2. Travel Career Pattern (TCP)

An appraisal of the TCL (Ryan, 1998; Todd, 1999) suggested that the claims in the paper were over-exaggerated and that there was no evidence to suggest that there is in actual fact a travel needs ladder which travellers ascend as they become more experienced. Authors appealed for a reconsideration of the TCL, mainly due to the concept of a linear nature of the ladder (Ryan, 1998). Pearce (2005) then undertook further research to clarify these issues and conceptualised the Travel Career Pattern (TCP) which showed that travel motivations are more multi-level (Pearce, 2005). The main difference between the TCL and the TCP was that the TCP identified core motives that were applicable to all travellers, regardless of travel experience. In total, three layers of motives were identified; namely core motives, middle layer motives and outer layer motives.

Core motives included novelty, escape/relaxation and relationships which formed the backbone of travel motivation and the travel career pattern. Middle layer motives were more diverse and included so called internal and external orientated motives. Internal motives included self-development, self-actualisation, security, host-site involvement and nature. Interestingly though, and contradicting the original TCL theory, higher levels of motivation

such as self-development were emphasised more by the lower travel experience group. External motives, such as reflecting self-development through host-site involvement, which implies experiencing different cultures and meeting the locals and nature, were considered more important by those with higher levels of travel experience. Outer layer motives were generally less popular and include motives such as social status, romance, nostalgia, stimulation, autonomy and isolation (Pearce, 2005). This new evidence suggests a modification of the TCL and a more nuanced approach to travel motivation in the form of a TCP (Pearce, 2019).

Since the conceptualisation of the TCL and TCP, many studies have been undertaken that use the TCL or TCP to categorise motives or to determine if motivations between various groups or for various tourism segments form a hierarchy or pattern. Some of the more recent studies are Sibi (2020); Song and Bae (2018); Oktadiana, Pearce, Pusiran and Agarwal (2017); McKercher and Koh (2017); Neto, Dimmock, Lohmann & Scott (2020); Yoo *et al.* (2018); Rahman, Zailani and Musa (2017); and Aldao and Mihalic (2020).

The next section will discuss the methodology employed to determine whether (a) travel experience impacts the set choice size (number of destinations chosen); (b) travel experience has a bearing on combinations of destinations chosen; and (c) destination choice preferences form a hierarchy or pattern. The rationale followed by the study of Pearce and Lee (2005) on push factors will be followed.

4. THE SURVEY, DEPENDENT VARIABLES (DESTINATIONS) AND THE HIGH AND LOW SOCIO-ECONOMIC TRAVEL CLUSTERS

4.1. Survey

This study made use of empirical data collected as part of the South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS), which is an annual nationally representative survey and offers the opportunity to investigate destination choice preferences⁹. The survey includes a representative sample of 3 500 individuals aged 16 and older in households, which are

⁹ For details of the survey refer to <http://www.hsrc.ac.za/department/sasas>

geographically spread across the country's nine provinces. From a sample design perspective, the SASAS employs the same sampling methodology as Statistics South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2015). Sampling consists of a randomly chosen sample of 500 Population Census enumeration areas (EAs) as primary sampling units, stratified by province, geographical subtype and majority population group. All interviews were conducted face-to-face in all South African official languages. The eventual realised sample for the 2017 SASAS used in this study was $n=3\ 098$ and the weighted sample was $n=39\ 797\ 122$. This study is specifically valuable due to its empirical nature, since most studies on destination choice are typically theoretical in their approaches and often lack empirical verification (Decrop, 2006; Smallman & Moore, 2010).

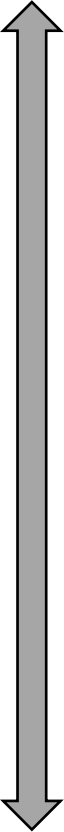
4.2. The destinations (independent variables)

In the 2017 round of the SASAS survey, South Africans were asked: Which of the following tourist activities are you very interested in doing? Going to the beach; Being in nature; Attending religious events; Shopping; Visiting friends and relatives (VFR); Visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building; Visiting a rural area; Visiting Robben Island; Adventure activities; Visiting an African cultural village; and Sports events. This was a multiple response question and respondents could therefore indicate interest in more than one activity. An option of "none" also allowed for those people who were not interested in any activity. At this point it is therefore also important to reiterate that this study involved preferences, by asking about interest and not actual sites visited. This was a deliberate decision to get the views of people who have possibly never travelled.

As is evident from the choice options mentioned above, a broad definition of tourism products was used. Tourism products were defined as activities, attractions and interests that could be consumed by tourists in a destination (McKercher, 2016; Ngwira & Kankhuni, 2018). This product definition was used for a variety of reasons: Firstly, it was comprehensive enough to allow the inclusion of constructed, natural and cultural features. Secondly, it was allowed for non-location specific experiences or activities pursued by tourists, such as shopping. Thirdly, this definition included products that are not commercial, since many activities undertaken by tourists are free of charge. Fourthly, the definition eliminated spatial consideration as a defining variable.

Three important criteria were followed in selecting the specific choice options. Firstly, the activities selected needed to represent the four need family product taxonomies as specified by McKercher (2016); namely pleasure, personal quest, human endeavour and nature. In addition, destinations and products needed to represent the product family, product class, product line, product type and product subtype. Another important consideration was that destinations or activities selected had to both cater for emergent and experienced travellers to discriminate between these groups.

Table 9: Destination product preferences included and classified as per McKercher's (2016) taxonomy

	Type of activity (Taxon type in brackets)	Taxon levels (McKercher, 2016) (General to specific)					
		Need family	Product family	Product class	Product line	Product type	Product subtype
These activities are ranked from higher order taxon activities (General) to lower order taxon needs (the more specific)							
	Being in nature (Nature)	X					
	Going to the beach (Pleasure, recreation)		X				
	Attending religious events (Personal quest, religious, spiritual retreats)			X			
	Shopping (Pleasure, leisure, shopping)			X			
	Visiting friends and relatives (Pleasure, personal events, family and friends)			X			
	Visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building (Human endeavour, museums and interpretive centres, celebrating human endeavour, purpose-built)				X		
	Sports events (Pleasure, sport, passive, watching events)				X		
	Adventure activities, (Nature, adventure, aerial/aquatic/terrestrial)				X		
	Visiting a rural area (Human endeavour, people and intangible heritage, the same, contemporary culture)					X	
	Visiting an African cultural village (Human endeavour, people and intangible heritage, the other, contemporary culture)					X	
	Visiting Robben Island (Human endeavour, museums and interpretive centres, celebrating human endeavour, heritage museums, extant)						X

Source: Author's construct (2022).

Eleven destination choices were eventually selected that met the criteria. More destination choices would have been ideal but the survey could only accommodate 11 questions. These destinations/activities represented the four need families, as well as the different tiers on the taxonomy of McKercher (2016). A description of the specific family or product type that the destination/activity represents is mentioned in Table 9 (in brackets). In sum, the *pleasure need family* of products were represented by the following activities; going to the beach, shopping, VFR and sports events. Going to the beach was categorised as a product family tier, whilst shopping and VFR were classified under a product class tier, and sports events under a product line tier. Under the *nature need family*, two activities were listed, namely being in nature and adventure activities. Being in nature represents the highest tier, namely the need family tier and adventure activities represent the product line tier. Under the *need family personal quest*, attending religious events was listed which represents the product class tier. Under the *need family human endeavour*, four activities were listed; namely visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building (product line); visiting a rural area as well as visiting an African cultural village (both product type tiers); and visiting Robben Island (product subtype tier).

To practically illustrate the taxonomy and the products, visiting Robben Island (a UNESCO Cultural World Heritage Site) can be used as an example to illustrate the taxa. Since Robben Island is very specific, it would span over various taxon levels. At the top or general level, it would be classified under the need family, *human endeavour*, followed by the product family, *museums and interpretive centers*; the product line, *museums celebrating human endeavours*; the product type, *heritage museums*; and lastly, the item type, *extant*. Robben Island can be seen as an attraction in accordance with the more specific narrow lower order taxa, whilst being in nature would represent a very general or higher order taxa.

4.3. The clusters

To determine if any form of laddering or pattern forming is applicable with regards to destination choice on the taxonomy, a method to determine progression needs to be determined. The way to determine this, and the method employed by Pearce and Caltabiano

(1983) and Pearce and Lee (2005), is to determine if travel experience has a bearing on destination choice and if an evolution of preference happens as a result. As a first step, a TwoStep cluster analysis was undertaken to explore the data and to determine if the data can be segmented. Cluster analysis is a well-established technique in tourism segmentation studies (Dolnicar, 2019) and as an exploratory multivariate statistical procedure, it creates an automated classification by analysing numerical indices of proximity among elements to distinguish relative discrete homogenous groups of clusters (Tkaczynski, 2017). The TwoStep cluster method treats all individual items with equal importance and involves two steps: a) pre-clustering that measures distances between all pairs, and b) performing a hierarchical clustering algorithm (Tkaczynski, 2017). The variables used in this study in the cluster analysis were similar to those used by Pearce and Lee (2005); namely domestic travel experience (the number of domestic trips undertaken in the past year), business travel experience (the number of business trips undertaken in the last year) and age. These variables were treated as continuous variables. Two additional variables education and subjective wealth had to be included to ensure that the low travel cluster also account for emergent (potential) travellers. If these variables were excluded, the CHAID analysis revealed that the low travel experience group had no interest in any of these destinations.

Table 10: Cluster distribution

	Predictor importance	Clusters		Significance tests
Size of clusters		1 (1 792)	2 (1 238)	
Cluster names		Low socio-economic travel experience group	High socio-economic travel experience group	
Education	1.00	Some secondary, excluding matric (60%)	Matric/Grade 12 or equivalent (68%)	$\chi^2=2390.8^{***}$ $\phi_c = .890$
Subjective wealth	0.50	Poor or very poor (44%)	Comfortable/ Wealthy (58%)	$\chi^2=713.9^{***}$ $\phi_c = .485$
Number of holiday trips (last 12 months)	0.12	Mean (0.41)	Mean (1.08)	$F=217.270^{***}$
Number of business trips (last 12 months)	0.09	Mean (0.05)	Mean (0.48)	$F=481.366^{***}$
Age	0.07	Mean 45	Mean 39	$F=122.220^*$

***p < .001. **p < .01. *p < .05.

Cluster 1 (“Low socio-economic travel experience group”) was the biggest cluster (n=1792). The majority of this cluster had some form of secondary school education but had not

completed Grade 12 and therefore do not have a National Senior Certificate¹⁰. This cluster also perceived themselves to be either poor or very poor. These individuals undertook on average 0.4 holiday trips per year and almost no business trips (0.04). The mean age of this cluster was 45 years.

Cluster two (“High socio-economic travel experience group”) was a smaller cluster (n=1238). These individuals had a higher level of education with the majority at least having a Grade 12 or National Senior Certificate education. The education level of this group was thus higher than Cluster one. This cluster had a higher economic status, with the majority regarding themselves as comfortable or wealthy. Cluster two undertook on average at least one holiday trip per year (1.08) and an average of 0.5 business trips per annum. This cluster had an average mean age of 39, thus somewhat younger than Cluster one.

In order to confirm the formation of the two clusters with heterogeneous characteristics, a discriminant analysis was undertaken (Porto-Figueira, Freitas, Cruz, Figueira & Câmara, 2015). Given the relatively small number of predictors (Pearce & Lee, 2005), the direct method discriminant analysis, where all the variables were included simultaneously, was used. The pooled within groups’ correlation matrix indicated low correlations between the predictors and multicollinearity was unlikely to be a problem. Because there are only two groups, only one discriminant function was estimated, and the eigenvalue associated with this function was 2.05 and accounted for 100% of the variance explained. The canonical correlation was 0.82. The square of this correlation $(0.82)^2 = 0.67$, indicates that 67% of variance in the dependent variable is explained or accounted for in this model. In the analysis the ideal is to have a clear separation of the groups and the small value of Wilk’s Lambda (0.33) indicated exceptional separation of the groups with the chi-square test of Wilk’s Lambda (43448434.44), indicating an overall separation of the groups as highly significant at the level of 0.00.

¹⁰ A National Senior Certificate (popularly called matric) is a certificate that signals the individual has successfully completed the required years of schooling.

An examination of the standardised discriminant function coefficients for the two groups was instructive. Given the low intercorrelations between the predictors, it was possible to use the magnitudes of the standardised coefficients to show the relative importance of the predictors. Subjective wealth was the most important, followed by qualification, holiday trips, age (negative) and business trips. The same observation is obtained from examination of the structure correlations. The group centroids, giving the value of the discriminant function evaluated at the group means, show that group one (low socio-economic travel experience) has a negative value, whereas group two (high socio-economic travel experience) has a positive value. The signs of the coefficients associated with all the predictors except age were positive, which suggest that higher income, higher qualification individuals, taking holidays and business trips, all resulted in higher travel experience. Age had a negative sign, implying that age was negatively associated with travel experience. Given these results, it would be reasonable to assume significant discrimination which would allow to proceed with the interpretation of results for these groups (Malhotr & Birks, 2006).

5. SET CHOICE SIZES AND TRAVEL EXPERIENCE

The first aim of the study was to determine whether travel experience impacts the set choice size, in other words the number of destinations that would be deemed to be of interest. To investigate this, interest in destinations was analysed by travel experience, considering both the number and combinations of destination choices. As is evident from Table 11, statistical differences exist in the preference for set choice sizes between low and high socio-economic travel experience groups, based on the chi square test of independence for contingency tables.

With respect to interest in destinations, the survey showed that in total 18% of respondents were not interested in any destinations, with a quarter only interested in a single destination. A majority share (57%) was interested in a combination of destinations. Considering differences between the low and high socio-economic travel experience group, the category “not interested in any destinations” reveals that the proportion interested in none of the destinations was significantly higher among the low socio-economic travel experience group than among the high socio-economic travel experience group. Among the low socio-economic travel experience group, almost a fifth (19%) was not interested in any of these

destinations whilst just over a tenth (13%) among the high socio-economic travel experience group was not interested. Similarly, a statistically significant higher proportion of the low socio-economic travel experience group tended to indicate interest in a single destination. Among the low socio-economic travel experience group, the proportion choosing a single destination was 29%, statistically higher than among the high socio-economic travel experience group (21%). Going to the beach and VFR dominated as a single choice among both groups. The difference between the low and high socio-economic travel cluster groupings and multiple destinations was also statistically significant. The high socio-economic travel experience cluster was more inclined to indicate multiple destinations, in other words they have a larger choice set than the low socio-economic travel experience group. To this effect, among the high socio-economic travel experience group, 66% prefer multiple destinations as compared to only 52% in the low socio-economic travel experience cluster.

Table 11: Number of destination choices selected, by travel experience (column percent)

Destination	Low socio-economic travel experience group (%)	High socio-economic travel experience group (%)	Total (%)
None - not interested in any destination	19***	13***	18***
Single destination chosen	29***	21***	25***
Going to the beach only	10	9	10
Visiting friends or relatives (VFR) only	10	5	8
Shopping only	3	3	3
Religious events only	2	1	2
Museum/ art gallery /historical building only	0.7	0.1	1
Nature only	0.9	1	1
Sports events only	0.2	0.9	1
Visiting a rural area only	2	0.4	1
Heritage sights, such as Robben Island only	0.4	0.4	0.4
Visiting a cultural village only	0.6	0.4	0.4
Adventure only	0.6	0	0.4
Multiple destinations chosen	52***	66***	57***

***p < .001. **p < .01. *p < .05.

The finding corroborates the findings of Karl *et al.* (2015) that high travel experience groups tend to have larger set sizes, especially at the earlier stages of the destination choice process and suggests that travel experience positively impacts interest in destinations. As

could be expected given the possible number of combinations, many combinations of multiple destinations were found, but the most popular combinations included going to the beach in combination with VFR and/or shopping. This was true for both the low and high travel experience cluster.

6. CHAID ANALYSIS OF LOW AND HIGH SOCIO-ECONOMIC TRAVEL EXPERIENCE CLUSTER GROUPS AND DESTINATION CHOICE

Considering the importance of multiple destination choices revealed in the previous section, an investigation into combinations of destinations given travel experience is important in order to determine patterns and to determine how these destination products relate to each other given the cluster groups. A Chi-square Automatic Interaction Detection (CHAID) analysis was undertaken to achieve this. The CHAID technique, created by Kass in 1975 (Díaz-Pérez *et al.*, 2020), is a technique that creates all possible cross-tabulations for each categorical predictor until the best outcome is achieved and no further splitting can be performed. The CHAID builds a predictive tree which helps determine how variables best merge and split to explain the outcome in the given dependent variable. CHAID analysis splits the dependent variable into two or more categories that are called the initial, or parent nodes, and then the nodes are split using statistical algorithms into child nodes. Segment configuration is carried out which becomes exhausted once no significant relationship between the dependent and independent variables exists. The first node institutes the most significant variable.

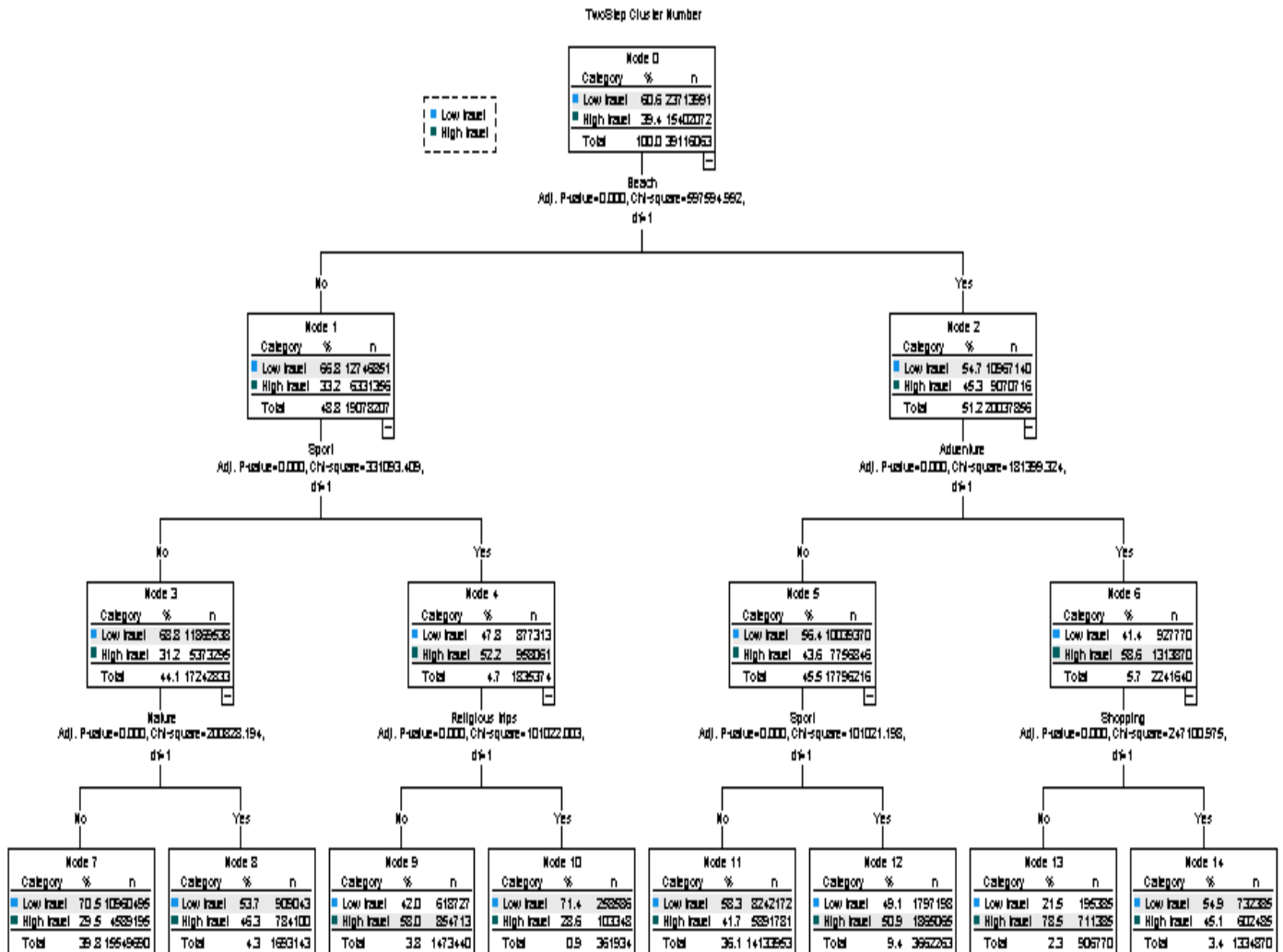
The development of the classification tree starts with identifying the dependent variable which is considered to be the root. In this analysis, the binary travel experience cluster variable (high experience, low experience) was included as the dependent variable and interest in the various destination choices as independent variables (Díaz-Pérez *et al.*, 2020). The Decision Tree programme of SPSS was used to produce a decision tree model on the basis of variations of likelihood-ratio chi-square values (Kim, Lee & Klenosky, 2003). All variables in this model were binary measures.

The results of the CHAID analysis for high travel experience revealed that respondents could be divided into six nodes (segments) (Figure 17). The first three segments accounted for



about 30% of the data but identified 50% of those who are likely to be part of the high travel group. Six variables, namely interest in beach, interest in sport, interest in adventure, interest in nature, interest in religious trips and shopping were the descriptors splitting the nodes. The first node institutes the most significant variable and as is evident from the CHAID analysis the first split variable was interest in beach visits ($\chi^2= 597594.992$, $df=1$, $p=0.000$), representing respondents who have no interest in visiting the beach (67%) (node one) and those who are interested (55%) (node two). Proportionally, the low travel experience group tended to have greater inclination not to be interested (67% versus 33%) in beach activities. From node one, a further split (corresponding to nodes three and four) is notable, attributed to the variable interest in sport ($\chi^2= 331093.409$, $df=1$, $p=0.000$). Node three, those interested in sport, which constituted a higher proportion of the low travel experience group, was further split by interest in nature ($\chi^2= 200828.194$, $df=1$, $p=0.000$). The majority respondents in node seven (71%) and node eight constituted low travel experience respondents. This was particularly pronounced in node seven.

Figure 17: Distinguishable segments based on likelihood of return by CHAID



On the other hand, those interested in the beach (node two), triggered a second split based on interest in adventure ($\chi^2= 181399.324$, $df=1$, $p=0.000$). Those not interested in adventure activities constituted mostly low travel experience individuals (56%), whilst those interested in adventure activities constituted mostly high travel experience individuals. Node five was further split by interest in sport ($\chi^2= 101021.198$, $df=1$, $p=0.000$) into node 11 and node 12. On the other CHAID branch, those interested in beach activities and in adventure (node six) were split by interest in shopping ($\chi^2= 247100.975$, $df=1$, $p=0.000$) into node 13 and 14.

The gain chart (Table 12) is helpful in better understanding the nodes pertaining to the low travel experience group. As can be seen, eight segments were identified. Segment one (gain

index score 117.8%) and segment two (gain index score 116.3%) have gain scores above 100 and had the highest likelihood of contributing to interest among low interest travellers. Segment one (node ten) characterised those not interested in beach activities, but with an interest in sport as well as religious activities. Religious and sports activities therefore seem to be popular choices among the low travel experience group. Segment two (node seven) consisted of people not interested in beach activities, sport or nature, confirming earlier findings that a relatively large contingent of the low travel experience group is not interested in any destination. Segment three or node 11 constituted people who were solely interested in beach activities and specifically not inclined towards adventure activities or sport.

Table 12: Gains table – target category low travel experience

Segment	Gains for Nodes						
	Node	Node		Gain		Response	Index
		N	%	N	%		
1	10	361934	0.9%	258586	1.1%	71.4%	117.8%
2	7	15549690	39.8%	10960495	46.2%	70.5%	116.3%
3	11	14133953	36.1%	8242172	34.8%	58.3%	96.2%
4	14	1334870	3.4%	732385	3.1%	54.9%	90.5%
5	8	1693143	4.3%	909043	3.8%	53.7%	88.6%
6	12	3662263	9.4%	1797198	7.6%	49.1%	80.9%
7	9	1473440	3.8%	618727	2.6%	42.0%	69.3%
8	13	906770	2.3%	195385	0.8%	21.5%	35.5%

Growing Method: CHAID. Dependent Variable: TwoStep Cluster Number.

The gain chart (Table 13) was again helpful to better understand the nodes for the high travel experience group. As can be seen in the table, eight segments were identified and the gain index of segment one to six were above 100 and they will therefore be considered. Segment one or node 13, showed that those with a high travel experience are characterised by an interest in beach and adventure activities but not shopping. Segment two or node nine was characterised by no interest in the beach, but an interest in sport and an interest in religious activities. Segment three (node 12) illustrated a segment consisting of those interested in the beach, not in adventure but in sport. Segment four or node eight was characterised by those people who had no keen interest in sport, but an interest in nature. Segment five (node 14) revealed a group interested in beach activities, adventure, as well as shopping. Segment six or node 11 revealed a group interested in the beach but not in adventure activities, but with an interest in sport.



Table 13: Gains table – target category high experience travellers

Segment	Gains for Nodes						Response	Index
	Node	Node		Gain				
		N	%	N	%			
1	13	906770	2.3%	711385	4.6%	78.5%	199.2%	
2	9	1473440	3.8%	854713	5.5%	58.0%	147.3%	
3	12	3662263	9.4%	1865065	12.1%	50.9%	129.3%	
4	8	1693143	4.3%	784100	5.1%	46.3%	117.6%	
5	14	1334870	3.4%	602485	3.9%	45.1%	114.6%	
6	11	14133953	36.1%	5891781	38.3%	41.7%	105.9%	
7	7	15549690	39.8%	4589195	29.8%	29.5%	75.0%	
8	10	361934	0.9%	103348	0.7%	28.6%	72.5%	

Growing Method: CHAID. Dependent Variable: TwoStep Cluster Number.

7. A HIERARCHY OR A PATTERN?

Having determined the set choice size and combinations of destinations, the paper returns to the question whether destination choices form a hierarchy or pattern. To do this, destination choices were analysed on aggregate, regardless of whether they were mentioned as a single destination, or as part of a multiple response set. Table 14 presents an interest in destinations by low and high travel experience groups.

Table 14: Destination choices selected, by travel experience (percent)

Preference and taxa	Low travel experience (n=1792)	High travel experience (n=1238)	Sig	Total % interest
Going to the beach (Product family)	46 (22)*	59 (22)	***	51
Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) (Need family)	37 (17)	38 (14)	ns.	37
Shopping (Product class)	29 (13)	37 (14)	***	32
Being in nature (Need family)	16 (7)	26 (10)	***	20
Sports events (Product line)	13 (6)	22 (8)	***	17
Attending religious events (Product class)	16 (7)	16 (6)	ns.	16
Visiting Robben Island (Product subtype)	14 (6)	16 (6)	ns.	15
Visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building (Product line)	12 (5)	16 (6)	**	14
Visiting a rural area (Product type)	14 (6)	9 (3)	***	12
Visiting an African cultural village (Product type)	9 (4)	8 (3)	ns.	9
Adventure activities (canoeing, 4X4) (Product line)	6 (3)	11 (4)	***	8
None	15(4)	8 (5)	***	12

The brackets represent the proportional distribution within the groups.

***p < .001. **p < .01. *p < .05. ns. = not significant.

From the results it is evident that regardless of travel experience, destinations/ activities that generated most interest were “going to the beach” (51%), “VFR” (37%) and “shopping” (32%). All of these activities can be considered as high taxon activities as per the taxonomy of McKercher (2016) and fall in either the need family, product family or product class family. This seems to lend credence to the general notion of a taxonomy that the higher-level tier activities are more general and therefore attract more attention. These destinations/activities are therefore core for both high and low travel experience groups and align with the notion of a hierarchy of preference with certain destinations being more popular (McKercher, 2016; McKercher, 2017; Tangeland, 2011). The rest of the destinations were less popular with a fifth or less of South Africans interested in these destinations. These destinations can therefore be considered as outer core.

Except for VFR, attending religious events, visiting rural areas, visiting a cultural village and visiting Robben Island; the high travel experience group exhibited greater interest in all destination choices. Contrary, the low experience travel group exhibited significantly higher interest in visiting rural areas. They were also significantly more likely than the high travel experience group to not be interested in any destination at all. The high and low travel experience groups were not significantly different in their interest in VFR, religious events or visiting Robben Island, implying similar levels of interest in these choices, regardless of travel experience.

8. DISCUSSION

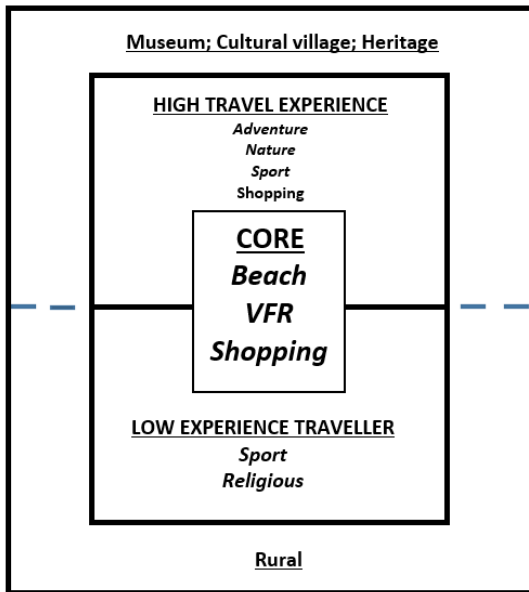
To show the existence of a travel career ladder, Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) adopted Maslow’s needs hierarchy to show that higher order motives were associated with travel experience, whilst lower order needs were more prominent among people with low travel experience. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs was therefore used as the conceptual framework. In the current study, the taxonomy of McKercher (2016) was used as the framework to attempt to understand if a TCL existed for destination preferences. If a TCL for destination preferences existed, interest in lower taxon destinations (more specific destinations) would incrementally increase for the high travel experience group and decrease for the low travel experience group. Contrary, interest in high taxon destinations (more general destinations)

would incrementally decrease for the high travel experience group and increase for the low travel experience group. However, when destination choices were compared within and between the low and high travel experience groups, no career ladder emerged in terms of high travel experience groups being more inclined to be interested in more specific or lower taxon activities and *vice versa*. It can therefore be deduced that a TCL for destination choices did not emerge.

The TCL of Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) was amended by Pearce and Lee (2005) to form the TCP. In undertaking this, they grouped travellers into high and low travel experience groups and tested for travel motives. This paper showed that certain motives were core, regardless of travel experience. Core motives appealed to both the low and high travel experience groups, and no statistically significant differences were found for these core motives between the high and low travel experience group. They subsequently conceptualised the TCP and further identified less popular motives, which distinguished between low and high travel experience groups and coined these the middle layer motives. The least popular motives were subsumed in the outer layer. Similarly, in the current paper certain destination choices, namely interest in the beach, VFR and shopping were found to be most popular among both the low and high travel experience groups. Although significant differences existed between the low and high travel experience groups in relation to these activities (except for the VFR), this was a result of the high travel experience group having higher levels of interest in these activities and not as a result of the sequence of preferences. From this finding it is deduced that these activities also form a core, similar to what was found in the TCP. A next set of destinations were identified as the middle layer from the CHAID analysis. These destinations, namely interest in nature, attending religious events and sports events were grouped, given their popularity and the fact that interest in religious events and sports events formed a strong subgroup among the low travel experience group. The third group of activities, those that were least popular, formed the outer layer. Destinations in the outer layer included visiting heritage sights (i.e., Robben Island); visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building; visiting a rural area; visiting an African cultural village; and adventure activities. Given these findings, it is theorised that a TCP rather than a TCL exists for travel destinations. Conceptually, it therefore seems possible to group

destination choices in a TCP similar to travel motives. A visual presentation of the TCP of destination choices is illustrated in Figure 18.

Figure 18: Destination choice travel career pattern



Source: Author's construct (2022).

Destinations identified as core were found to be more generic, thus higher taxon products, while middle and specific outer layer destinations were more specific or lower taxonomy products. This ties with the notion of a taxonomy that the higher-level tiers are more general and therefore generate more interest. These core destinations/activities, which form the backbone of interest in destination products, could therefore be regarded as central to a tourism growth strategy.

The low travel experience group generally had significantly lower levels of interest in most destinations, the only destination exception being visiting rural areas. Furthermore, from the CHAID analysis a prominent subgroup among the low travel experience group emerged, which constituted a group interested in sport and religious activities, but not the beach. This combination of activities was therefore more popular among the low travel experience group, compared to high travel experience travellers. As per the theory of Plog (1974), low travel experience groups would be enticed by activities considered as familiar and attainable, or by a habitual form of tourism consciousness (Musavengane & Leonard, 2019). Sport and

religious activities as well as rural destinations can be considered as more attainable, familiar and habitual (Adinolfi *et al.*, 2021). The potential therefore exists to grow the culture of travel by encouraging these types of activities among those not at all interested in any destination. Generating interests in these types of destinations and later introducing other types of destinations can potentially result in a travel growth node among the less experienced travellers. Contrary, the high travel experience group tended to be interested in a variety of combinations that included combinations of beach, adventure, sport, shopping, and nature. These destinations suggest that the high travel experience group tends to be more venturesome (Plog, 1974) and enticed by combinations of destinations and activities.

Interest in the beach was identified as the most popular destination choice, both as a single destination choice and in combination with other destinations. Interest in the beach was also the prime segmenting variable in the CHAID analysis and can be considered as a critical variable in furthering a culture of travel, specifically among the low travel experience group.

9. CONCLUSION

The intention of this research was to further the academic debate on destination choice and provide empirical evidence that can be used by policymakers and the tourism fraternity. During the invoked phase of travel decision, alternative destinations are weighed up against each other and decisions which influence the ranking of choices in an action set are made (Karl *et al.*, 2015). Exploring the balance between low and high travel experience and understanding destination choice from a taxonomic position, further the understanding of the process involved in selecting destinations. Information on positioning of destination choices considering travel experience has the potential to shape and guide tourism growth models and attract new and emergent tourists.

An association was found between travel frequency and destination choice. Travel experience therefore has a bearing on destination choices, as well as the combinations of destinations chosen. Low travel experience groups were generally interested in fewer

destinations and a higher proportion was interested in only a single destination. Contrary, the higher experienced travel group was more interested in combinations of destinations, confirming the assertion that travel experience impacts the set choice size (number of destinations chosen) and that travel experience has a bearing on combinations of destinations chosen. This study confirmed that travel experience tends to increase the set choice size (number of destinations chosen) significantly. Travel experience therefore intensifies interest in travel, corroborating findings from Karl (2020), who found the intention to travel among travellers is at least six times higher than for non-travellers.

This paper sets out to determine if destination choice forms a hierarchy or pattern. This study used the taxonomy of McKercher (2016) as a basis of a framework, classifying products from the broadest need family through to more specific classifications to individual items (attractions and events). It attempted to determine if high travel experience groups would be more interested in specific low taxon attractions or events - much like with the travel ladder, or if certain core products exist for both the low and high experience travel groups. The attempt to determine if destinations form a hierarchy or pattern was successful and it was found that travel experience does not necessarily lead to a greater need for specific (or low taxon) attractions, thus creating a ladder effect. Findings rather suggest that both high and low travel experience groups tend to seek more generic attractions, such as going to the beach, VFR and shopping activities. These destinations (grouped at the general or higher taxon levels) can therefore be considered as the basis of a hierarchy similar to the TCL's lower order needs, or the "backbone" or "skeleton" of all travel motivation of the TCP. Similar to the TCP, it was found that despite these activities that form the core or backbone, low and high travel experience groups differ in their preference of activities as was illustrated by the CHAID analysis.

A valuable conceptual contribution of this study is the fact that it considered single as well as combinations of destination preferences. The TCP, as conceptualised by Pearce and Lee (2005), did not consider combinations of needs, whilst this study showed that combinations of destinations make out a larger share than single destinations only. Considering these combinations by making use of the CHAID analysis was a valuable contribution to this study and an issue that should be considered for the TCP of needs (Pearce and Lee, 2005).

Given the exploratory nature of this study, there are various limitations associated with the study. The big limitation to mention is that the study was based on a restricted set of destination choices. Future research should include more destination choices and ideally cover all tiers within all the need families to understand choice sets and movement on the taxonomy better. A further limitation of this study, that should be explored in further research, is the potential impact of socio-demographic variables on the destination choices in relation to the taxonomy. In this study, the focus was on travel experience and not on other socio-demographics. Future studies should fill this gap and explore the impact of socio-demographics such as gender, race, culture, or age on destination choice given a taxonomy.

An important further step on researching the tourism taxonomy would also be to study and explore the link between a position on a taxonomy and motivations as per the TCP (Ngwira & Kankhuni, 2018; Pearce, 2011; Pearce, 2019; Pearce & Lee, 2005). Only one study (McKercher & Tolkach, 2020) has thus far been undertaken to determine the dynamic links between motives and attractions on a taxonomy and the juxtaposition of the two in influencing destination decision-making. Their study illustrated that the balance of core, middle and outer layer motives influences travel decisions. If core motives dominated, the destination choices tended to be more general (i.e. higher taxon products), while when middle and outer layer motives became more important, the travel destinations were more specific – thus lower on the taxonomy (McKercher & Tolkach, 2020). Although the intention of this paper is not to interrogate the interrelationship between destination choices and the TCP, it is evident that there is an alignment between motives and destinations and the different layers which might be further interrogated by using a TCP of destination choice. It will also further the initially proposed links between motivations and products as done by McKercher (2016).

Despite these limitations, it is hoped that this study will contribute to some extent to guide practitioners and policymakers to adopt more targeted growth tourism strategies that cater for both the experienced and inexperienced travellers in terms of product choice sets.



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CHAPTER 4: ARTICLE 3

LINKING TRAVELLER PUSH AND PULL FACTORS CONSIDERING INCOME THRESHOLDS

Chapter 4 presents the third article of this study and investigates the relationship between intrinsic travel motivations (push factors) and extrinsic destination or activity preferences (pull factors) considering income thresholds. Twelve destinations (pull factors) were included in the study and the travel motives as identified by the TCP (Pearce & Lee, 2005) comprised the push factors. Select socio-demographic variables; namely age, gender, education, race, employment status and travel experience were also included in the analysis. A threshold regression was undertaken for each destination to determine the impact of motives and socio-demographics, given a specific income threshold. For all destinations included in the study, the threshold regression analysis materialised, implying that travel motives differ, given certain income thresholds. This study used data from the 2019 South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS).

This article will be submitted to the Journal of Travel Research (JTR). JTR focuses exclusively on travel and tourism, and provides up-to-date, high quality, international and multidisciplinary research on behavioral trends and management theory. The article presented in this chapter remains in its original form. Headings, page margins, font and font size presented here are not according to editorial guidelines but were kept consistent throughout the thesis.



LINKING TRAVELLER PUSH AND PULL FACTORS CONSIDERING INCOME THRESHOLDS

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ABSTRACT

The relationship between intrinsic travel motivations (push factors) and extrinsic destination or activity preferences (pull factors) is well-established. Although many studies have investigated the relationship between push factors, pull factors and income, these studies tend to be unidimensional. This quantitative study uses data from the 2019 South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS) and furthers the literature on push motives for certain destinations by determining the impact of income bands using a threshold regression. This study is valuable since it seeks to identify more homogenous groups among the population of tourists. Identifying these homogenous groups will allow marketing programmes to respond better to unique travel needs, thus enticing more travel. Twelve destinations (pull factors) were included in the study and framed within the taxonomy of McKercher (2016). The travel motives of the TCP (Pearce & Lee, 2005) and select socio-demographic variables; namely age, gender, education, race, employment status and travel experience were the independent variables. A threshold regression was undertaken for each destination to determine the impact of motives and socio-demographics, given an income threshold. For all destinations included in the study, the threshold regression analysis materialised, implying that travel motives differ, given certain income thresholds. Overall, the motive to view the scenery and be close to nature was the motive that was most significant in positively impacting interest in destinations. The motive of having fun was found to be especially a significant predictor of interest among lower income groups. The motive of visiting friends and relatives (relationship

building) was a significant predictor of interest among higher income groups. Travel experience and race were the socio-demographic variables that produced significant differences multiple times among the thresholds in terms of discriminating between levels of interest.

Keywords: Push factors; pull factors; threshold regression; Travel Career Pattern

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the conceptual frameworks in tourism research offering a holistic approach to travel behaviour is the push and pull framework, which was created by Tolman (Wangari, 2017). By the 1970s, the push and pull framework had become common tourism vocabulary in terms of attempting to describe travel motivation but at the time, literature on the topic tended to deal with these factors as separate entities. Dann (1977), Crompton (1979) and Plog (1974) were the first to link the push and pull factors and conceptualise the dual nature of travel motivation; namely that people are pushed to participate from internal imbalances and pulled by the offerings of a specific destination. Crompton's 1979 study was specific in establishing that general, non-destination-specific push motives are often the major driving forces in a person's selection of not only when, but also where to travel. This essentially concretised the link between push and pull factors and triggered a voluminous number of publications attempting to not only understand reasons and motives why people travel, but also why people travel to certain destinations (Pearce, 2021). As literature developed, push factors became known as personal intrinsic motivation factors (Abosag, Yen & Barnes, 2016; Pereira & Gosling, 2019) such as the desire for escape, rest, prestige, adventure and socialisation (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Pull factors, on the other hand, were considered as extrinsic or external motivators, linked to a destination or activity (Khuong & Ha, 2014; Pereira & Gosling, 2019) and include tangible resources such as beaches, cultural attractions and travellers' expectations such as novelty or benefit expectations, based on marketing and advertising (Katsikari, Hatzithomas, Fotiadis & Folinas, 2020).

Given the interdependence of push and pull factors (Klenosky, 2002), many studies have investigated this relationship through a variety of quantitative methodologies, popularly canonical correlation analysis (Katsikari *et al.*, 2020). This article is therefore not unique in its attempt to study push and pull factors and the linkage between the two. However, it is unique in that it attempts to determine how certain push motives change for a specific destination (pull factor) considering income change points. The intention and value of such an analysis to the marketing fraternity are clear. Essentially, successful marketing is based on identifying and appropriately targeting homogenous groups from more heterogeneous populations. This study attempts to do this and employed an approach that uses a variety and combination of variables which fills a gap in literature and can assist enterprises to design marketing strategies and packages suitable to discrete groups of tourists, including emergent travellers (McKercher *et al.*, 2021a).

Income has been cited as one of the most important barriers to travel, especially in developing countries (de Almeida & Kastenholz, 2019; Godbey *et al.*, 2010; Rogerson, 2015a; Rogerson, 2015b; Rogerson, 2020; Scott & Lee, 2018; Stodolska *et al.*, 2019). Studies by Dzikiti and Leonard (2016), Butler and Richardson (2015) and Ezeuduji and Dlomo (2020b) confirm the importance of financial constraint and identifies it as the main constraint to travel in developing countries such as South Africa and Kenya. Stodolska *et al.* (2019) showed that a lack of resources, specifically among marginalised ethnic and racial groups, leads to lower access to, and interest in leisure activities. Although travel motivation, destination choices and income are inevitably linked and an important component of travel decision-making (Küçükergin, Çalışkan, Dedeoglu & Birinci, 2021), studies in tourism mostly tend to examine these factors on a unidimensional basis. Importantly, most research also do not explore nuances between shifts in motives per destination, given certain structural changes, such as income. Understanding how these components influence each other and impact travel intention is however critical if the aim is to grow tourism (Xie & Ritchie, 2019).

In order to grow tourism, tourism fraternities should be more inclusive by bringing emergent travellers into main stream tourism; specifically focusing on low and middle-income groups (Karrow, 2014; Rogerson, 2020). Tourism should be researched from a broader perspective (Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2018) and should also include those excluded from participation due to constraints, including financial constraints. This study attempts to be inclusive by determining travel motives per income threshold, which allows for a better understanding of travel motives in the lowest income category. The study included a variety of destinations, also popular and accessible to more indigent populations. It employed a series of threshold regressions for each dependent variable (destination choice), including interest in the beach; museums; art galleries/historical buildings; nature reserves; heritage sites; religious gatherings; cultural villages; adventure activities; shopping; sport; rural areas; visiting friends and relatives (VFR); and travelling abroad. These destination choices (pull factors) were chosen for a variety of reasons. Firstly, they covered the inclusion of man-made, natural and cultural features. Secondly, they eliminated spatial consideration and lastly, these destinations were sufficiently general for all people to understand and covered both popular and less popular destinations. They also represented the four needs family product taxonomies as specified by McKercher (2016); namely pleasure, personal quest, human endeavour and nature. The travel motives as per the Travel Career Pattern (TCP) (Pearce & Lee, 2005) which included core, middle and outer layer motives were used as independent variables.

2. TRAVEL MOTIVES (PUSH FACTORS) AND DESTINATIONS (PULL FACTORS)

As mentioned previously, many studies have been undertaken that focus on motives (push factors) or destinations (pull factors), but fewer studies have been undertaken to attempt to simultaneously research both push and pull factors and how they are linked. Even fewer studies have focused on both push and pull factors, where the pull factors were a specific destination or type of destination, i.e. the beach or nature reserves rather than a generic pull factor such as the weather or a different culture. The majority of the existing studies tend to further ignore socio-demographic variables



in the interplay between the push and pull factors and only use socio-demographic variables to describe the samples used, or to give a profile of the demographics of the factors. In Table 15 the most seminal publications on push, pull or pull and pull factors are mentioned, as well as the socio-demographics included in the studies and the relationship between push and pull factors.

When scrutinising the material on push and pull factors, it became evident that most of the existing studies that attempted to study push and pull factors, used motives that are closely aligned with the motives identified in the travel career pattern. The travel career pattern (TCP) of Pearce and Lee (2005) is derived from the work on the travel career ladder (TCL) (Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983), which categorised travel motives according to Maslow (Pearce, 2021). The TCP is essentially a framework that layers motives into core, middle and outer layers. The core motives are the most important and most common, regardless of travel experience. The middle layer motives are moderately important and change from inner directed to outer directed travel motives as people become more experienced travellers. The outer core consists of fairly common travel motives, which can be considered as less important. Since this study employed the TCP framework of motives as independent variables, and most of the literature maps onto this framework, the push motives in the table were disaggregated into this framework.



Table 15: Studies examining push and pull factors

Researcher(s)	Push factors identified and sorted by core, middle and outer layer	Pull factors identified	Relationship between push and pull factors	Context	Sample and statistical method	Other variables**
Dann (1977)	Core: Escape (Anomie) Outer: Recognition (ego enhancement)	Nostalgia; relationships; relaxation; status	Escape=relaxation; relationships; nostalgia Recognition=status	422 interviews conducted on winter tourists visiting Barbados Pull factors were generic	Sample size:422 Descriptive statistics – correlations	
Crompton (1979)	Core: Escape; relationships; relaxation; social interaction Middle: Self-exploration Outer: Regression; status	Education; novelty	Descriptive analysis of push and pull factors Not linked	Pull factors were generic Undertaken in Massachusetts	Sample size:39 Descriptive statistics	
Beard and Ragheb (1983)	Core: Escape; relationships Middle: Knowledge; mastery	None	Developed a leisure motivation scale, based on push factors, consisting of intellectual component; social; mastery; and stimulus avoidance	Study was undertaken among residents from Florida	Sample size: 1 205 Factor analysis; reliability tests and correlations	
Yuan and McDonald (1990)	Core: Escape; novelty; relationships; relaxation Outer: Status	Budget; cosmopolitan environment; culture; ease of travel; facilities; nature	Determined which push and pull factors were associated with each country	Study was undertaken in Japan, UK, West Germany and France who travelled abroad Pull factors were generic	Sample size: 1 500 per country PCA; ANOVA	
Fodness (1994)	Core: Escape; relationships; relaxation Middle: Knowledge; self-esteem. Outer: Status	None		Study was undertaken in Florida among auto travellers stopping at welcome centres in Florida	Sample size: 402 Multi-dimensional scaling; factor analysis; ANOVA	
Shoemaker (1994)	None	Casinos; child-friendly; escape; novelty; popularity of destination; recommended destination; recreation; relationships; relaxation; safety; weather		Random sample, US households visiting West coast Pull factors were generic	Sample size: 942	



Researcher(s)	Push factors identified and sorted by core, middle and outer layer	Pull factors identified	Relationship between push and pull factors	Context	Sample and statistical method	Other variables**
Uysal and Jurowski (1994)	Core: Escape; relationships. Middle: Self-development (host-site) Other: Sports	Cultural experience; entertainment; nature; rural/inexpensive	High correlation: Escape=rural/inexpensive; nature Culture=cultural experience; nature Sport=entertainment; nature Relationships=entertainment; nature	Random sample, Canadian survey (CTAMS) Pull factors were generic	Sample size: 942 Factor analysis; correlation; regression	
Turnbull and Uysal (1995)	Core: Escape; relationships. Middle: Culture; self-actualisation; self-development (personal) Outer: Recognition. Other: Sports.	Beach; budget; city enclave; culture; casino; outdoor resources; relaxation; rural; weather; friendly locals	Push factors: Cultural experience; escape; relationships; sports; status. Pull: Heritage/culture; city enclave; comfort-relaxation; beach; outdoor; rural and inexpensive	Random sample from Tourism Canada and US Travel and Tourism Administration (USTTA) selecting West German travellers that took trips abroad	Sample size: 322 Factor analysis; ANOVA	
Oh <i>et al.</i> (1995)	Core: Escape; novelty. Middle: Knowledge; relationships Outer: Status Other: Sports	Budget; culture; nature; safety; sports	Canonical analysis with four segments Safety seekers=safety Cultural seekers=knowledge Novelty seekers=escape Luxury seekers=status	Random sample from Tourism Canada selecting Australians that took trips abroad Pull factors were generic	Sample size: 1 503 Canonical analysis; MANOVA	
Cha <i>et al.</i> (1995)	Core: Relationships; relaxation Middle: Knowledge Outer: Adventure; sport; status	None	Eventually clustered into sport seekers; novelty seekers and family/relaxation seekers	Random sample from Tourism Canada selecting Japanese travellers that took trips abroad	Sample size: 1 199 Factor analysis; cluster analysis; discriminant analysis	
Baloglu and Uysal (1996)	Core: Relaxation Middle: Culture; knowledge; nature Outer: Adventure; safety	Beach/resort seekers; novelty seekers; sport seekers; urban life seekers	Four segments: Sport seekers=beach Novelty seekers=beach; sport Urban life seekers=Beach Beach seekers=urban life	Random sample from Tourism Canada selecting West German respondents who travelled abroad	Sample size: 1 212 Canonical correlation; MANOVA	
Sirakaya and McLellan (1997)	None	Budget; culture; distance; entertainment; escape; historical link; hospitality of		US college students Pull factors were generic	Sample size: 181 PCA; T-test	



Researcher(s)	Push factors identified and sorted by core, middle and outer layer	Pull factors identified	Relationship between push and pull factors	Context	Sample and statistical method	Other variables**
		destinations; novelty; safety; shopping; sport				
You <i>et al.</i> (2000)	Core: Escape; novelty; relationships; relaxation Middle: Host-site involvement; knowledge; stimulation Outer: Status; indulging in luxury	Budget; camping; culture; site-seeing and shopping; nature; relationships; safety; services; sport; weather	A factor analysis was done and the different push and pull factors compared by UK and Japanese travellers	Pleasure Travel Market Survey (Japan) and Pleasure Travel Market Survey (UK) were used	Sample size: UK-1 208 Japan-1 200 Factor analysis; discriminant analysis	
Klenosky (2002)	None	Beaches; fun; culture; excitement; nature; novel location; party; skiing; self-esteem; weather	Spring break destination pull factors identified. Excitement; accomplishment; self-esteem; fun and enjoyment	Undergraduate students taking a spring break at Mid-Western University	Sample size: 53 Hierarchical value map	
Yoon and Uysal (2005)	Core: Escape; excitement; novelty; relationships; relaxation Middle: Achievement; knowledge Outer: Safety	Budget; cleanliness; cuisine; culture; events; facilities; natural; safety; shopping; small town and village; water activities	Three push segments identified Relaxation; relationships; safety and fun Three pull segments identified: Small size destination and weather; cleanliness and shopping; night life and cuisine.	Study undertaken in Northern Cyprus 500 questionnaires distributed to tourists	Factor analysis; structure equation, model to determine push / pull impact on travel, satisfaction and destination loyalty.	
Jang and Wu (2006)	Core: Relationships; relaxation Middle: Knowledge; self-esteem Outer: Ego enhancement	Budget; cleanliness; culture; events; facilities; natural; safety	Regression was undertaken on factors. Factor1: Eco-enhancement: Economic status and health status were significant Factor 2: Self-esteem: Economic status, health status significant predictors Factor3: Knowledge seeking: Gender, economic status, health status significant predictors Factor4: Natural and historical sites: Economic status, health status significant predictors	353 interviews with senior Taiwanese citizens to determine motive important for travel	Factor analysis; OLS regression	Gender; age; economic status; and health status
(Sangpikul, 2008)	Core: Novelty; rest and relax Outer: Ego-enhancement	Cultural and historical attractions; travel arrangements and facilities;	Well-being was linked to these push and pull factors as well as socio-demographics	415 interviews with Japanese travellers	Factor analysis and regression	Well-being, gender, age, education,



Researcher(s)	Push factors identified and sorted by core, middle and outer layer	Pull factors identified	Relationship between push and pull factors	Context	Sample and statistical method	Other variables**
		shopping and leisure; safety and cleanliness				employment status, income, health, economic status
Xu, Morgan and Song (2009)	Core: Escape; novelty; relaxation Middle: Knowledge Outer: Nostalgia; status	Beaches; cities; culture; entertainment; nature; shopping; sports	Mean scored compared on pull and push factors between UK and China	Quota sample with sample in UK university (239 respondents) and Chinese university (284 respondents)	Mann-Whitney test	
Kruger and Saayman (2010)	Core: Escape; novelty; relationships; relaxation Middle: Culture (host-site involvement); knowledge Outer: Status; climate; brand, facilities; photographs; conferences	National Parks	Factors: Knowledge seeking; nature; photography, relaxation; attributes; nostalgia Following factors correlated: Nature= knowledge and photography Attributes with relaxation	Visitors to the national parks were interviewed to determine motives	Sample size: 3 728 Principal component analysis	
(Mohammad & Som, 2010)	Core: Escape; relationships; relaxation; sightseeing Middle: Ego-enhancement; knowledge; spiritual needs Outer: Status	Budget; ease of access; facilities; natural and historic environments; safety	Does not undertake an interaction analysis between push and pull factors	Study was undertaken in Jordan	Sample size: 625 Factor analysis	
Yousefi and Marzuki (2012)	Core: Novelty; relaxation Middle: Knowledge Outer: Ego enhancement	Culture; environment; facilities; safety	Push factors: Novelty and knowledge; ego-enhancement; relaxation Pull factors: Environment and safety; cultural and historical attractions	Study undertaken in Malaysia on beach and at the airport	Sample size: 400 Factor analysis	
Kassean and Gassita (2013)	Core: Escape; novelty; relationships; relaxation Middle: Self-actualisation Outer: Nostalgia; status	Arts and crafts; atmosphere; beaches; budget; climate; cuisine; culture; entertainment; ease of access; ethics; hospitality; nature; no epidemic; political	Pull and push factors were not linked	Sample size: 200 Study undertaken in Mauritius to determine if motives for first time and	Grouping variables; Mann-Whitney test	



Researcher(s)	Push factors identified and sorted by core, middle and outer layer	Pull factors identified	Relationship between push and pull factors	Context	Sample and statistical method	Other variables**
		stability; safety; shopping; sports; technology; transport		multiple time visitors are similar		
Khuong and Ha (2014)	Core: Escape; novelty; relationships Middle: Knowledge; self-actualisation	Activities; cuisine; culture; infrastructure; nature; safety; weather	Push and pull factors not linked	Sample size: 426 Analysis to determine impact on return to Vietnam	Factor analysis	
Nikjoo and Ketabi (2015)	Core: Escape; fun; relationships Outer: Ego enhancement; status	Accessibility; attractions; entertainment; infrastructure; shopping	Istanbul: Pull: Culture, status Push: Shopping Antalya: Pull: Escape, fun, relationship Push: Accessibility, infrastructure	Sample size: 401 Compared motives to Antalya and Istanbul	A factor analysis constructed the push and pull dimensions	
Song and Bae (2018)	Core: Escape; relationships; relaxation; novelty Middle: Nature; self-development; self-actualisation Outer: Autonomy; isolation; nostalgia; recognition; stimulation; romance	Relationship-building; media	Groups tourists according to TCP into core, longing, middle and veteran groups Determines travel information sources and travel companionship by groupings	Latent travel experience and patterns of students from Seoul, Korea	Sample size: 585 Latent class analysis; ANOVA	
Katsikari <i>et al.</i> (2020)	Core: Escape; novelty Middle: Knowledge Outer: Sports; status	Activities; culture; nature; safety	Factor culture/history: Positively linked with gender, knowledge Factor sport: Negative association with age; Positively associated with knowledge, novelty, sports Factor nature: Positively associated with knowledge, sport Factor safety/luxury: Positively associated with fun	Study undertaken in Greece	Sample size: 221 Factor analysis and regression	
Ezeuduji and Dlomo (2020a)	Core: Escape; relationships; relaxation Middle: Culture	Activities; culture; nature; recreation	No linking of push and pull factors	Mtubatuba, South Africa	Sample size: 400 Reliability testing of push and pull factors	Ethnicity; rural; age; gender; income; education



Researcher(s)	Push factors identified and sorted by core, middle and outer layer	Pull factors identified	Relationship between push and pull factors	Context	Sample and statistical method	Other variables**
McKercher <i>et al.</i> (2021a)	Core: Escape; relationships; relaxation; novelty Middle: Nature; self-development; self-actualisation Outer: Autonomy; isolation; nostalgia; recognition; stimulation; romance	Bars; beach; culture; food; nature; shopping; spa; sport; temples	The TCP motive was analysed by attraction of Bali, disaggregating it descriptively	Pull factors in Bali	Sample size: 800 Cluster analysis	

** Only the studies that actually used socio-demographic variables in the analysis were mentioned. Many of the studies used socio-demographic variables to explain the sample or factors but these were not included since they did not impact the analysis.



The core or dominant travel motives identified by the TCP are novelty, relaxation/escape (these are considered as one motive in the TCP) and relationships. The core motive of **novelty** includes statements such as having fun and experiencing something different; feeling the special atmosphere of the vacation destination; and visiting places related to personal interests. The dominant motive under novelty is fun and Dann (1977) also identified this as critical using the term “anomie”, implying the need to get away from ultimate boredom. The importance of novelty as a motive is evident in the number of studies that mentioned novelty, as indicated in the table. These many citations confirm that novelty/fun is a central travel motive. Another core motive identified by Pearce and Lee (2005) was the **escape/relaxation** motive, implying the need for resting and relaxing, getting away from everyday physical and psychological stress/pressure, being away from daily routine and not worrying about time. Moscardo *et al.* (1996) found that the push factor escape/relaxation was closely associated with the so called “3S” phenomenon, namely sun, sand and sea. In particular, sunny weather, warm temperatures, quality of the beaches, and water-based activities seem to be major pull factors associated with escape and relaxation (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Kozak, 2002; McKercher *et al.*, 2021a). A third element identified by Pearce and Lee (2005) as core was **building relationships**. People travel to build new and strengthen current relationships. Statements included doing things with my companion(s) or doing something with my family/friend(s). Many other researchers agreed with Pearce and similarly identified relationships as a key motive. Building relationships has been closely linked as a motive for VFR (McKercher *et al.*, 2021a; Prayag & Ryan, 2011). In addition, Wu *et al.* (2019) found that despite changes across life stages (getting older), building relationships remains important as a push factor. This corroborates the TCP which states that relationship building remains a core motive, despite travel experience.

Turning to middle layer motives, a motive considered as important was **self-development**, which was classified into two categories, namely personal development and host-site involvement. The motive **personal development** tends to be emphasised more by people with low travel experience (Wu *et al.*, 2019) and

involves statements such as developing personal interests; gaining a sense of accomplishment; gaining a sense of self-confidence; and developing skills and abilities. The motive of self-development has also been attached to beach visits, shopping and an interest in sport (McKercher *et al.*, 2021a; Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). Baloglu and Uysal (1996) also found a link between the motive of learning new things and novelty, as well as overseas travel. Travel motives reflecting **self-development through host-site involvement**, such as experiencing different cultures and meeting the locals, as well as feeling secure in terms of being among hosts, form part of the middle layer motive associated with highly experienced travellers. These high order motives were also seen as important by other authors (Wangari, 2017; Yousaf, Amin & C Santos, 2018). The motive of **self-actualisation** consists of motives such as gaining a new perspective on life, doing things that are important, as well as feeling inner harmony and peace. Self-actualisation is attached to various destination choices in the literature. It is also associated with an interest in museums, heritage sights and rural areas (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Oh *et al.*, 1995). A study by Nikjoo and Ketabi (2015) showed that this motive was closely related to a need to visit cultural destinations and was also linked to an interest in nature reserves (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Kruger & Saayman, 2010). Moscardo *et al.* (1996) and Klenosky (2002) show that this motive is associated with a preference for beach activities.

The middle layer motive of **nature**, which includes the motives of being close to nature and appreciating the scenery was associated with more experienced travellers. As could be expected, the motive of seeking solitude in nature was associated with wanting to visit nature destinations, as confirmed by various studies (Carvache-Franco, Segarra-Oña & Carrascosa López, 2019; Ma *et al.*, 2018). Nature was also associated with beach activities, shopping and cultural activities (McKercher *et al.*, 2021a).

Autonomy, stimulation, isolation, recognition/self-esteem, nostalgia and romance are outer layer motives that were less frequently mentioned. **Autonomy** includes motives such as being independent; being obligated to no one; and doing things my own way.

It was seen as important by a variety of authors and is especially applicable to young travellers who wish to be more independent and explore more (Sparks & Pan, 2009). The motive of autonomy was also linked to less experienced travellers (Huang & Hsu, 2009). **Stimulation** was expressed as a travel motive by low experience travellers and included exploring the unknown; feeling excitement; having unpredictable experiences; having daring/adventuresome experiences; experiencing thrills; and experiencing the risks involved. This motive was linked to first time travellers and linked to beach activities, shopping and culture (McKercher *et al.*, 2021a). **Isolation** covered statements such as experiencing peace and calm; avoiding interpersonal stress and pressure; and experiencing open spaces. This motive is also deemed as an important motive by Beard & Ragheb (1983), Cha *et al.*, (1995), Kassean & Gassita (2013), Oh *et al.* (1995), and Wangari (2017) and has been associated with beach activities and shopping (McKercher *et al.*, 2021a). **Recognition** included sharing skills and knowledge with others, as well as being recognised by other people. Moscardo *et al.* (1996) found that the push factor of recognition or social status was linked to pull factors such as golf, resorts, restaurants and shopping; while good beaches, resorts, theme parks and big cities were in turn linked to the self-esteem push factor (Pearce & Moscardo, 1985). In addition, the push factor recognition has been connected to guided excursions; tours to the countryside; as well as visits to wilderness and mountainous areas, national parks, museums and historical places. Self-esteem travel is also linked to historical sights, museums and restaurants (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996). The motive of **nostalgia** included thinking about past good times and **romance** included statements pertaining to having romantic relationships.

In order to test these motives in a questionnaire, a statement testing each motive had to be included. Pearce and Lee (2005) had a few statements measuring each motive, but for this study only one statement per motive could be included. The statements that were selected were those that had the highest mean score and were thus most popular at measuring the specific motive. For this study, more colloquial terminology was used to describe the various motives of the TCP. In certain instances, the term might differ from the official term used by the TCP, since it is a more apt description of

the actual motives. To this effect, novelty was replaced by the term “fun”. The escape/relaxation dimension was only called relaxation, since this was a more apt description of the statement included in the questionnaire. The more colloquial use of terminology was also noted in the majority of articles on push and pull factors. Table 16 specifies the terminology used in this article.

Table 16: Terminology used for TCP motives

TCP terminology	Statements used to test each motive in this study	Terminology used in this thesis
Novelty	To have fun	Fun
Escape/relaxation	To rest and relax	Relaxation
Relationships	To do things with my companion, family, friends	Relationships
Nature	To view the scenery and be close to nature	Nature
Self-development (host-site)	To learn new things and discover new cultures	Self-development (host-development)
Self-actualisation	To gaining a new perspective on life	Self-actualisation
Self-development personal	To develop my personal interests	Self-development (personal)
Autonomy	To be independent and do things my own way	Autonomy
Stimulation	To explore the unknown	Stimulation
Isolation	To experience peace and calm	Isolation
Nostalgia	To think about good times I have had in the past	Nostalgia
Romance	To have romantic relationships	Romance
Recognition	To share skill and knowledge with others	Recognition

From the description above, it is clear that studies have been undertaken that link motives and specific destinations. These studies are useful to gain insight into the relationship between push and pull factors. However, Klenosky (2002) argued that such studies have some limitations. Most importantly, although the aforementioned research examined whether and to what degree particular sets of destinations are associated with push motivation, the research does not explore nuances between change in motives, given certain structural changes, such as income. As McKercher *et al.* (2021a) rightly maintains, all motives might play a role in the travel decision process, but the weight of each motive for different destinations and trips varies. This study therefore sheds more light on this topic by undertaking threshold regression that separates data given a certain threshold variable (in this case income) to understand where breakpoints occur for motives related to a destination.

3. DATA

Data used in this study come from the 2019 round of the South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS), a repeat cross-sectional survey series which is conducted annually by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). Each SASAS yields a nationally representative sample of adults aged 16 and older, living in private residences. Statistics South Africa's (StatsSA) 2011 Population Census Small Area Layers (SALs), which are updated annually using mid-year population estimates, are used as primary sampling units (PSUs). Three explicit stratification variables are used in selecting PSUs, namely province, geographic type and majority population group. For each round of SASAS, 500 PSUs are drawn, with probability proportional to size. The sample excludes special institutions (such as hospitals, military camps, old age homes, and school and university hostels), recreational areas, industrial areas and vacant areas. It therefore focuses on visiting points as secondary sampling units (SSUs), which are separate (non-vacant) residential stands, flats, homesteads, and other similar structures. In each of the 500 PSUs, seven dwelling units were randomly selected to complete the tourism questionnaire.

The data were weighted to take account of the fact that not all units covered in the survey had the same probability of selection. The weighting reflected the relative selection probabilities of the individual at the three main stages of selection: visiting point (address), household and individual. In order to ensure representativity of smaller groups, person and household weights were benchmarked using the SAS CALMAR macro, as well as province, population group, gender and five age groups (i.e. 16-24, 25-34, 35-49, 50-59, and 60 years and older). The marginal totals for the benchmark variables were obtained from the 2019 mid-year population estimates as published by StatsSA. The estimated South African population was therefore used as the target population. A total of 2 844 people (81% response rate) were interviewed during this study and when weighted, this total represents 42 573 093 South Africans of 16 years and older.

The questionnaire included questions about interest in going to the various destinations. The questions were phrased: “How interested are you in the following activities”? The activities were listed, and respondents had to indicate on a scale from 1 = “Very interested”; 2 = “Fairly interested”; and 3 = “Not interested”. A list of motives as per the TCP (see Table 16 for motives) was given to the respondents and they were asked the following question: “Are any of the following important reasons why you go on holiday?”. This was a multiple response question and they could indicate more than one motive. The English version of the research instruments was translated into the country’s major official languages and the surveys were administered in the preferred language of the respondent. Pilot testing was conducted to ensure the validity of the research instrument. Interviews were conducted by means of face-to-face interviewing, using tablets.

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1. Threshold regression

One of the most interesting forms of non-regular regression models is the threshold regression model - a technique widely used in economics, econometrics and biomedical fields. The attractiveness of this model stems from the fact that it treats the sample split value (threshold parameter) as unknown. That is, it internally sorts the data, based on some threshold determinant, into groups of observations, each of which obeys the same model.

Threshold regression models are thus a class of regression models, where the predictors or independent variables are associated with the outcome in a threshold-dependent way. By introducing such a threshold parameter (or change point), different kinds of non-linear relationships between the outcome and a predictor can be modelled. The discrete Threshold Regression (TR) model includes a simple form of non-linear regression, featuring piecewise linear specifications and regime switching that occur when an observed variable crosses unknown thresholds or change points (Bai & Perron, 2003; Hansen, 2001; Perron, 2006). These threshold regressions are

popular since they are easy to interpret and provide an interesting way to model non-linear relationships between an outcome and a predictor (Fong *et al.*, 2017). EViews was the software used to undertake this analysis and does not make use of the fixed regressor bootstrap testing proposed by Hansen (1999). It uses the methods proposed by Bai and Perron (1998) to test for the presence of multiple structural changes and to determine the number of thresholds, the R-square, the F-statistic, and the corresponding probability which are all based on a comparison with the fully restricted, no threshold, constant only model.

4.2. Dependent variables (Destination choice)

The dependent variables included in the study were the 12 destination choices. Respondents were asked to indicate how interested they were in each of the twelve destination choices. The answer scale was: 1 = Very interested; 2 = Fairly interested; 3 = Not interested; and 8 = Don't know. In the analysis, the scales were reversed in order for a high score to denote high interest. "Don't know" responses were recoded as missing. The 12 destination choices included are discussed below, classified according to the taxonomy of McKercher (2016).

(a) Choices grouped under the pleasure domain

One of the domains of the taxonomy of McKercher (2016) is the pleasure domain that includes general leisure activities. In this study the following five activities from the pleasure domain were included: Beach, visiting friends and relatives, shopping, sports events and travelling abroad. Beach and coastal tourism is considered to hold the largest market sector of tourism globally (Friedrich and Stahl, 2019). It is similarly a very popular form of vacation in South Africa and was therefore included as a destination. Visiting friends and relatives is one of the most common tourism activities (Rogerson, 2015b) and according to South African Tourism, the most common form of overnight trips in South Africa (52%). In 2017 more than 12,5 million South Africans undertook trips to visit friends and relatives and in 2018 it increased to over 16 million trips (Statistics South Africa, 2019). Another popular activity both internationally and locally, is shopping; a third of South Africans undertake shopping as a form of leisure

travel (Statistics South Africa, 2019). This activity has been identified as a low career activity, thus a lower order need embarked upon by people of lesser travel experience (Wu *et al.*, 2019). Interest and participation in sports events cater for a wide variety of people and in 2018, approximately 2% of travelling in South Africa was for the purpose of sports events (Statistics South Africa, 2019). Sports events as a pull factor also resonate with the general public who might not previously have undertaken any other form of travel. Travelling abroad is typically associated with high-end earners and this type of travel was included to determine interest in this type of high-end travel activity.

(b) Choices grouped under the personal quest domain

In the personal quest domain (McKercher, 2016) religious and sacred trips were included. A prominent motive for travelling in South Africa is for the purpose of religion and religious pilgrimages. The largest Christian church in South Africa is the Zion Christian Church (ZCC), with its headquarters in Morea, in the Limpopo province in the Northern part of South Africa. This is an entirely black African¹¹ denomination with over four million members. Many South Africans undertake religious pilgrimages to Morea to receive blessings over the Easter Weekend and this resembles pilgrimages in other developing countries such as Peru, India, Japan, Thailand, Brazil and many other countries. In 2017, approximately 1,9 million trips were undertaken for the purpose of religion, which decreased to 1,7 million in 2018 (Statistics South Africa, 2019). It was therefore important to include religious travel in the study.

(c) Choices grouped under the human endeavour domain

The human endeavour branch of the taxonomy of (McKercher, 2016) includes a quest for science and historical information, heritage building information, creative literature and the arts, as well as visiting museums. The human endeavour products represented in this study were interest in visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building; visiting heritage sites; visiting a cultural village; and visiting rural areas.

¹¹ Throughout the paper, the author will refer to race groups as black African, coloured, Indian/Asian and white as per the Statistics South Africa terminology and capitalisation rules. The author acknowledges the sensitivities around these terms and that racial classification remains offensive.

Visiting museums and heritage sites have been identified as a higher order need (Pearce & Lee, 2005) and research has shown that South Africans generally do not visit museums or heritage sites (Statistics South Africa, 2019). Museums and heritage sites were included in the study to attempt to understand motives associated with interest in these attractions in order to facilitate growth. Another important part of the human endeavour taxonomy is cultural heritage, which includes rural tourism and cultural tourism. Rural tourism implies visits to rural areas and its functionality is predominantly non-urban spaces, or a country experience in a natural milieu (Haywood, Nortjé, Dafuleya, Nethengwe & Sumbana, 2020). Given the socio-economic importance of developing rural tourism areas and the strong connection South Africans have with rural areas, this form of tourism was included as a dependent variable. In addition, cultural villages were included since they are popular tourism attractions in South Africa, despite the criticism levelled against the manner in which they represent culture and identity, as well as their political economy (Ndlovu, 2018).

(d) Choices grouped under the nature domain

Adventure tourism is classically associated with younger people, as well as more experienced travellers and has been gaining importance over the years (Gross & Sand, 2019). Adventure tourism was included in the study, given its growth potential and attractiveness to the younger generation. Another destination included under nature was nature reserves. South Africa is known for its natural beauty and many nature reserves and for many years, discriminatory policies precluded the majority of black South Africans to access and visit nature reserves. This study included nature reserves to determine if the socio-demographic of race still has a bearing on visiting nature reserves, which has been the case for many years (Kruger & Douglas, 2015). In addition, literature (Pearce & Lee, 2005) also shows that interest in nature is generally regarded as a higher order motive and it would be interesting to determine how motives change, given the income spectrum. The nature domain are therefore represented by interest in visiting a nature reserve and adventure tourism.

4.3. Independent variables

As stated earlier, the independent variables consist of the motives for travelling as identified by the TCP (Pearce & Lee, 2005). These are: having fun; relaxing; building relationships; being in nature; self-development (host-site); self-development (personal); self-actualisation; stimulation; isolation; nostalgia; romance and recognition. To juxtapose socio-demographics against these motives, selected socio-demographics considered important in terms of significant determinants of destination choice were included. These were gender, age, education level, race, labour market status and travel frequency. Tomić, Leković and Tadić (2019) and Wangari (2017) found that age was a discriminating demographic variable, influencing tourism preferences. Age was included as a continuous variable. The other socio-demographic variables were also included, since it is well-known that they are important variables that impact destination choice (Karl, Reintinger & Schmude, 2015; Kasim, Dzakiria, Park, Nor, Mokhtar & Rashid Radha, 2013; Uvinha, Pedrão, Stoppa, Isayama & de Oliveira, 2017).

The threshold variable used was an income variable which was included in the questionnaire. The income variable was a banded income variable and was phrased as: Please give me the letter that best describes your PERSONAL TOTAL MONTHLY INCOME before tax and other deductions. Please include all sources of income; i.e. salaries, pensions, income from investments, etc. The income categories were: No income = 1; R1-R 500 = 2; R501-R750 = 3; R751-R1 000 = 4; R1 001-R1 500 = 5; R1 501-R2 000 = 6; R2 001-R3 000 = 7; R3 001-R5 000 = 8; R5 001-R7 500 = 9; R7 501-R10 000 = 10; R10 001-R15 000 = 11; R15 001-R20 000 = 12; R20 001-R30 000 = 13; R30 001-R50 000 = 14; R50 000+ = 15. For the analysis, the midpoint of the categories was used.

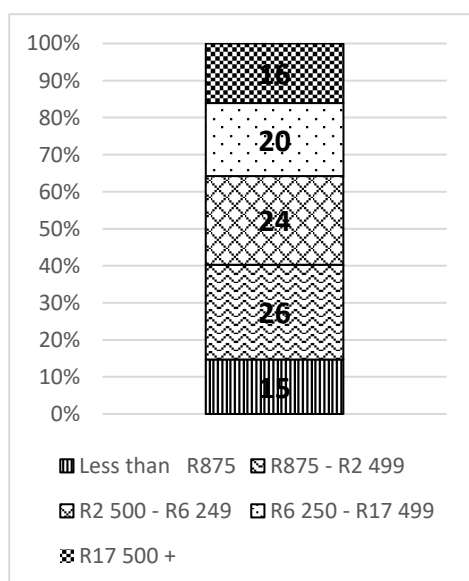
5. RESULTS

The results of the threshold regression for each of the destinations are provided in Table 17- Table 19. The columns within each destination choice indicated the thresholds (change points) as determined by the threshold analysis. The rows are the motives for travel as per the TCP (Pearce & Lee, 2005). The regression coefficients are indicated in the cells, as well as the statistical significance, indicated by p values.

5.1. Interest in going to the beach

In model 1, interest in going to the beach was investigated and five income breakpoints were found, based on the threshold regression, namely less than R875 per month, R875 - R2 499 per month, R2 500 - R6 249 per month, R6 250 - R17 499 per month and those earning R17 500 and more per month. Given that different breakpoints were identified, it is evident that income plays a role in the relationship between the independent variables (motivation and demographical characteristics) and their interest in beach activities.

Figure 19: Interest in beach by income threshold



When investigating the differences in core motivations per threshold grouping, it is noted that for the lowest threshold group, in other words those earning less than R875 per month (15% of the sample), fun and self-development (personal) were two statistically significant motives in increasing interest in going to the beach. For the next income threshold group (R875 - R2 499) (26%), being independent, thus “doing things my own way” (autonomy), having fun and exploring the unknown (stimulation), were statistically

significant. A further quarter of the sample (24%) formed part of the next income threshold group (R2 500 - R6 249) and revealed that the motives of being in nature,



sharing skills and knowledge (recognition), having fun, experiencing peace (isolation) and exploring the unknown (stimulation), were statistically significant. The next income threshold group (R6 250 - R17 499) (20%) showed that nature and experiencing peace (isolation) were statistically significant. Among the highest earning group (more than R17 500) (16%), being in nature and the relationship motives were statistically significant.

In terms of socio-demographic variables, education was a significant predictor of interest. This association was positive, implying that those with a primary, secondary or tertiary education were more interested in the beach than those with no or primary schooling. In terms of variation in race groups, it was found that the coloured ethnic grouping showed a significantly higher interest in going to the beach than other race groups, among those earning less than R875 per month and those earning between R6 250 and R17 499 per month. Among those earning R875 - R2 499 per month, the number of times a person had been on holiday was positively associated with being interested in visiting the beach.



Table 17: Threshold regression showing income bands for going to the beach, VFR, shopping and sport with travel motives as predictors

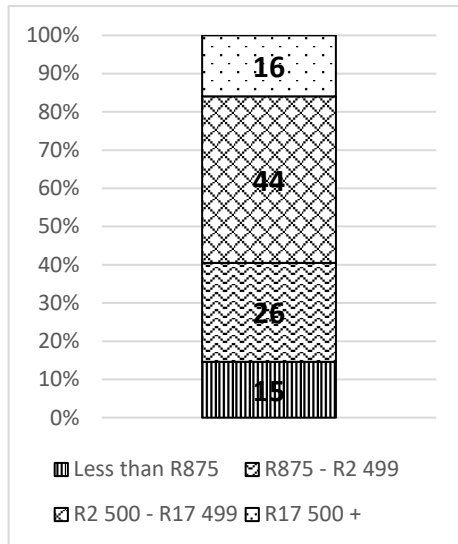
Travel motive	Going to the beach					Visiting friends and relatives (VFR)				Shopping				Sports events	
	Less than R875	R875 - R2 499	R2 500 - R6 249	R6 250 - R17 499	R17 500+	Less than R875	R875 - R2 499	R2 500 - R17 499	R17 500 +	Less than R875	R875 - R1 749	R1 750 - R6 249	R6250 +	Less than R12 499	R12 500 +
C	1,854	2,251	1,539	1,914	1,908	2,308	2,006	2,240	2,098	1,972	2,336	2,102	1,736	2,516	2,714
FUN	0,210*	0,169*	0,149*	0,058	0,134	0,121	0,116	0,119*	0,183*	0,197*	0,268*	0,172**	0,091	0,149***	0,088
RELAXATION	0,110	0,158	-0,044	0,019	0,010	0,090	0,074	-0,037	0,037	-0,085	0,160	-0,090	0,058	0,056	0,005
RELATIONSHIPS	0,071	0,091	-0,074	0,109	0,194*	0,153	0,165*	0,081	0,195*	0,126	0,030	-0,031	0,085	-0,007	0,151
NATURE	0,091	0,115	0,265***	0,229**	0,196*	0,138	0,163*	0,186***	0,007	0,147	-0,148	0,208***	0,044	0,068	0,086
SELF-DEVELOPMENT (HOST-SITE)	0,089	0,034	0,133	-0,004	-0,079	0,147	-0,076	0,007	-0,116	0,222*	-0,148	0,006	0,061	0,035	-0,013
SELF-ACTUALISE	0,145	0,061	-0,090	0,056	-0,067	0,132	-0,131	0,059	-0,050	0,087	-0,160	-0,031	-0,005	0,033	0,154
SELF-DEVELOPMENT (PERSONAL)	0,264*	0,0115	-0,057	-0,032	-0,090	0,089	0,019	0,002	-0,041	0,018	-0,140	0,080	0,048	-0,014	0,149
AUTONOMY	0,049	-0,074***	0,091	0,038	-0,031	0,051	0,110	0,061	0,099	-0,156	0,241	0,069	0,040	0,125**	0,060
STIMULATION	-0,082	0,064*	0,167*	0,153	-0,006	-0,100	0,023	0,055	0,048	-0,010	-0,037	0,032	0,025	0,011	-0,095
ISOLATION	-0,062	-0,046	0,182*	0,193*	0,025	0,163	0,099	0,014	0,088	0,067	0,103	0,122*	0,036	-0,091*	-0,049
NOSTALGIA	-0,148	0,114	0,060	-0,057	-0,091	-0,322**	0,075	-0,051	0,024	-0,153	0,202	0,009	0,043	-0,059	-0,069
ROMANCE	-0,006	-0,137	0,017	-0,023	-0,061	-0,097	-0,309**	-0,054	-0,067	0,036	0,365*	-0,080	-0,097	0,108	0,023
RECOGNITION	-0,079	0,278	0,270**	0,174	0,136	0,112	0,175*	0,109	-0,047	0,021	0,137	0,133	0,080	0,121*	-0,131
SEX	-0,057	-0,116	0,054	-0,050	0,120	-0,012	0,022	-0,057	0,075	0,059	0,232*	0,165**	0,225***	-0,360***	-0,489***
AGE	-0,005	-0,010***	-0,003	-0,004	-0,003	-0,007*	-0,002	-0,001	0,001	-0,006	-0,016***	0,011***	-0,003	-0,007***	-0,005
SECONDARY SCHOOL	0,241*	-0,016	0,151	0,201	0,531*	-0,032	0,008	-0,071	-0,016	0,335**	-0,221	0,116	0,320*	0,156**	0,306
GRADE 12/MATRIC	0,390**	0,183	0,292**	0,191	0,411	0,044	0,043	-0,080	0,165	0,182	-0,120	0,076	0,257	0,205***	0,265
TERTIARY	0,497*	0,554**	0,542**	0,033	0,451	0,299	-0,190	0,073	-0,076	0,262	-1,528*	0,159	0,118	0,219*	0,347
COLOURED	0,253*	0,105	0,137	0,272**	-0,153	0,043	0,144	0,107	0,070	0,035	-0,032	0,128	-0,088	0,027	-0,073
INDIAN/ASIAN	-0,004	0,292*	0,193	0,037	-0,179	-0,032	0,214	0,228***	-0,022	-0,165	0,062	0,264**	-0,017	-0,011	-0,167
WHITE	0,053	-0,137	-0,304	0,271	-0,125	-0,441*	-0,431	0,008	0,012	-0,058	-0,530	0,232	-0,140	0,140	-0,129
PAID WORK IN PAST	-0,071	0,108	0,009	-0,173	-0,210	-0,057	0,073	0,132*	0,105	-0,101	0,276	0,088	-0,121	-0,012	0,227*
NEVER WORKED	-0,029	0,117	-0,074	0,087	0,108	-0,247*	0,018	-0,006	-0,101	-0,208	-0,009	-0,054	-0,044	-0,019	0,145
TRAVEL EXPERIENCE	0,013	0,058**	0,019	0,018	0,006	-0,006	0,0667***	0,010	-0,001	0,000	0,056	0,012	0,018*	0,022**	0,009

Notes: The regression coefficients are noted in the table. Significant differences are denoted as follows: *p<0.001; **p<0.01; ***p<0.05. The reference groups used include the following: For gender, male; for race, black African; for education, no or primary schooling; for employment, the employed.



5.2. Interest in visiting friends and relatives (VFR)

Figure 20: Interest in VFR by income threshold



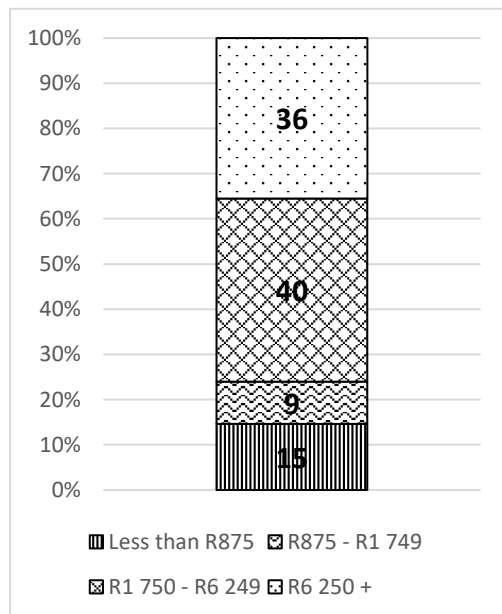
In model 2, we determined interest in visiting friends and relatives and found four income breakpoints based on the threshold regression, namely less than R875 per month (15%), R875 - R2 499 per month (26%), R2 500 - R17 499 per month (44%) and R17 500 and more per month (16%). Given that these breakpoints were identified, it is evident that income plays a role in the relationship between motivation and demographics, as well as an interest in visiting

friends and relatives. When investigating the differences in core motivations per threshold grouping on interest in visiting friends and relatives, it is noted that for the lowest threshold group, in other words those earning less than R875 per month, reminiscing about the past (nostalgia) was negatively associated with visiting friends and relatives. For this income group, the motive of reminiscing about the past therefore decreased the desire for visiting friends and relatives. For the second income threshold regression (R875 - R 2 499), building relationships, nature and sharing skills and knowledge (recognition) were motives that were statistically significantly associated with an interest in visiting friends and relatives. In this income group, the motive of seeking romance was negatively associated with interest in visiting friends and relatives. The third income threshold regression (R2 500 - R17 499) constituted the largest contingent of people (44%) and the motives of being in nature and having fun, appealed to this group and were statistically significant in predicting interest in visiting friends and relatives. For the fourth income threshold regression (R17 500 and more), having fun and building relationships were statistically significant and positively associated with an interest in visiting friends and relatives. In sum, the fun motive, relationship building and nature were dominant in terms of predicting a preference for visiting friends and relatives.

In terms of socio-demographic variables, among the lowest threshold group, namely those earning less than R875 per month, age was negatively associated with interest in visiting friends and relatives. Youngsters were therefore less inclined to be interested in visiting friends and relatives and whites were also less likely to be interested in visiting friends and relatives than black Africans in this income group. In the (R2 500 - R17 500) group, Indians/Asians showed a statistically significantly higher interest in visiting friends and relatives than the black African majority. Among those earning R875 - R2 499 per month, the number of times a person had been on holiday was positively associated with being interested in visiting friends and relatives. As mentioned previously, relationship building as a push factor is closely linked to visiting friends and relatives as a pull factor and visiting friends and relatives are motivated by the need for social interaction and kinship. As a result of migratory patterns instilled during apartheid, many families remain spatially dispersed and VFR continue to be popular especially among the lower income groups.

5.3. Interest in shopping

Figure 21: Interest in shopping by income threshold



In model 3 we looked at interest in shopping and found four income breakpoints (thresholds) based on the threshold regression, namely less than R875 per month (15%), R875 - R1 749 per month (9%), R1 750 - R6 249 per month (40%) and more than R6 250 per month (36%). Given that different breakpoints were identified, it is evident that income plays a role in the relationship between the independent variables (motivation and demographical characteristics) and interest in shopping. When investigating the differences in core motivations per threshold

grouping on interest in shopping activities, it was noted that for the lowest threshold group, in other words those earning less than R875 per month, fun and to learn new things and discover new cultures (self-development: host-site) were two motives that

discriminated between those interested in shopping and those not interested in shopping. Those that considered these two motives as important were therefore statistically significantly more likely to show an interest in shopping.

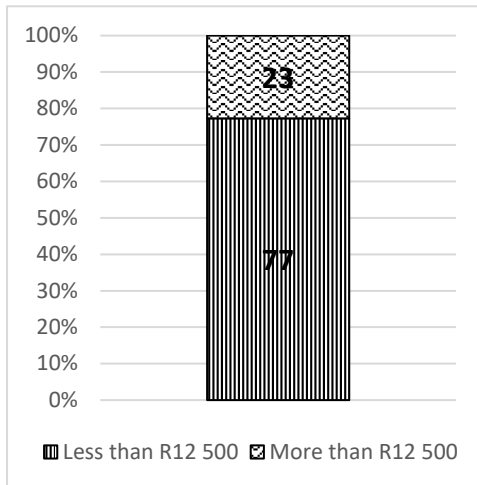
For the second income threshold regression (R875 - R 2499), having fun and romance were predictors of interest in shopping. The third income threshold regression (R1 750 - R6 249) which constitutes two fifths, showed that the motives of nature, having fun and experiencing peace (isolation), were statistically significant in predicting interest in shopping. For the fourth income threshold regression (R6 250 and more), which constitutes just over a third of people (36%), no motive was found that discriminated between those interested and those not interested in shopping. The results revealed that the fun motive was significant among the three lowest income threshold groups in predicting an interest in shopping.

In terms of socio-demographic variables, among the three highest threshold groups, gender played a statistically significant role, with females more likely to be interested in shopping. In the two middle-income threshold regressions, age was negatively associated with shopping, implying that youngsters were statistically significantly more interested in shopping in these categories. Education was positively associated with interest in shopping and travel experience was positively associated with shopping among the highest income threshold group.



5.4. Interest in sports events

Figure 22: Interest in sport by income threshold



In model 4 we looked at interest in sports events and found two income breakpoints (thresholds) based on the threshold regression, namely those earning less than R12 500 per month (77%) and those earning more than R12 500 per month (23%). Given these different identified breakpoints, it is evident that income plays a role in the relationship between the independent variables and interest in sports events.

When investigating the differences in core motivations per threshold grouping on interest in sports events, it was noted that for the lowest threshold group, in other words those earning less than R12 500 per month; fun, being independent (autonomy) and sharing knowledge (recognition) were motives that discriminated between those interested in sports events and those not interested in sports events. The motive to experience peace and calm (isolation) was negatively associated with an interest in sport among this group. Those that considered fun, being independent (autonomy) and sharing skills and knowledge (recognition) as important motives were therefore statistically significantly more likely to show an interest in sport. For the high-income threshold, no motive discriminated between high and low interest in sports events.

In terms of socio-demographic variables, among both threshold regression groups, gender was a statistically significant predictor, with females being significantly less interested in this activity. In the low-income threshold regression; age, education and travel experience were significant. Age was negatively associated with this activity, implying that younger people tended to be statistically significantly more interested than older people in this income category. Furthermore, those with a secondary school education, matric or tertiary education were more likely to be interested in sport than those with no education.



Table 18: Threshold regression showing income bands for interest in going abroad, religious travel, travel to rural areas and to museums with travel motives as predictors

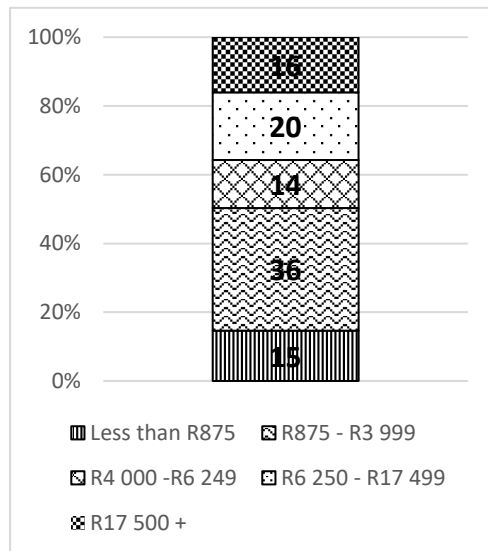
	Travel abroad					Religious travel		Visiting rural areas				Visiting museums, art galleries and historical buildings					
	Less than R875	R875 – R3 999	R4 000 – R6 249	R6 250 – R17 499	R17 500 +	Less than R6 250	R6 250 +	Less than R1 250	R1 250 – R3 999	R4 000 – R17 499	R17 500+	Less than R 875	R875 – R1 749	R1 750 – R3 999	R4 000 < R6 249	R6 250 – R17 499	R17 500 +
C	2,323	2,052	1,449	2,063	1,939	1,481	1,704	2,106	1,756	2,055	2,718	1,828	2,180	1,936	1,488	1,836	2,072
FUN	0,212*	0,223**	0,07	0,239**	0,199*	0,08	0,03	0,09	-0,02	-0,01	0,09	0,17	-0,08	0,13	0,05	0,07	-0,06
RELAXATION	0,01	-0,01	0,15	0,01	-0,02	-0,01	-0,01	0,07	0,01	-0,05	0,03	0,13	-0,10	-0,06	0,10	-0,16	0,01
RELATIONSHIPS	0,267**	-0,154*	0,204*	0,12	0,2678**	0,03	0,198**	0,04	-0,03	0,11	0,207*	0,06	-0,10	0,02	0,04	0,11	0,400**
NATURE	0,08	0,183**	0,16	0,177*	-0,04	0,07	0,09	0,263**	0,171*	0,177**	0,192*	0,332**	0,405**	0,15	0,18	0,205*	0,18
SELF-DEVELOPMENT (HOST-SITE)	0,09	0,00	0,02	0,178*	0,00	0,02	0,04	0,08	0,00	0,158*	0,08	0,00	-0,12	0,07	0,13	0,280***	-0,04
SELF-ACTUALISE	0,06	0,01	-0,214*	0,13	-0,07	-0,05	0,01	-0,01	0,02	-0,03	-0,11	0,00	-0,13	-0,02	-0,07	0,212*	-0,10
SELF-DEVELOPMENT (PERSONAL)	0,00	0,02	0,07	0,06	0,15	0,09	0,00	0,05	-0,04	0,08	-0,16	0,04	-0,17	-0,08	0,15	0,00	-0,08
AUTONOMY	0,11	0,187**	0,12	0,09	-0,05	0,118*	0,08	0,02	0,160*	-0,02	0,07	0,03	0,23	0,180*	0,07	-0,02	-0,02
STIMULATION	0,01	0,130*	0,08	0,16	-0,08	0,04	-0,05	0,00	0,168*	0,04	0,16	0,05	0,24	0,187*	0,03	0,03	0,04
ISOLATION	0,11	-0,10	0,13	-0,04	0,11	0,04	0,05	-0,05	0,07	0,06	-0,14	-0,05	0,09	0,06	0,03	-0,02	0,06
NOSTALGIA	-0,02	0,14	0,00	0,02	0,13	0,03	0,02	-0,19	0,13	-0,06	-0,05	-0,12	0,19	0,01	0,00	-0,06	0,00
ROMANCE	0,10	0,05	-0,16	-0,09	0,22	-0,06	-0,09	-0,15	-0,09	-0,02	-0,01	-0,28	0,30	-0,06	0,03	-0,06	0,15
RECOGNITION	-0,03	0,10	0,15	-0,03	-0,10	0,166**	-0,04	0,17	0,322***	0,14	0,00	0,17	0,01	0,304**	0,324*	0,14	-0,237*
SEX	-0,04	-0,10	0,08	-0,153*	0,16	0,188***	0,135*	-0,03	-0,09	-0,07	-0,178*	-0,08	-0,11	-0,07	0,07	-0,07	0,10
AGE	-0,014***	-0,009***	-0,007*	-0,006*	-0,01	0,00	0,005*	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	-0,01	-0,005**	0,00	0,00	-0,01
SECONDARY SCHOOL	0,10	0,07	0,429***	0,00	0,20	0,07	-0,06	0,11	-0,05	-0,08	-0,31	0,261*	-0,24	0,00	0,05	0,04	0,31
GRADE 12/MATRIC	0,06	0,16	0,465**	0,05	0,18	0,07	-0,01	0,16	0,10	-0,02	-0,33	0,376**	0,13	0,10	0,17	0,06	0,18
TERTIARY	0,480*	0,26	0,676**	-0,04	-0,01	0,17	-0,09	0,02	0,356*	0,05	-0,36	0,27	-0,37	0,35	0,583*	0,10	0,14
COLOURED	0,19	0,10	-0,08	0,08	-0,11	0,02	0,01	-0,290**	-0,2678**	-0,242**	-0,24	-0,03	-0,27	-0,01	-0,09	-0,04	0,01
INDIAN/ASIAN	0,21	0,558***	0,16	0,16	-0,01	0,289***	0,05	-0,685*	-0,450***	-0,596***	-0,912***	-0,756*	0,39	0,11	-0,01	-0,07	-0,413***
WHITE	-0,06	0,29	-0,49	0,02	0,02	-0,29	-0,14	-0,682**	-0,550*	-0,417**	-0,691***	-0,13	0,43	-0,27	-0,12	0,13	-0,262*
PAID WORK IN PAST	-0,23	0,11	0,07	-0,12	-0,01	0,127*	-0,08	-0,18	0,00	-0,06	0,18	-0,01	0,26	-0,03	-0,06	-0,16	0,11
NEVER WORKED	-0,322*	0,11	-0,10	-0,03	-0,13	0,014*	-0,08	-0,290**	-0,12	-0,12	0,09	-0,09	0,22	-0,03	0,02	-0,08	0,05
TRAVEL EXPERIENCE	0,01	0,0450***	0,03	0,034**	0,00	0,02	0,024**	0,00	0,045***	0,028**	0,01	-0,02	0,081*	0,038**	0,043*	0,0350**	0,01

Notes: The regression coefficient is noted in the table. Significant differences are denoted as follows: *p<0.001; **p<0.01; ***p<0.05. The reference groups used for gender is male; for race, black African; for education, no or primary schooling; for employment, the employed.



5.5. Interest in travelling abroad

Figure 23: Interest in visits abroad by income threshold



In model 5 we looked at interest in travelling abroad and found five income breakpoints (thresholds) based on the threshold regression, namely less than R875 per month (15%), R875 - R3 999 per month (36%), R4 000 - R6 249 per month (14%), R6 250 - R17 499 per month (20%) and those earning more than R17 500 (16%). Given that these breakpoints were identified, it is evident that income plays a role in the relationship between the independent variables (motivation and select demographics) and an interest in

travelling abroad. When investigating the differences in core motivations per threshold grouping on interest in travelling abroad, it is noted that for the lowest threshold group, in other words those earning less than R875 per month, relationships and fun as motives discriminated between those interested in travelling abroad and those not interested. Those who consider building relationships and fun as important motives for travelling, were statistically significantly more likely to show an interest in travelling abroad in this income group. For the second income threshold regression group (R875 - R3 999), exploring the unknown (autonomy), having fun, being close to nature, and being independent (stimulation) were statistically significant in predicting an interest in travelling abroad. The motive of relationship building was negatively associated with travelling abroad among this group. This is the largest segment and motives that discriminate in this segment should be carefully considered.

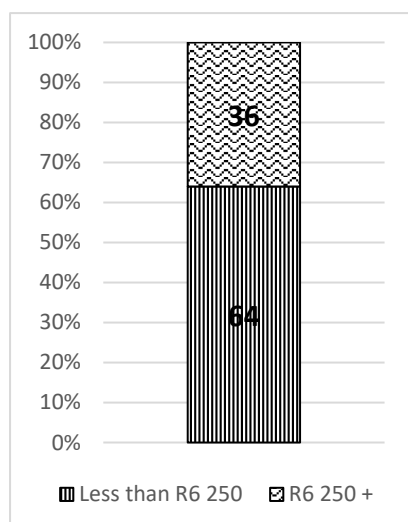
The third income threshold regression (R4 000 - R6 249) shows that the motive of building relationships was statistically significant and positively associated with being interested in travelling abroad, while gaining a new perspective on life (self-actualisation) was negatively associated with being interested in travelling abroad. For the fourth income threshold regression (R6 250 - R17 499) fun, nature and discovering

new cultures (self-development: host-site) were statistically significantly positively associated with interest in travelling abroad. Among the highest earnings group, the motives of building relationships and having fun were statistically significantly associated with the dependent, namely an interest in travelling abroad.

In terms of socio-demographic variables, a significant negative association between age and interest in visiting abroad was noticed for all the regressions, except for the highest income threshold regression. The implication of this finding is that for these income thresholds, younger people are statistically significantly more interested in travelling abroad than older people. In the (R4 000 - R6 249) group, those having a primary, secondary and tertiary education were more likely to be interested in travelling abroad than those who had no education. Among those earning R875 - R3 999 and those earning between R6 250 - R17 499 per month, the number of times a person had been on holiday was positively associated with being interested in travelling abroad.

5.6. Interest in religious gatherings

Figure 24: Interest in religious trips by income threshold



In model 6, an interest in religious gatherings was interrogated and two income breakpoints (thresholds), based on the threshold regression, were found, namely those earning less than R6 250 per month (64%) and those earning R6 250 and more per month (36%). Given that these breakpoints were identified, it is evident that income plays a role in the relationship between these identified motivations, demographics and an interest in religious gatherings. For those earning less than R6 250, the motive of recognition and

autonomy was statistically significant and positively associated with an interest in religious gatherings. In the high-income threshold group (those earning R6 250 and

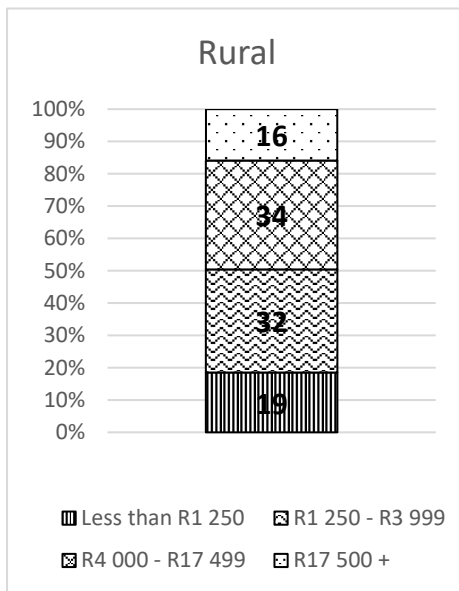


more), the motive of relationship building significantly increased an interest in religious gatherings.

In terms of socio-demographic variables, gender was statistically significant in both the lower and higher income groups, with females statistically significantly more interested in religious gatherings than males. In the high-income group, age was positively associated with interest in religious gatherings, implying that older people were more interested in religious gatherings. The race variable was statistically significant among the low-income group, with Indians/Asians more interested and whites less interested in religious gatherings than the reference group, namely black Africans. Among those earning R6 250 and more, travel experience increased the likelihood of being interested in religious gatherings.

5.7. Interest in visiting rural areas

Figure 25: Interest in rural areas by income threshold



In model 7 we looked at interest in visiting a rural area and found four income breakpoints (thresholds) based on the threshold regression, namely less than R1 250 per month (19%), R1 250 - R3 999 per month (32%), R4 000 - R17 499 per month (34%), and those earning R17 500 plus per month (16%).

Given the identification of these breakpoints, it is evident that income plays a role in the relationship between the independent variables and an interest in visiting rural areas. An interesting finding was

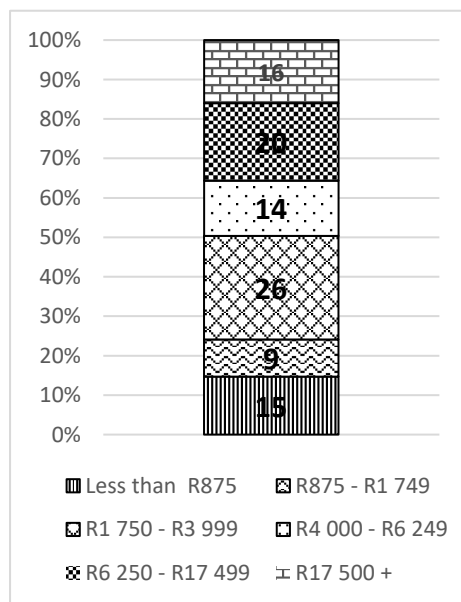
that for all threshold regression groups, the motive of being in nature was statistically significant and positively associated with interest in visiting a rural area. In addition to this motive, among those earning R1 250 - R3 999 per month, other motives that increased an interest in visiting rural areas were sharing skills and knowledge with others (recognition), seeking to be independent (autonomy), and exploring the



unknown (stimulation). In addition to the being close to nature motive, among those earning R4 000 - R17 499 per month, the motive of learning new things and discovering new cultures (self-development: host-site) was also statistically significant in predicting interest in visiting a rural area. In the highest income threshold regression group, namely those earning R17 500 and more per month, visiting friends and relatives (building relationships) were statistically significant, together with the motive of being close to nature. In terms of socio-demographic variables, a trend among the three lowest threshold income groups was that coloured, Indian/Asian and white minority groups had statistically a significantly lower interest in visiting rural areas than the black African majority. In contrast, among those that have an income of R17 500 or more per month, Indians/Asians and whites were statistically significantly more interested in rural areas than the black African majority. In the highest income group, males were significantly less interested in rural visits than females.

5.8. Interest in visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building

Figure 26: Interest in museums by income threshold



In model 8, interest in visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building was interrogated and six income breakpoints (thresholds) based on the threshold regression was established, namely less than R875 per month (15%), R875 - R1 749 per month (9%), R1 750 - R3 999 per month (26%), R4 000 - R6 249 (14%), R6 250 - R17 499 per month (20%) and those earning R17 500 and more per month (16%). Given that these different breakpoints emerged, it is evident that income plays a role in the relationship between the independent

variables (motivation and demographical characteristics) and an interest in visiting museums, art galleries and historical buildings. When investigating the differences in core motivations per threshold grouping on interest in museums, art galleries and historical buildings, it is noted that for the two lowest threshold groups, in other words

those earning less than R1 750 per month, being close to nature was the motive that discriminated between those interested and those not interested in visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building. Outer layer motives, namely being independent (autonomy), exploring the unknown (stimulation) and sharing skills and knowledge with others (recognition) were the motives associated with greater interest in visiting museums, art galleries or historical buildings in the R1 750 – R3 999 income group. In the R4 000 - R6 249 income group, the motive of sharing skills and knowledge (recognition) was statistically significant and heightened interest in visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building.

Those in the R6 250 - R17 499 income group, who considered middle core motives, namely being in nature, discovering new cultures (self-development: host-site) and gaining a new perspective on life (self-actualisation) as important motives, were statistically significantly more likely to show interest in going to a museum, art gallery or historical building. Self-actualisation and self-enhancement have also been identified as motives associated with interest in museums by other authors (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Oh *et al.*, 1995). Among the highest earnings group (R17 500 and more), the motive of relationship building was statistically significantly associated with the dependent, namely visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building.

Among those earning less than R875 per month, a higher education impacted positively on an interest in visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building. Interestingly, among the highest income group, being a member of the Indian/Asian or white race group was negatively associated with an interest in visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building when compared with the African black majority. With the exception of the highest income threshold group, travel experience was positively associated with being interested in going to a museum.



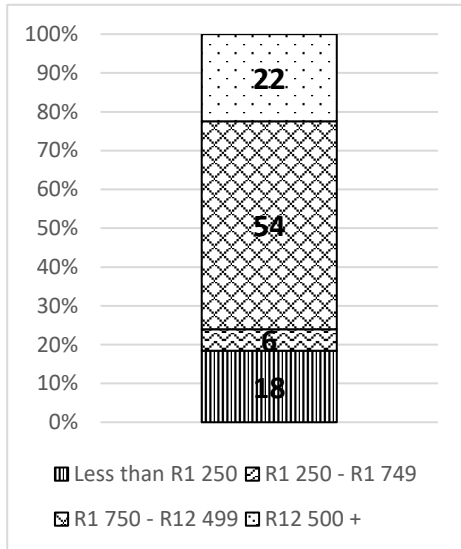
Table 19: Threshold regression showing income bands for interest in heritage sites, cultural villages, adventure travel and nature reserves with travel motives as predictors

	Heritage sites				Cultural villages				Adventure travel				Nature reserves			
	Less than R1 250	R1 250 – R1 749	R1 750 – R12 499	R12 500 +	Less than R875	R875 – R1 749	R1 750 – R8 749	R8 750 +	Less than R875	R875 – R3 999	R4 000 – R12 499	R12 500 +	Less than R875	R875 – R1 749	R1 750 – R12 499	R12 500 +
C	2,042	2,262	1,915	1,789	2,162	2,047	1,956	1,954	2,111	2,002	1,618	2,337	2,223	1,889	1,882	1,812
FUN	0,200*	0,211	0,111*	0,087	0,264**	0,002	0,103	0,109	0,202	0,056	0,058	0,139	0,122	0,113	0,059	0,078
RELAXATION	0,079	-0,021	0,043	-0,029	0,164	-0,118	-0,060	-0,046	0,086	0,068	0,111	0,050	0,142	-0,089	0,030	0,034
RELATIONSHIPS	0,174	0,128	-0,025	0,394***	0,002	-0,055	-0,003	0,167*	0,056	-0,065	0,069	0,230**	0,127	0,031	0,017	0,296***
NATURE	0,121	0,109	0,155**	0,144	-0,062	0,194	0,182***	0,179*	0,252*	-0,021	0,152*	0,079	0,161	0,330*	0,294***	0,180*
SELF-DEVELOPMENT (HOST-SITE)	0,036	-0,089	0,165**	-0,058	-0,030	-0,094	0,174**	0,192**	0,037	0,069	0,263***	0,046	-0,059	-0,067	0,146**	0,052
SELF-ACTUALISE	0,083	0,296	0,000	-0,045	-0,177	0,055	0,035	0,045	-0,087	-0,021	0,031	0,044	0,036	-0,109	0,006	0,096
SELF-DEVELOPMENT (PERSONAL)	-0,026	-0,266	-0,002	-0,025	-0,014	-0,386**	0,089	-0,019	-0,052	-0,092	-0,018	0,056	0,056	-0,149	-0,040	-0,090
AUTONOMY	0,150	0,284	0,158**	0,031	0,169	0,092	0,090	0,046	0,168	0,2467***	0,170*	-0,086	0,233*	0,165	0,142**	0,031
STIMULATION	-0,037	0,263	0,114*	0,140	0,140	0,193	0,042	0,040	-0,026	0,162*	0,126	-0,005	0,014	0,160	0,142**	0,030
ISOLATION	0,036	-0,167	-0,008	-0,010	0,090	-0,013	-0,069	-0,055	-0,035	-0,161*	-0,054	-0,054	0,023	0,173	0,010	0,017
NOSTALGIA	-0,193	0,100	0,019	-0,116	-0,134	0,288	-0,038	-0,030	-0,049	0,057	-0,075	0,058	-0,136	0,157	-0,033	-0,116
ROMANCE	-0,077	-0,077	1-0,134*	-0,013	-0,070	0,274	-0,131	-0,071	-0,047	0,089	-0,003	-0,050	-0,074	0,165	-0,115	-0,077
RECOGNITION	0,167	-0,069	0,222***	0,115	0,033	-0,013	0,241***	-0,004	-0,013	0,104	0,075	-0,011	0,202	0,052	0,277***	0,055
SEX	-0,010	-0,290	0,010	0,064	-0,017	-0,028	0,039	0,048	-0,033	-0,113	-0,065	-0,094	-0,091	-0,050	-0,032	-0,052
AGE	-0,006	-0,007	-0,005**	-0,003	-0,004	-0,008*	-0,004*	0,001	-0,007	-0,007***	-0,003	-0,005	-0,010**	-0,004	-0,005**	0,001
SECONDARY SCHOOL	0,267**	-0,235	0,051	0,107	0,187	0,077	-0,026	-0,212	0,190	-0,048	0,093	-0,062	0,163	-0,199	0,048	0,127
GRADE 12/MATRIC	0,381***	0,029	0,178*	0,300	0,044	0,203	-0,110	-0,063	0,302*	0,002	0,237*	-0,091	0,270*	0,011	0,022	0,214
TERTIARY	0,341	-0,649	0,201	0,266	0,139	0,241	0,171	-0,049	0,109	0,168	0,277	-0,096	0,148	-0,491	0,090	0,291
COLOURED	0,162	-0,231	0,026	0,002	0,099	-0,206	-0,059	-0,148	0,085	0,186*	0,075	0,047	0,086	-0,220	0,066	-0,039
INDIAN/ASIAN	-0,406	-0,155	0,020	-0,098	-0,462	0,607	-0,261***	-0,408***	0,133	-0,010	-0,146	-0,186*	-0,434	0,533	0,115	-0,101
WHITE	-0,045	1,260	-0,064	-0,121	-0,215	1,312	-0,255	-0,394***	-0,206	-0,090	-0,214	0,079	0,101	0,964	0,085	0,056
PAID WORK IN PAST	-0,168	0,540*	0,005	-0,028	-0,224	0,233	0,030	-0,104	-0,426**	0,042	-0,154	-0,010	-0,032	0,432**	0,017	-0,042
NEVER WORKED	-0,339**	0,504**	-0,153**	0,018	-0,378**	0,130	-0,068	-0,031	-0,395**	0,072	-0,119	-0,128	-0,232	0,217	-0,048	0,141
TRAVEL EXPERIENCE	0,002	0,086^	0,025**	0,005	0,010	0,065*	0,030**	0,019*	0,0502**	0,049***	0,012	0,017*	0,025	0,075*	0,040***	0,014

Notes: The regression coefficient is noted in the table. Significant differences are denoted as follows: *p<0.001; **p<0.01; ***p<0.05. The reference groups used for gender is male; for race, black African; for education, no or primary schooling; for employment, the employed.

5.9. Interest in visiting heritage sites

Figure 27: Interest in heritage sites by income threshold



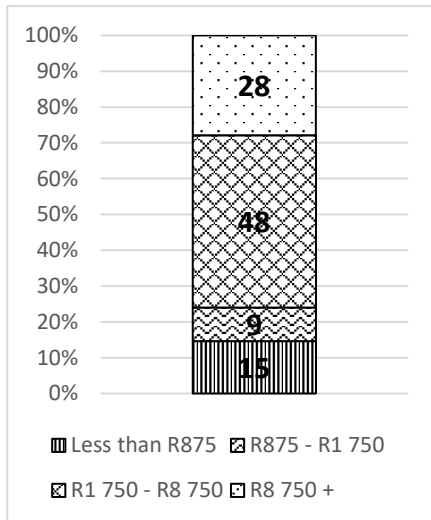
In model 9, interest in heritage was interrogated and four income breakpoints (thresholds), based on the threshold regression, were established, namely less than R1 250 per month (18%), R1 250 - R1 749 per month (6%), R1 750 - R12 499 (54%) and those earning R12 500 and more (22%). Given that these different breakpoints were identified, it is evident that income plays a role in the relationship between the independent variables (motivation and demographical characteristics) and an interest in visiting heritage sites. When investigating the differences in core motivations per threshold grouping on

interest in heritage sites, it is noted that for the lowest threshold groups, in other words those earning less than R1 250 per month, the motive of fun discriminates between those interested and those not interested in heritage sites. In the R1 750 - R12 499 income group, the motives to share skills and knowledge with others (recognition), to be independent (autonomy), to be in nature, to learn new things and discover new cultures (self-development: host-site), to explore the unknown (stimulation), have romantic relationships and to have fun were all statistically significant and positively associated with an interest in heritage sites. Those earning more than R12 500 per month were therefore more inclined to visit heritage sites if the motive of relationship building was important. The motive of having fun, therefore generated statistically significant higher levels of interest in visiting heritage sites among lower income groups. Relationship building was a motive that was statistically significant in predicting interest among the high-income threshold earners.

In terms of socio-demographic variables, among the lowest income threshold, those having a secondary education or a matric were much more likely to be interested in heritage than those who had no or a primary school education. Full-time employees were also more likely to be interested in heritage than those not employed. Among those earning R1 250 - R1 749 and those earning between R1 750 and R12 500 per month, travel experience was positively associated with being interested in travelling abroad.

5.10. Interest in visiting a cultural village

Figure 28: Interest in a cultural village by income threshold



In model 10 we examined interest in visiting a cultural village and found four income breakpoints (thresholds) based on the threshold regression, namely less than R875 per month (15%), R875 - R1 749 per month (9%), R1 750 - R8 749 per month (48%), and those earning more than R8 750 per month (28%). Given these breakpoints, it is evident that income plays a role in the relationship between the independent variable (motivation and demographic characteristics) and an interest in visiting a cultural village.

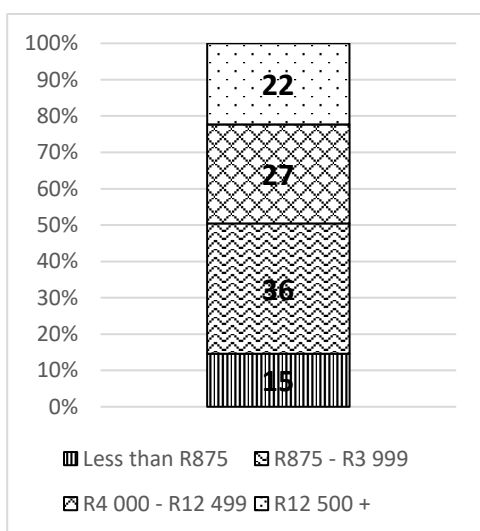
When investigating the differences in core motivations per threshold grouping on interest in visiting a cultural village, it was noted that for the lowest threshold group, in other words those earning less than R875 per month, fun was the only motive discriminating between those interested and those not interested in visiting a cultural village. The motive of fun was also identified by Baloglu and Uysal (1996). Those that consider fun as an important motive were therefore more likely to show an interest in going to a cultural village. For the second income threshold regression (R875 - R1 749), developing personal interests (self-development) was statistically significant in predicting interest in visiting a cultural village.

The third income threshold regression showed that the motives of being in nature, learning new things and discovering new cultures (self-development: host-site) and recognition were statistically significant in predicting interest in visiting a cultural village. In addition, for the highest income threshold regression (those earning more than R8 750), self-development through interactions with host, nature and relationship building were statistically significantly associated with the dependent, namely interest in visiting a cultural village. Interest in visiting a cultural village among the higher income thresholds was thus predicted by middle layer motives, namely nature, learning new things and discovering new cultures (self-development: host-site). Visiting friends and relatives was a statistically significant motivator among the highest income group for interest in cultural villages.

In terms of socio-demographic variables, age was negatively associated with the dependent for the second and third threshold regression, implying that in this group younger people were more likely to be interested in visiting a cultural village. For the highest income threshold regression, the Indian/Asian and white respondents were statistically significantly less inclined than the black Africans to be interested in visiting a cultural village.

5.11. Interest in adventure activities

Figure 29: Interest in adventure activities by income threshold



In model 11 we investigated an interest in adventure activities and found five income breakpoints (thresholds) based on the threshold regression; namely less than R875 per month (15%), R875 - R3 999 per month (36%), R4 000 - R12 499 (27%) per month and those earning more than R12 500 (22%). Given that different breakpoints were identified, it is evident that income plays a role in the relationship between the independent variables and an interest in adventure activities.

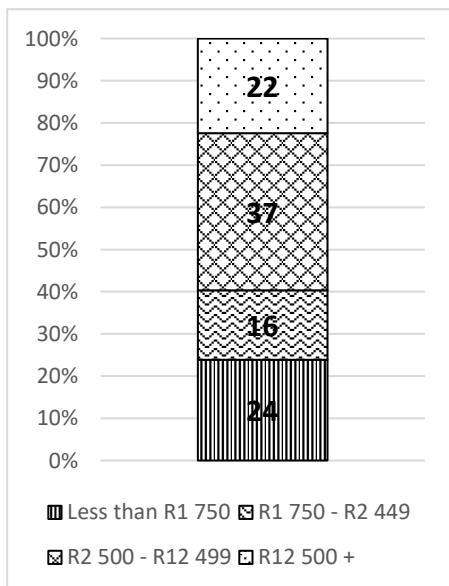
When investigating the differences in core motivations per threshold grouping on interest in adventure activities, it was noted that for the lowest threshold group, in other words those earning less than R875 per month, being in nature discriminated the most between those interested in adventure activities and those not interested in adventure activities. Those that consider nature as an important motive were statistically significantly more likely to show an interest in adventure activities. For the second income threshold regression (R875 - R3 999), exploring the unknown (stimulation) and being independent, thus “doing things my own way” (autonomy), were statistically significant in predicting an interest in adventure activities. To experience peace and calm (isolation) was negatively associated with the dependent, implying that those that felt that experiencing peace and calm was important, were less likely to be interested in adventure activities. The third income threshold regression (R4 000 - R12 499) showed that the motives of learning new things, discovering new cultures (self-development: host-site), being independent (autonomy) and being close to nature were statistically significant in predicting an interest in adventure activities. Among the highest

earnings group (more than R12 500), the motive of visiting friends and relatives was statistically significantly associated with the dependent, namely an interest in adventure activities. No specific pattern among the different income threshold regressions was noted.

In terms of socio-demographic variables among the lowest threshold group, namely those earning less than R875 per month, the biographical variable employment was statistically significant. This association was negative, implying that relative to those employed, the unemployed were less likely to be interested in adventure activities. In terms of variation in race groups, it was found that in the highest income group, Indian/Asian respondents were significantly less interested in this type of activity compared to the reference group, namely black Africans. For the majority of income thresholds, travel experience was positively associated with being interested in adventure activities.

5.12. Interest in visiting a nature reserve

Figure 30: Interest in nature reserves by income threshold



In model 12, interest in visiting a nature reserve was interrogated and four income breakpoints (thresholds), based on the threshold regression, were noted, namely less than R875 per month (15%), R875 - R1 749 per month (9%), R1 750 – R12 499 (53%) and those earning more than R12 500 (22%). Given that different breakpoints were identified, it is evident that income played a role in the relationship between the independent variables (motives and demographical characteristics) and interest in visiting a nature reserve. When investigating the differences in core motivations per threshold grouping on interest in

visiting a nature reserve, it was noted that for the lowest threshold group, in other words those earning less than R875 per month, the motive to be independent and do things my own way (autonomy) was the motive that discriminated between those interested in visiting a nature reserve and those not interested. To view the scenery and be close to nature was the motive associated with greater interest in visiting a nature reserve in the R875 - R1 749 income group.

In the R1 750 - R12 499 income group, the motives of being in nature, learning new things and discovering new cultures (self-development: host-site), being independent (autonomy), exploring the unknown (stimulation) and sharing skills and knowledge with others (recognition) were statistically significantly higher among those interested in visiting a nature reserve. This group represents more than a third of the subject and when attempting to grow this market, these motives should be considered in campaigns. Among the highest earning group (more than R12 500), the motives of being in nature and visiting friends and relatives were statistically significantly associated with the dependent. Similar motives such as escaping in nature and kinship development, self-actualisation and self-enhancement were also confirmed in literature as to be associated with an interest in nature reserves (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Kruger & Saayman, 2010). As could be expected, the motive to view the scenery and be close to nature was positively associated with interest in nature reserves among most income threshold groups. Relationship building and being close to nature were motivators that were central and statistically significant in predicting interest among specifically, the high-income threshold earners.

In terms of socio-demographic variables, age was negatively associated with interest in nature reserves among the low-income group (earning less than R875) and the group earning between R1 750 - R12 500, implying that younger people were less interested in nature reserves. This finding is not unexpected, since an interest in nature reserves tends to increase with age, but it is an area that should be focused on. For the majority of income thresholds, travel experience was positively associated with being interested in visiting a nature reserve.

6. DISCUSSION

This study offers a unique perspective on the issue of push factors, pull factors and the impact of different income thresholds on pull factors. This study combined push factors (motives), pull factors (destinations) and income in a multi-dimensional way, thus determining the interplay between different motives for different destination choices, given statistically separated income bands. For all destinations included in the study, the threshold regression analysis materialised, implying that differential income thresholds discriminated when considering motives and socio-demographics for the various destinations. Based on

the regression results from this study, the impact coefficients of tourism motivation on destination choice varied between different levels of income, indicating the tourism motives' changes along with the different incomes. Hence, we conclude that tourism motivation is not static for different destination choices but differs for different income thresholds.

Destination/activity preferences differed in the number of breakpoints identified. These breakpoints indicate a change in interest in these destination choices, given the various motives. Not only are the number of breakpoints insightful, but the sizes of these breakpoints are important from a marketing perspective. Marketers can focus on certain income bands which pertain the highest proportion of travellers for that specific destination and concentrate marketing messages on the motives pertinent to that group. Another observation evident from the threshold regression was that between four to six breakpoints were identified for all the activities, except for sport and religion. Sports and religious activities are typically associated with novice or low experience travellers and it seems plausible that destinations or activities that are enticing to emergent travellers have not been disaggregated into segmented income bands, as a result of such activities' universal mass appeal to lower income groups (77% in the case of sport and 64% in the case of religion) with similar motives. In the following table, a summation is given of the breakpoints, motivations and socio-demographics that were found to be significant with regards to each destination choice and income threshold.



Table 20: Summation of significant motives and socio-demographics per destination choice

Destination choice	Income thresholds	Motivations	Socio-demographics
Interest in going to the beach	Less than R875	Fun; self-development (personal)	Education; race
	R875 - R2 499	Autonomy; fun; stimulation	Age; education; travel experience; race
	R2 500 - R6 249	Nature; recognition; fun; isolation; stimulation	Education
	R6 250 - R17 499	Nature; isolation;	Race
	R17 500+	Nature; relationships	Education
VFR	Less than R875	Nostalgia	Age; employment status; race
	R875 – R2 499	Romance; nature; recognition; relationships	Travel experience
	R2 500 – R17 499	Nature; fun	Race; employment status
	R17 500 +	Fun; relationships	
Shopping	Less than R875	Fun; self-development (host-site)	Education?
	R875 - R1 749	Fun; romance	Age; gender; education
	R1 750 - R6 249	Nature; fun; isolation	Age; gender; race
	R6250 +		Education; gender; travel experience
Sport	Less than R2 499	Fun; autonomy; isolation; recognition	Age; education; gender; travel experience
	R2 500 +		Gender; employment status
Abroad	Less than R875	Relationships; fun	Age; education; employment status
	R875 – R3 999	Autonomy; fun; nature; relationships; stimulation	Age; race; travel experience
	R4 000 <- R6 249	Self-actualisation; relationships	Age; education
	R6 250 – R17 499	Fun; nature; self-development (host-site)	Age; gender; travel experience
	R17 500 +	Relationships; fun	
Religious	Less than R6 250	Recognition; autonomy	Gender; race; employment status
	R6 250 +	Relationships	Age; gender; travel experience
Rural	Less than R1 250	Nature	Race; employment status
	R1 250 – R3 999	Recognition; autonomy; nature; stimulation	Race; travel experience; education
	R4 000 – R17 499	Nature; self-development (host-site)	Race; travel experience
	R17 500 +	Nature; relationships	Race; gender
Museums	Less than R875	Nature	Education; race
	R875 - R1 749	Nature	Travel experience
	R1 750 - R3 999	Recognition; autonomy; stimulation	Age; travel experience
	R4 000 <- R6 249	Recognition	Education; travel experience
	R6 250 – R17 499	Nature; self-development (host-site); self-actualisation	Travel experience
	R17 500 +	Relationships; recognition	Race
Heritage	Less than R1 250	Fun	Race; employment status
	R1 250 - R1 749		Work; travel experience
	R1 750 – R12 499	Recognition; autonomy; nature; self-development (host-site); stimulation; romance; fun	Age; employment status; travel experience; education
	R12 500 +	Relationships	
Cultural villages	Less than R875	Fun	Employment status
	R875 – R1 749	Self-development (personal)	Age; travel experience
	R1 750 - R8 749	Nature; self-development; recognition	Race; travel experience; age
	R8 750 +	Self-development (host-site); nature; relationships	Race; travel experience
Adventure	Less than R875	Nature	Education; employment status; travel experience
	R875 – R3 999	Autonomy; isolation; stimulation	Age; travel experience; race
	R4 000 – R12 499	Self-development (host-site); autonomy; nature	Education
	R12 500 +	Relationships	Race; travel experience
Nature reserves	Less than R875	Autonomy	Age; education
	R875 - R1 749	Nature	Employment status; travel experience
	R1 750 – R12 499	Nature; recognition; autonomy; self-development (host-site); stimulation	Age; travel experience
	R12 500+	Nature; relationships	

The first destination /activity choice that was analysed was going to the beach. This activity falls under the pleasure domain of McKercher (2016). In line with other literature (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Klenosky, 2002; McKercher *et al.*, 2021a; Oh *et al.*, 1995) findings showed that

the fun motive was important considering beach activities, but the threshold analysis revealed that the fun motive was applicable to the lower threshold income earners and not the high threshold income earners. Despite being a core motive as per the TCL, this study showed that the fun motive for beach activities did not increase interest universally among all income groups. Among the middle-income threshold groups, the outer core motives, namely seeking peace (isolation) and exploring the unknown (stimulation) were significant. Among the higher income threshold groups, relationship building and being in nature were statistically significant. From these results, it therefore seems that a transition from the fun or pleasure motive to motives associated with autonomy, nature and relationship building are possible with an increase in income. The possibility of a transition of motives as income increases can therefore exist for a specific destination – much like the overall progression of motives on a TCL or TCP. The heightened interest in beach activities among the coloured race group was noted and is potentially a function of cultural proximity and habitus formation, given the group's geographical proximity to the seaside, as well as close and historical connection with beach areas (Humphreys, 2021).

A second destination /activity choice under the pleasure domain was travel for the purpose of visiting friends and relatives. Visiting friends and relatives is motivated by the need for social interaction and kinship, and it is therefore not surprising that relationship building as a push factor is closely linked to visiting friends and relatives as a pull factor (McKercher *et al.*, 2021a; Prayag & Ryan, 2011). This study confirmed the importance of strengthening relationships as an important motive for visiting friends and relatives, together with being in nature and having fun. Interestingly, the fun motive, contrary to interest in the beach, was a motive associated with the high-income thresholds. For sport and shopping, another two activities under the pleasure domain, fun was again a central motive. In the case of shopping, fun was a central motive and significant for all of the income thresholds. Fun, being independent (autonomy) and sharing knowledge (recognition) were all motives associated with an increase in interest in sport. These findings corroborate the findings of Oh *et al.* (1995) that the fun motive is associated with sport and should be a focal point when attempting to grow interest in this domain. Turning to the final activity under the pleasure domain, namely travelling abroad, results reveal that the fun motive as well as the building relationships motive were important motivators among most of the income groups. Among

the three lowest income groups, age was negatively associated with interest in travelling abroad, implying that among these groups, younger people were more interested in this type of travel than their older counterparts. These findings show that the motive of fun is closely associated with motives under the pleasure domain of the taxonomy of McKercher (2016). Despite these destination choices being at different levels on the taxonomy, fun as a motive showed universal appeal and can be used as an aggregate theme to market destinations that fall under the pleasure domain.

Turning to religious travel, a destination/activity that was included under the personal quest domain on the taxonomy, two income thresholds were formed. For the lower income threshold group, the motives of seeking independence (autonomy) and sharing knowledge (recognition) were associated with an increase in interest; whilst in the higher income group, the motive of building relationships was significantly associated with religious travel. The motives for undertaking religious travel therefore differed from the motives associated with travel for pleasure and were directed towards motives associated with autonomy, sharing knowledge and relationship building. Unsurprisingly, gender was significant in predicting an interest in religious travel, with females more interested in this kind of travel for both income thresholds.

Four destination choices represented the human endeavour domain on the taxonomy, namely interest in museums, art galleries or historical buildings; visiting heritage sites; visiting cultural villages; and visiting rural areas. Visiting museums and heritage sites has been identified as a higher order need (Pearce & Lee, 2005) and in line with this argument, this study showed that motives of self-actualisation, autonomy and sharing knowledge (recognition) were also motives expressed at various income levels for an increasing interest in museums, heritage sites and rural areas (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015; Oh et al., 1995). The motive of nature was significant in almost all income thresholds pertaining to human endeavour products. The central role that nature plays in motives for these types of destinations in a developing context was also found by Oh *et al.* (1995), Baloglu and Uysal (1996) and Oktadiana *et al.* (2017). In terms of socio-demographic variables, travel experience was found to positively influence interest in these human endeavour activities, especially with regards to museums. Another observation around

visiting rural areas was that the three lowest threshold income groups (coloured, Indian/Asian and white minority groups) had statistically a significantly lower interest in visiting rural areas than the black African majority. In contrast, among those that have an income of R17 500 or more per month, Indians/Asians and whites were statistically significantly more interested in rural areas than the black African majority. This might be explained by a need for an authentic breakaway among the highest income groups and a cultural proximate issue of visiting friends and relatives for the lower income groups.

The nature domain on the taxonomy of McKercher (2016) was represented by two destination choices, namely adventure tourism and an interest in visiting a nature reserve. Adventure tourism is classically associated with younger people and with more experienced travellers, and has been gaining importance over the years (Gross & Sand, 2019). Results from this study confirmed that travel experience increased interest in adventure activities and showed that adventure activities are associated with higher order travel needs, such as autonomy, self-development (host-site) and stimulation. Turning to interest in nature reserves, it was not unexpected that the motive of seeking solitude in nature was associated with wanting to visit nature destinations as confirmed by Carvache-Franco *et al.* (2019) and Ma *et al.* (2018). Interestingly, as is the case with other destination choices, relationship building was again a significant motive under the highest income group. Given South Africa's history of discriminatory policies, which precluded the black majority from accessing and visiting nature reserves, it was interesting to note that race was not found to be a significant predictor of interest in nature reserves in any of the income groups.

Turning to broad observations, a finding that was unexpected was the absence of the motive of relaxation. Relaxation, a core activity according to the TCL, did not significantly increase interest in any of the twelve destination choices included in the study. This is a finding that was also found by Oktadiana *et al.* (2017), where Western, Malaysian and Indonesian tourists were compared. For the non-Western sample, building relationships, nature and fun were core as opposed to the Western tourist where fun, relaxation and building relationships were most important. Oktadiana *et al.* (2017) ascribed the absence of the escape motive to being absorbed in the relationship factor, implying wanting to be with others who hold similar views. In the current study, a similar trend was noted, with fun, nature and relationship

building being the most popular motives and escape being absent. In the South African case, the absence of escape might be explained by the demographic profile of the population and employment statistics. The motive of escape seems to be associated with a Westernised stressful lifestyle, typically experienced by employed people in careers. In a developing context such as South Africa, the demography reflects a youthful society. In addition, unemployment rates are extremely high, which might explain the absence of the motive of relaxing in generating interest in any of the activities. This finding contradicts the TCP which states that the motive of escape/relaxation is a core motive to all travel. Given that this finding seems to resonate with non-Western and developing nations (Oktadiana *et al.*, 2017), it is a finding that needs to be investigated with a view of possibly suggesting an amendment to the TCP to accommodate developing and emergent travellers.

The motive of being in nature was the motive that was most cited in positively impacting interest in the activities researched in this study. Promoting this motive generally, is therefore likely to yield the most impact in terms of increasing interest in a variety of destination choices. The motive of having fun was second highest in discriminating between those interested and those not interested in activities. It was noted that the motive of fun was especially a significant predictor of interest among lower income groups, eliciting the conclusion that the fun motive should be promoted in marketing campaigns to encourage interest among lower income groups. Interestingly, the motive of relationship building was an important predictor of interest among all high-income groups for all destinations, except for sport and religion.

7. CONCLUSION

Results from this study pointed to the fact that tourism push and pull factors are complex phenomena. It confirmed that a different set of push factors or motives is at play, given different income thresholds for pull factors or destinations. The number and magnitude of these thresholds also differ from destination to destination. This study therefore essentially contributed to segmenting the market, identifying more homogenous groups from the heterogeneous tourist population. Suitable and effective marketing strategies are typically more effective if they focus on homogenous groups and the results from this study have the



potential to shape and guide tourism growth models, including models for new and emergent tourists.

Given the nature of this topic, this study was barely able to scratch the tip of the iceberg in terms of the interplay between travel motives (push factors) and travel destinations (pull factors), apart from noting that different income thresholds elicit different motives. This, however, offers an opportunity for future researchers to thoroughly interrogate the various thresholds with their accompanying motives per destination and understanding the reasons for the interplay between motives and destinations within income thresholds. This study also alerted to a possible amendment of the TCP when considering developing or emergent travellers. The absence of the relaxation motive is something that should be investigated in future research, to understand if this motive is absorbed in relationship building or a feature of a developing society.

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CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This last chapter will conclude with an overview of the research objectives and how they were addressed in the study. A summary of the main findings will follow as well as the implication of the findings. The theoretical, methodological and practical contributions of the study are explained, trailed by a set of recommendations for research. The final section will discuss the limitations of the study as well as possibilities for future areas of research identified in this study.

5.2. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The decision to travel is a complex phenomenon involving multidimensional factors. It typically comprises travel motives and negotiating destination choices, which are consciously and subconsciously influenced by circumstantial and contextual factors. Although many studies have been done on this topic, this pre-existing body of research tends to regard these as separate elements and often neglect the intersecting relationships between these factors and their influence on travel decisions. In addition, tourism literature tends to focus on the experienced traveller, whilst often ignoring the emergent traveller. In response to these conceptual and knowledge gaps, this thesis focused on destination/activity choices and how these choices are influenced, considering different contextual factors.

The aim of the study was to increase the theoretical and empirical understanding of travel inclusion and progression among emergent travellers by considering constraints (symbolic and structural) and determining the prioritisation of destination choices. The study also aimed to determine relationships between motives, destination choices and income thresholds.

More specifically, the research objectives of the study were as follows:

RO1: To determine if race remains a barrier in travel destination choice, despite the long-gone removal of all formal racial discriminatory legislature.

- RO2: To determine the relative importance of socio-demographic (race, ethnicity, age, gender) and socio-economic (income, education) variables on destination choice preferences.
- RO3: To determine if education, income, geotype, race, ethnicity, employment, cohabitation status, age or a combination of these socio-demographic variables facilitate transition to destinations considered to be outside the habitus of emergent travellers.
- RO4: To determine if interest in the number of destination preferences varies between emergent travellers and experienced travellers.
- RO5: To determine if emergent travellers have different destination preferences than experienced travellers based on a travel preference hierarchy or travel pattern of choice.
- RO6: To determine which travel motivations (as per the Travel Career Pattern) or socio-demographic variables drive or dominate destination preferences, given income levels.

This study used South African data, which presented an ideal case study given its unique characteristics in terms of its history of legislated travel segregation, extreme socio-political challenges and multi-ethnic societal composition. As such, it provided the opportunity to (a) explore destination choices among people that have experienced discriminatory practices, (b) do research on a large contingent of emergent travellers, and (c) determine travel preferences for different income and ethnic groups. The study employed quantitative methodologies and used nationally representative quantitative data based on specialised travel modules, fielded as part of the South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS). The sample sizes of each dataset exceeded 2 800 respondents and were therefore big enough to conduct the analysis with adequate precision.

The first empirical chapter of the thesis (Chapter 2, Article 1) addressed RO1, RO2 and RO3. The investigation focused on interest in game parks, beach destinations and VFR and determined whether race, ethnicity or socio-economic variables dominated in terms of predicting interest in these three destinations. The intention of this was to determine if race remained a predictor of destination preference, even after the abolishment of racial and

ethnic discriminatory practices more than a quarter of a century ago in South Africa. To test for this, the sub-cultural hypothesis was used which juxtaposes the marginality and ethnic hypothesis. If the marginality hypothesis held true, then differences in destination choice would be based on socio-economic differences between groups; whereas if the ethnicity hypothesis held true, differences were based on race or ethnic differences. The paper separated race into smaller ethnic classifications to determine if preferences for destinations/activities differ among the ethnic groups, given that the degree of variation within any one ethnic group may even exceed variation between races (McKercher *et al.*, 2021c). The marginality/ethnic hypothesis theory thus formed the basis of the empirical part of the article and a regression analysis was used to determine trends in the predictors of travel destination preferences. The paper further showed which socio-demographic variables can be considered as enablers of transition to destinations considered to be outside a travel habitus.

Article 2 (Chapter 3) addressed RO4 and RO5. After studying the impact of race, ethnicity and structural variables on determinants of travel destination products, the focus turned towards destination/activity products *per se*. Eleven travel destinations/activities were identified and classified according to the taxonomy of McKercher (2016). The intention was to determine how preferences for destinations differ between emergent and well-travelled individuals and if a ladder (after the TCL) or pattern (after the TCP) emerged when considering travel experience. The first set of applications determined if the number and combinations of destination preferences differed between emergent and well-travelled individuals. After this, it was investigated if travel destination preferences/activities form a hierarchy or a pattern. The conceptual idea for the article was based on the TCL and TCP rationale of Pearce and Lee (2005). A cluster and CHAID analysis formed the basis of the analysis.

Article 3 (Chapter 4) linked preferences for destinations/activities to travel motives (push factors) given individuals' income levels and addressed RO6. Twelve destinations were identified, and the travel motives of the TCP were included to determine the dominant motives for each destination, given income thresholds. Unlike previous studies, this study, out of necessity, only included people who have travelled before, given that the motives for

travel needed to be determined. The analysis was novel in that it included a threshold regression which grouped travellers with similar motives into categories using income thresholds. Motives for visiting a certain destination could therefore be grouped according to income thresholds, that were identified by the regression.

Taken together, this thesis provides novel insight into advancing the theoretical and empirical understanding of the dynamics and predictors of destination and activity preferences of adults in an emerging market with a history of legislative discrimination and high levels of material inequality. In all the analyses, the data used were sourced from the South African Social Attitudes Survey.

5.3. MAIN FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

This section discusses the main findings and implications of this study. It mirrors the main findings from the three articles, whilst focusing on the overall research questions posed.

5.3.1 Racial boundaries and travel preference (Article 1, RO1)

Participation in tourism is deeply embedded within societal structures and imbalances upheld through social structures for instance systemic racism, leave symbolic boundaries through images and traces from the past (Saarinen & Wall-Reinius, 2021; Sixaba & Rogerson, 2019). This thesis adds to the existing literature by determining the lasting impact of symbolic boundaries in the form of race to travel destination preference. Given the abolishment racialised legislation it could have been assumed that the significance of race as determinant of travel destination choice would have diminished. However, findings show that race remains significant as a contributor of preference to selected destinations. In actual fact, results indicate that the significance of race in terms of preference for game parks (as studied in this research) between whites and other race groups had actually increased, confirming similar results found in other publications in South Africa (Kruger & Douglas, 2015; Musavengane & Leonard, 2019). This finding is in line with what was found by Hudson, So, Meng, Cárdenas and Li (2020) who researched the persistent reluctance of African-Americans to visit the state of South Carolina. His research showed that racism ideology associated with the state of South Carolina and the fear of racial discrimination

were key barriers preventing African American tourists from visiting the state. Other studies (Benjamin & Dillette, 2021; Lee, Chen, Liou, Tsai & Hsieh, 2018) also found that racism ideology remains and prevents mobility and accessibility to many tourism destinations and as such, travel are still predicated on a system of inequality (Bianchi & Stephenson, 2013). Despite discriminatory legislation being removed and overt racism virtually non-existent, it has been replaced by more subtle and often unintentional forms of bias which are not reflected as hostility but are reflected in actions such as discomfort, uneasiness and even fear. Subtle nuanced racism therefore remains, enforcing symbolic boundaries of travel destinations. Race as determinant of destination choice, therefore, remains relevant. Not only do results from this study confirm that race plays a significant role in determining preferences, they also confirm finding by Hudson *et al.* (2020) that indicate the lasting duration of the significance of race as a predictor of destination preference (Stodolska *et al.*, 2019).

5.3.2 Inter and intra race preference (Article 1, RO2)

Cultural models, such as the national culture model of Hofstede, have been employed to recommend generic actions for how to treat tourists and how to market destinations to tourists (Reisinger & Crofts, 2010). The assumptions of this model, and other national cultural scales, are that groups are homogenous, resulting in stereotypical views about tourists, their travel patterns and destination preferences. Examples of these are that people from Asian countries have more collective values and therefore prefer to travel in groups, whilst people from the United States and Western countries are more individualistic and also prefer to be more adventurous (You *et al.*, 2000). The same applies to racial stereotyping, for instance black Africans do not have a preference for conservation or visiting game parks (Musavengane & Leonard, 2019). Findings such as these oversimplify a very complex phenomenon, disregarding intergroup variation within race groups. To this effect, Crofts and Erdmann (2000) cautioned against this and argued that within-culture differences may be greater than between-culture differences.

One of the main findings of this thesis is that, when considering ethnicity alongside other main variables such as race and economic status, ethnicity has the greatest explanatory power in terms of differentiating travel preference. This finding supports the plea of other

academics that more effort needs to be made to understand destination preferences of minority groups within larger groups (McKercher *et al.*, 2021c; Shores *et al.*, 2007). For instance, neglecting distinctions between ethnic groups within race hampers efforts to understand minority participation in outdoor recreation. For example, in this study it was evident that despite the African race group generally being less interested in game parks, the Venda and Xitsonga African ethnic groups scored higher (statistically similar) than the white Afrikaans-speaking minority in both 2006 and 2017. This ethnic group therefore has a distinct preference for game parks, which would not be noticed if a fixed notion of race was assumed. This thesis therefore challenges the notion of a fixed racial preference in tourism research.

5.3.3 Geographic location, distance, territorial tourism space and habitus formation (Article 1, RO2)

Geographic location is critical in determining territorial tourism spaces and impacting perceptions of tourism spaces as distant (Buchanan & Hurwitz, 1950; Visser, 2015). This study showed that geographical location is critical in establishing travel habitus. Ethnic groups adjacent to certain attractions show an increased interest in these destinations and to this effect, ethnic groups living close to certain tourist attractions differ substantively from members of the same race, but geographically removed from the destination. Distance has a profound, though often underappreciated, impact on all aspects of tourism (McKercher, 2018). A theory that has been put forward to explain geographical proximity and distance in tourism is the distance decay theory. According to this theory, demand for destinations declines exponentially with an increase in distance. Studies confirming this theory has showed that demand for a destination falls by about 50% with each 1000 km of added distance (McKercher, 2018). Not only does this theory explain travel habitus formation due to geographic location and distance, but it also explains that distance has an impact on the profile of tourist most likely to visit a destination. (Shoval, McKercher, Ng, & Birenboim, 2011). In essence, anyone who is able to travel can travel short distances, but not everyone can travel long distances. Distance, therefore, may effectively filter out some segments, due to more time required, financial cost, motives and willingness or ability to enter culturally different destinations. This results in a situation where the short-haul market is more homogenous, while the long-haul tends to be more exclusive. These differences translate

into substantial differences in the profile, travel patterns and in destination behaviour (McKercher, 2009). Research in this thesis revealed that geographic proximity to a location plays a critical role in destination preferences and creating travel habitus (McKercher, 2018; Waters, 2016). The role of geography in the formation of travel habitus should consciously be considered in any study where travel preference is considered.

5.3.4 Transition to new leisure preference (Article 1, RO3)

Following from the previous section, and given the intention of the thesis to expand tourism especially among emergent travellers, the question that bears consideration is how tourists can be enticed to explore territories beyond their habitus. One of the most significant contributions of this thesis pertains to the explanation of transition of groups to new leisure preferences. The psychographic motivation theory of Plog (1974) is valuable to explain the basis of this change. According to this theory, tourists fall along a continuum, ranging from dependables who are nervous, non-adventurous and prefer the familiar; to venturers who seek adventure or experience and are usually first to explore new destinations. The theory postulates that new destinations are discovered and explored by venturers and once the destinations become established and popular, dependables follow. Findings from this thesis showed that young and wealthy individuals within ethnic groups mirror venturers' notions, exhibiting heightened interest in territorial tourism spaces outside the habitus. Conversely, they exhibited no or reduced interest in destinations considered familiar or within the habitus. In contrast, the poorer cohorts (regardless of age) had a heightened interest in destinations considered within the habitus. This group therefore seems to find comfort in familiar, within habitus destinations. Age in combination with wealth are thus characteristics that seem to enhance venturers notions and within a group, these are the individuals who are the most likely explore destinations not familiar to the (ethnic) group. This finding is valuable and sheds light on how communities can potentially start to explore new destinations, which are insightful, especially from a tourism growth perspective.

5.3.5 Interactional effects having the greatest impact on preference (Article 1, RO2)

Despite modern theory arguing that travel and leisure participation should be considered as multidimensional and driven by a multitude of effects (Floyd & Stodolska, 2019; Stodolska *et al.*, 2019), the majority of research papers on tourism destination preference treat socio-

demographic factors unidimensional. A finding from this thesis shows that interactional effects between variables explained most of the variance with regards to destination preference. The biggest interactional effect and explanatory power for interest in game parks, beach holidays and VFR for both 2006 and 2017, were found in the interaction between age, income and ethnic group. For interest in game parks and beach holidays, the interactional effect revealed that it was the youngsters with a higher income within the specific ethnic group that showed the highest level of interest. However, for VFR the opposite was true; those with a lower income among the elderly were more interested in VFR. The implication of this finding is a cautionary note – when researching destination preferences, researchers should be cautious when only relying on single variables to explain preference. Preferences for destinations are best explained by multiple hierarchical layers in accordance with the class polarisation theories, or theories of societal positions (Shinew *et al.*, 1996).

5.3.6 Destination choice size and travel experience (Article 2, RO4)

Given that this thesis focuses on emergent travellers, one of the aims of the study was to determine whether travel experience impacts the set choice sizes, in other words the number of destinations that would be deemed to be of interest. Results reveal that travel experience does significantly impact destination choice set size. The low travel experience group tends to have a significantly higher proportion not interested in any destination and a higher proportion interested in only one destination. Contrary, the high travel experience group has a significantly higher proportion interested in more than one destination, as compared to the low travel experience group. The high travel experience cluster is therefore more inclined to indicate interest in multiple destinations, in other words have a larger choice set than the low travel experience group. The higher travel cluster comprised of higher educated individuals with higher levels of income which could imply greater awareness of choices and options in travel, possibly resulting in an elevated interest in multiple destinations. The result corroborates the findings of Karl *et al.* (2015) that travel experience increases travel set sizes, especially at the earlier stages of the destination choice process and this suggests that travel experience not only seem to increase the desire for more travel but also positively impacts interest in a greater variety of destinations.

5.3.7 A pattern or a ladder? (Article 2, RO5)

As discussed in the previous section, the high travel experience group significantly differs from the low travel experience group in that this group has larger choice sets (thus are interested in more destinations) and have higher levels of interest in destinations - the exception being VFR, religious trips and visiting a rural area. The question now bears if travel experience biases destination choices towards upper or lower level taxon destinations. Findings from this study does not support this assertion and reveals that interest are broad-based and as a result higher experience travel group are not significantly more interested in higher or lower taxon order destinations. Given this finding, it is evident that travel experience does not create travel habits that form a career ladder, thus creating a heightened interest in lower order taxon destinations. The finding rather confirms that certain destinations generate interest regardless of travel experience, developing a travel destination pattern rather than a travel career ladder destination model. Certain destinations thus emerge as core and popular, regardless of travel experience (going to the beach, shopping and VFR). This finding confirms that pull factors (at least the pull factors included in this study) form a destination choice pattern which has similarities to the TCP designed for push factors.

An obvious further step is to determine how destinations from such a framework link to the motives of the TCP (Pearce, 2011; Pearce, 2019; Pearce & Lee, 2005). Only one other study (McKercher & Tolkach, 2020) has up to this point been undertaken to determine the dynamic link between motive and attractions, as well as the juxtaposition of the two in influencing destination decision-making on a taxonomy. This study illustrates that the balance of core, middle and outer layer motives influences travel decisions. If core motives dominated, the destination choices are generally more generic - higher taxon products). When middle and outer layer motives became more important, the travel destinations were more specific –lower on the taxonomy. Although the intention of this study was not to interrogate the interrelationship between destination choices and the TCP, it is evident that there is an alignment between motives and destinations and the different layers which might be further interrogated by using the TCP of destination choice, put forward in this thesis.

5.3.8 Number of breakpoints (Article 3: RO6)

As was illustrated previously, income plays a significant role in destination choice. To further the understanding how income influence destination choice, a threshold regression analysis was undertaken for each of the destinations with income as the dependent variable and travel motives and select socio-demographics as the independent variables. This analysis was undertaken given that motives for different income groups differ and bear different weights (McKercher *et al.*, 2021a). The outcome of this analysis is that travellers with similar motives are grouped together within the identified income bands or thresholds per destination. The motives of the TCP were used in the analysis.

The first observation from the analysis is that the number of breakpoints identified per destination differed. Four to six breakpoints were identified for all the destinations/activities, except for sport and religion. Interest in museums had *six* breakpoints; interest in beach activities and travelling abroad had *five* breakpoints; visiting friends and relatives, shopping, visiting a rural area, visiting heritage sites, visiting a cultural village, interest in adventure, interest in nature had *four* breakpoints and interest in sports and religious activities had *two* breakpoints. The number of breakpoints identified per destination is valuable to tourism practitioners, highlighting how diversified motives for certain destinations are. In addition, the sizes of the different thresholds are also valuable to tourism marketing specialists since efforts can be directed at the largest segments with their specific motives.

Visiting museums and heritage sites have been identified as a higher order need (Pearce & Lee, 2005) whilst sport and religious activities could be associated with novice or low experience travellers given their accessibility. Given this analysis it seems plausible that destinations or activities that are based on a higher order motivational needs are disaggregated into more distinguishable income categories based on differential motives given that people with higher order travel motivational needs have a greater variety of needs to be expressed. Contrary, destinations or activities that are considered to be more enticing to emergent travellers, have fewer breakpoints due to its universal mass appeal with similar motives. The number and the size of breakpoints are insightful from a marketing perspective. Marketers can focus on specific income bands with homogenous motives, which would make the marketing strategies more targeted and by extension, more effective.

5.3.9 Motives and destination choice given income (Article 3, RO6)

As stated in the previous section, a threshold regression was undertaken, which grouped travellers with similar motives into categories using income thresholds per destination. Results from this regression showed that motives for different income groups differ and bear different weights. These findings have commercial value for tourism practitioners and will be discussed below.

The motive of nature (to view the scenery and be close to nature) was the motive that was most cited in significantly impacting interest in a variety of destinations for a variety of income thresholds. This motive was therefore most common in distinguishing between those showing interest as opposed to those not showing interest. Although this motive is not core as per the TCP, this motive seems to be central to enticing interest in a variety of activities and destinations. Promoting this motive is therefore likely to yield the most impact in terms of increasing interest in a variety of other destination choices among various income groups. This finding was not entirely unexpected given that interest in nature and the environment has been linked to interest in various forms of travel and tourism (Kim, Kim and Thapa (2018)).

The motive of having fun was second highest in discriminating between those interested and those not interested in activities. It was noted that the motive of fun was especially a significant predictor of interest among lower income groups, eliciting the conclusion that the fun motive should be promoted in marketing campaigns to encourage interest among lower income groups. Interestingly, the motive of relationship building was an important predictor of interest among all high-income groups for all destinations, except for sport and religion. The motives of fun and relationship building as being central to encouraging interest in most destinations is to be expected given the TCL and TCP where the motives of novelty or having fun and relationship building are lower order (thus more common) motives in the case of the TCL and core motives in the case of the TCP.

Despite the motive of fun being a core motive as per the TCP and associated with beach activities (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Klenosky, 2002; McKercher *et al.*, 2021a; Oh *et al.*, 1995), this study showed that the fun motive of beach activities was not positively associated with

an increase in interest among all income levels. Among the middle-income threshold groups, the outer core motives, namely seeking peace (isolation) and exploring the unknown (stimulation), were significant. Among the higher income threshold groups, relationship building and being in nature were statistically significant. From these results it therefore seems that a transition from the fun or pleasure motive to motives associated with autonomy, nature and relationship building are possible with an increase in income. The possibility of a transition of motives as income increases, can therefore exist for a specific destination – much like the overall progression of motives on a TCL or TCP.

Visiting friends and relatives is motivated by the need for social interaction and kinship, and it is therefore not surprising that relationship building, as a push factor, is closely linked to visiting friends and relatives, as a pull factor (McKercher *et al.*, 2021a; Prayag & Ryan, 2011). For sport and shopping, another two activities under the pleasure domain, fun was again a central motive. In terms of interest in sport, alongside fun, being independent (autonomy) and sharing knowledge (recognition) were motives associated with an increase in interest in sport. Turning to the final activity under the pleasure domain, namely travelling abroad, results reveal that the fun motive as well as the building relationships motive were important motivators among most of the income groups. Taken together, the findings show that the motive of fun is closely associated with motives under the pleasure domain of the taxonomy of McKercher (2016).

For religious travel, a destination/activity that was included under the personal quest domain on the taxonomy, two income thresholds were formed. For the lower income threshold group, the motives of seeking independence (autonomy) and sharing knowledge (recognition) were associated with an increase in interest. This is consistent with the TCP where these motives are associated with lower experience travellers and by extension lower income groups. With regards to the higher income group, the motive of building relationships was significantly associated with an increase in interest in religious travel. Females were found to be significantly more interested in this kind of travel than males. These motives are in line with other studies that confirm religious travel is undertaken mostly for three reasons namely to have a religious experience, to have emotional connections, and for personal values and growth (Kim & Kim, 2019). This study adds to this body of knowledge in

determining that the quest for emotional connections (relationship building) seem to increase with an increase in income.

Four destination choices represented the human endeavour domain on the taxonomy, namely interest in museums, art galleries or historical buildings; visiting heritage sights; visiting cultural villages; and visiting rural areas. Visiting museums and heritage sites have been identified as a higher order need (Pearce & Lee, 2005) and in line with this argument, this study showed that motives of self-actualisation, autonomy and sharing knowledge (recognition) were also motives expressed at various income levels for increasing interest in museums, heritage sites and rural areas (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015; Oh *et al.*, 1995). The motive of nature was significant in almost all income thresholds pertaining to human endeavour products. Travel experience is typically associated with higher order travel motives which would explain the positive association between travel experience and interest in human endeavour activities, especially with regards to museums.

The nature domain on the taxonomy of McKercher (2016) was represented by two destination choices, namely adventure tourism and an interest in visiting a nature reserve. Results from this study confirmed that travel experience increased an interest in adventure activities and showed that adventure activities are associated with higher order travel needs, such as autonomy, self-development (host-site) and stimulation (Giddy, 2018; McKercher *et al.*, 2021a). Turning to interest in nature reserves, it was not unexpected that the motive of seeking solitude in nature was associated with wanting to visit nature destinations as confirmed by Carvache-Franco *et al.* (2019) and Ma *et al.* (2018). Relationship building was again a significant motive of creating interest under the highest income group, confirming that relationship building as a motive remain core as per the TCP of Pearce (2005). Relationship building as a motive was found to be more associated with higher income groups and possibly reflects a need for quality time with others given that work and other pressures might leave a person wanting for more meaningful interaction with other individuals.

Turning to broad observations, a finding that was unexpected was the absence of the motive relaxation. Relaxation, a core activity according to the TCL, did not significantly increase interest in any of the twelve destination choices included in the study. This is a finding that was also found by Oktadiana *et al.* (2017), where Western, Malaysian and Indonesian tourists were compared. In the South African case, the absence of escape might be explained by the demographic profile of the population and employment statistics. The motive of escape seems to be associated with a Westernised stressful lifestyle, typically experienced by employed people in careers. In a developing context such as South Africa, the demography reflects a youthful society. In addition, unemployment rates are extremely high, which might explain the absence of the motive of relaxation in generating interest in any of the activities. This finding contradicts the TCP, which states that escape/relaxation is a core motive to all travel. This finding seems to resonate with non-Western and developing nations (Oktadiana *et al.*, 2017) and needs to be investigated with a view of possibly suggesting an amendment to the TCP to accommodate developing and emergent travellers.

5.4. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

5.4.1. Theoretical contribution

This study contributes to the tourism literature by challenging the assumption of a fixed racial culture in tourist destination preference research. The marginalisation/ethnicity theory of Washburne remains the most cited theory to explain differences in travel preferences, due to either economic marginalisation or racial differences. Citations of this theory have increased (Stodolska, 2018) as tourism specialists attempt to understand travel patterns and barriers among the increasingly more diverse populations. Despite its popularity, the ethnicity hypothesis has largely focused on racial ethnic groups and not among ethnic groups within the same race; and has been criticised as such (Floyd, 1999; Johnson, 1997; Stodolska, 2018). The theoretical contribution of this study affirms this criticism and illustrates that, in certain instances, within racial differences (different ethnic groups) tend to be greater than between racial differences when considering destination preferences. This study therefore contributes to the theory of leisure participation and specifically the marginalisation/ethnicity theory, stating that minority groups within race should be

considered when using this theory, since these differences might be able to explain preferences in a much more nuanced way.

This study also contributes theoretically to the debate about how historical discrimination influences contemporary preferences. The study shows that despite political assimilation in South Africa and the abolishment of racial discrimination more than 25 years ago, differences in interracial travel preference remain and have even become more entrenched. Symbolic boundaries, which might have been established due to segregation policies, therefore create a form of habitus that remains, despite the removal of legislative leisure barriers. Assimilation of travel preferences should therefore not be assumed as a mere consequence of the abolishment of legislative, segregation leisure policies. Theoretical discourses on leisure participation can therefore not assume equal participation in leisure, despite the absence of racialised legislation. Symbolic boundaries and travel habitus should be considered regarding emergent travellers. This paper contributes to the limited scholarship on the impact of systemic racism (such as 'apartheid') within a tourism context (Dillette *et al.*, 2019; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020).

One of the most noticeable findings of this study is the important relationship between ethnicity, proximity and destination preference. In the analysis, ethnicity was the greatest predictor of destination preference, but was moderated by physical proximity to an area. This finding makes a theoretical contribution towards literature pertaining to territorial tourism spaces. Territorial tourism spaces are perceived to be geographies of exclusive spaces in tourism and findings from this study contribute to this body of literature in that it showed that physical proximity to a perceived territorial tourism space diminishes perceptions of typical boundaries. Physical proximity, therefore, seems to impact the perception of hostile territorial tourism spaces to the extent that it potentially overrides a negative tourism consciousness.

Another contribution is the advancement and confirmation of the theory of Plog (1974). He developed his theory which includes dependables and venturers. His theory essentially maintains that venturers explore destinations or situations first and once they become popular or commercial destinations, the dependables follow. Once such a destination or activity becomes common practice, the venturers would move to explore a new destination.

He used this theory to explain how destinations rise and fall in popularity. Considering destination preferences among ethnic groups, it was interesting to note a similar pattern regarding communities and their exploration of preferences outside the area of habitus. It was found that the young and more affluent exhibited the most interest in destinations that could be considered outside of the habitus of the group. In this sense, the term venturers seems applicable as it is this group who seems to essentially be the group that first shows interest in destinations considered outside the travel habitus. On the other hand, the older and less affluent travellers exhibited tendencies associated with dependables. This thesis therefore contributes to the theory of Plog in that it shows its applicability in terms of the movement of social groups (and not just individuals) into new and culturally distant destinations; and also contributes to understanding how groups or societies migrate to culturally, distant destinations.

This study has further contributed theoretically to destination choice literature in understanding whether a pattern or hierarchy forms. The study engaged the Travel Career Ladder (Pearce 1983) and Travel Career Pattern (Pearce 2005) theories of push motives to determine if pull factors (travel destinations) similarly form a ladder or pattern. This is a novel contribution and leads to a better understanding of the ranking and order of destination choices and the sequence of destination choices.

Findings from this thesis also contribute to the TCP motivational theory of Pearce and Lee (2005). This study furthers this body of knowledge in that it illustrated that motives and combinations of motives differ for different income thresholds; and that the relative importance of motives forms distinct groupings considering income. This is in contrast with the current TCP that only discriminates between high and low travel experience and motives.

5.4.2. Methodological contribution

From a practical methodological perspective, analysts should be cautioned against using a race variable as the unit of analysis when researching travel destination choice. Results from this thesis indicate it would be incorrect to assume a typical racial travel culture exists and it would be wrong to base recommendations for preference for destinations solely on a race variable. This cautionary note is particularly relevant in ethnic diverse societies. Methodologists should therefore be cautious since the use of an overarching race variable

would fail to account for intra-cultural differences within the travelling population and might act as perpetuating racial stereotyping in travel.

This thesis contributes methodologically to the travel destination choice theory in that it has applied the TCP methodology on pull factors. This is novel and confirms that a TCP forms when considering pull factors. This methodology should be repeated considering other destinations to determine which destinations are core and which are middle or outer layer destinations.

This study explored results from a threshold regression, which illustrated the non-linear relationships between destination choice and travel motivations, given the threshold variable of income therefore combined push (motives), pull factors (destinations) and income in a multi-dimensional way, determining the interplay between different motives for different destination choices, given statistically separated income bands. Based on the regression results from this study, the impact coefficients of tourism motivation on destination choices varied with different levels of income, indicating that tourism motives change along with the different incomes. This methodology has not been used before in this way to understand the interplay between push and pull factors considering income bands. This constitutes a novel methodological contribution.

5.4.3. Practical contribution

Results showed that high travel experience does not lead to a greater need for specific (or low taxon) attractions. Findings rather suggest that both high and low travel experience groups tend to seek more generic attractions, such as going to the beach, VFR and shopping activities. These destinations can therefore be considered as the basis of a hierarchy similar to the TCL's lower order needs, or the "backbone" or "skeleton" of all travel motivation of the TCP. The practical contribution of this finding is that tourism growth models should consider these destinations as central destinations that would appeal to both low and high travel experience groups. Furthermore, beach activities were found to be the prime segmenting variable between the low and high travel experience groups and was also identified as the most popular destination choice. Going to the beach is therefore an activity that should be

considered as central to campaigns attempting to further a culture of travel among both the low and high experience traveller.

Among the low travel experience group, the node that was identified as a potential growth node was a segment that showed no interest in the beach, but showed an interest in sport and religious activities. Interest in these types of activities among the low travel experience group is not surprising, given that these types of activities can be described as more familiar and attainable; appealing to people with low travel experience (Musavengane & Leonard, 2019). Interest in sport can be considered attainable and interest in religious travel habitual, given the history of travel for religious purposes among lower income groups in South Africa. In practice, promoting sport and religious travel among no or low travel experience groups has the potential to grow a culture of travel by encouraging these types of activities among those not at all interested in any destination.

Exploring the balance between low travel experience and high travel experience, as well as understanding destination choice from a taxonomic position assist in understanding the process involved in the invoked phase of the set theory. During the invoked phase, alternatives are weighed up against each other and destinations are essentially ranked prior to being actioned (Karl et al., 2015). This study sheds light on how ranking of destinations occurs and it is hoped that this study will contribute, to some extent, to guide practitioners and policymakers to adopt more targeted growth tourism strategies that cater for both the experienced and inexperienced traveller in terms of product choice sets.

This study shows that motives for travelling to a destination/activity differ when considering certain income bands. The number of breakpoints identified per destination/activity also differs. For instance, interest in a museum revealed six breakpoints; interest in going to the beach and travelling abroad had five; whilst interest in nature, heritage, culture, adventure, shopping, rural areas and visiting friends and relatives had four. Interest in religious activities and sports events had two breakpoints. These breakpoints indicate a change in interest in these destination choices, given the various motives. Not only is the number of breakpoints insightful, but the size of these income breakpoints and motives attached to each are important from a marketing perspective. This gives evidence to produce more refined travel

marketing material that can target specific markets, using motives that would entice the specific cohort.

5.5. STUDY RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

As in many other sectors of society, participation in the leisure and tourism domain has been affected by income inequality, as well as the social status of cultural and race groups. Leisure and tourism participation is therefore not a neutral territory devoid from historical narratives, human influence or prejudice. The politics of race and nature impacts travel patterns and preferences; and leaves distinct differences in travel preferences between income groups, race groups and cultural groups. Those living in wealthy, stable economies and households' travel motives typically evolve around the enriching of quality of life and has become a life routine. In more developing contexts and among emergent travellers, the act of travelling is, however, more complex and to a greater extent intertwined with everyday mobilities and affected by economic, as well as other socio-political barriers, which either hinder travel or impact travel choices. When considering research entailing emergent travellers, it is therefore critical that historical contexts be taken into account, as well as tendencies relating to symbolic boundaries and territorial consciousness and habitus.

Greater interest in travel exploration among youth cohorts indicates the potential for the domestic tourism landscape to change across generations. Youth exhibits notions of venturers and can potentially be the catalyst of change in terms of diversifying and expanding tourism markets, especially among marginalised groups. This study alluded to the fact that combinations and permutations of age, ethnicity and income best explain variability in leisure preference. A recommendation forthcoming from the study is that models, such as multiple hierarchy stratification techniques should be used in future research of this nature to capture the nuanced intricacies. Theories based on marginalised societal positions or class polarisation would be applicable in such research.

This study was conducted in South Africa, a country with a specific history and by implication a specific context. It would be valuable to repeat a study of this nature in other countries to determine which findings from this report are context specific or universal. Future research on destination preferences across a product taxonomy should also be done on a wider range

of destinations to understand which constitute core, middle layer and outer layer destinations. These types of typologies will help to understand the intricate relationships between destinations and travel experience.

COVID-19 has brought certain challenges, some of which might have an enduring impact on society and on tourism. The issue of how travel behaviour will be impacted by COVID-19 is a subject that is of great importance (Matiza, 2020). In line with this thesis and findings it bears the question if the risks people associate with COVID-19 will impact inert destinations, in other words destinations that are typically considered in travel decision-making. Travel decisions are often based on risk reduction strategies (Matiza, 2020; Wolff & Larsen, 2016) and people might resort (at least for the short term) to destinations that are considered safe and familiar, such as VFR. This is a topic that could benefit from findings from this study, specifically in relation to destinations that might become core as a result of being perceived as low risk.

Another recommendation from the study pertains to terminology used. Among poorer and emergent travellers, terminologies for destinations might be interpreted differently. A specific example pertains to the term cultural village used in this study; “visiting a cultural village”. The research intent of this destination was a designated space where traditional culture is on show for visitors to gain insight into particular lifestyles. However, it was established that many travellers, especially emergent travellers, misconstrued this as visiting a village, where they grew up. It is recommended when undertaking these types of surveys among emergent travellers, cognitive interviews are conducted to determine correct terminologies and to determine how destinations are perceived.

A further limitation, which was also aired against the TCL of Pearce and Lee (2005), is that the same respondents were not questioned over time. An ideal scenario would have been to study travel patterns of a set of emergent travellers over time, to get a comprehensive picture of travel progression over time.

This study was based on quantitative data and as with any study, there are limitations in terms of the data used. Firstly, the datasets used formed part of an omnibus survey, implying that it was not a survey dedicated to tourism. This in itself is not a problem, but it does impact

the number of questions that can be dedicated to this topic. For instance, in the case of this study, only a limited number of destinations/activities could be included. Article one for instance essentially only focused on three destinations, article two on 11 destinations/activities and article three on 12. Although meaningful conclusions could be made, the restricted number of destinations/activities in these studies remain a limitation of the thesis. It is recommended that the methodology employed in this study be repeated, using a greater variety and larger set of travel destination choices. Findings pertaining to the formation of travel career ladders or patterns might vary, depending on the destinations included. This is an area that should further be explored by research and the framework of McKercher acts as a valuable framework to test destination choice progression.

A limitation that was particularly frustrating was the inability to further interrogate trends found in the data. Due to space and time constraints, the author was not able to further interrogate intriguing findings. One such example is the finding that race has become more significant over time in terms of explaining preference for game parks. During legislative apartheid, game parks were exclusive to white South Africans, more so than beaches and other activities. The fact that race has over time become more entrenched as determining preference for game parks is fascinating and should be researched further to better understand the explanation of enduring underrepresentation of blacks in game parks globally.

Another limitation of this study that can retrospectively be deduced, is the omission of a geographical analytical variable. Given the finding that geographical residency and proximity plays a critical role in destination/activity preference, it is a limitation that a geographical variable, for instance depicting residential placement, was not included.

Given the nature of this topic, this thesis was barely able to scratch the tip of the iceberg in terms of the interplay between travel motives (push factors) and travel destinations (pull factors), apart from noting that different income thresholds elicit different motives. This, however, offers an opportunity for future research to thoroughly interrogate the various thresholds with its accompanying motives per destination to further the understanding of the interplay between motives, destinations and income thresholds.

5.6. CONCLUSION

A recurring theme in tourism research over the past few years has been the exclusionary nature of tourism (Rogerson, 2020; Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2018) and the acknowledgement that, despite efforts, the tourism sector still has problems to attract emergent travellers. A reason for this is that the tourism industry tends to focus on people that have travelled, whilst emergent travellers are to a large extent neglected. Karrow (2014) and Rogerson (2020) argue that tourism development should be more inclusive and should focus on bringing emergent travellers into mainstream tourism by focusing on low and middle-income groups, and specifically also barriers faced by these groups. Tourism should be researched from a broader perspective (Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2018) and should start to focus on those excluded from tourism due to constraints, which include symbolic constraints. Constraints do not only impact participation in tourism, but also negotiate the type of participation. Cohen (2015) maintains that in order to understand this complexity, a more holistic approach to travel is needed.

This study sought to better understand how those who have typically been marginalised by or excluded from tourism can be brought into the tourism industry, thus supporting a more inclusive tourism framework, whilst growing the industry and adapting, amending or confirming some of the Westernised theories of tourism participation. It is hoped that this thesis has made some small contribution towards understanding how a more inclusive tourism industry can be developed.

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APPENDIX A: Questionnaires

SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIAL ATTITUDES SURVEY
Questionnaire 1: August 2006

RESPONDENTS AGED 16 YEARS

Good (morning/afternoon/evening), I'm _____ and we are conducting a survey for the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). The HSRC regularly conducts surveys of opinion amongst the South African population. Topics include a wide range of social matters such as communications, politics, education, unemployment, the problems of the aged and inter-group relations. As a follow-up to this earlier work, we would like to ask you questions on a variety of subjects that are of national importance. To obtain reliable, scientific information we request that you answer the questions that follow as honestly as possible. Your opinion is important in this research. The area in which you live and you yourself have been selected randomly for the purpose of this survey. The fact that you have been chosen is thus quite coincidental. The information you give to us will be kept confidential. You and your household members will not be identified by name or address in any of the reports we plan to write.

PARTICULARS OF VISITS

	DAY	MONTH	TIME STARTED		TIME COMPLETED		**RESPONSE		
			HR	MIN	HR	MIN			
First visit	/	/	2006						
Second visit	/	/	2006						
Third visit	/	/	2006						

**RESPONSE CODES	
Completed questionnaire	= 01
Partially completed questionnaire (specify reason)	= 02
<u>Revisit</u>	
Appointment made	= 03
Selected respondent not at home	= 04
No one home	= 05
<u>Do not qualify</u>	
Vacant house/flat/stand/not a house or flat/demolished	= 06
No person qualifies according to the survey specifications	= 07
Respondent cannot communicate with interviewer because of language	= 08
Respondent is physically/mentally not fit to be interviewed	= 09
<u>Refusals</u>	
Contact person refused	= 10
Interview refused by selected respondent	= 11
Interview refused by parent	= 12
Interview refused by another household member	= 13
<u>OFFICE USE</u>	= 14

STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL



Name of Interviewer

.....
 Number of interviewer
 Checked by
 Signature of supervisor _____

FIELDWORK CONTROL

CONTROL	YES	NO	REMARKS
Personal	1	2	
Telephonic	1	2	
Name	SIGNATURE		
.....	DATE/...../.....2006		

RESPONDENT SELECTION PROCEDURE

Number of households at visiting point
 Number of persons 16 years and older at visiting point

Please list all persons at the visiting point who are 16 years and older and were resident 15 out of the past 30 days. Once completed, use the Kish grid on next page to determine which person is to be interviewed.

Names of Persons Aged 16 and Older	
	01
	02
	03
	04
	05
	06
	07
	08
	09
	10
	11
	12
	13
	14
	15
	16
	17
	18
	19
	20
	21
	22
	23
	24
	25

NAME OF RESPONDENT:
ADDRESS OF RESPONDENT:
.....
TEL NO.:



GRID TO SELECT RESPONDENT

NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRE	NUMBER OF PERSONS FROM WHICH RESPONDENT MUST BE DRAWN																											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25			
1	26	51	76	1	1	1	3	2	4	1	3	5	8	6	5	12	10	1	6	8	7	19	19	13	21	13	24	25
2	27	52	77	1	2	3	4	3	1	2	2	3	4	8	3	7	2	5	14	4	15	4	8	6	16	14	22	19
3	28	53	78	1	1	2	1	4	2	7	6	9	3	5	11	2	1	3	11	7	10	16	16	10	5	2	2	3
4	29	54	79	1	2	3	2	1	3	5	8	6	2	4	2	4	8	11	10	16	6	9	10	15	11	12	11	18
5	30	55	80	1	1	1	4	5	6	3	5	7	5	9	8	14	3	2	13	5	18	1	4	1	20	11	5	24
6	31	56	81	1	2	2	2	3	5	7	7	8	7	1	4	9	14	8	2	17	17	14	12	14	22	10	3	14
7	32	57	82	1	2	1	1	4	1	4	1	4	6	3	6	5	7	13	9	2	3	13	14	8	2	7	20	4
8	33	58	83	1	1	2	3	2	5	1	4	2	1	7	10	6	5	4	15	10	5	2	13	4	17	5	17	8
9	34	59	84	1	1	3	2	5	6	2	2	1	9	10	1	10	4	6	6	1	9	10	1	5	6	9	1	12
10	35	60	85	1	2	2	4	1	3	3	6	9	10	11	12	3	9	15	7	8	11	6	3	9	4	3	10	1
11	36	61	86	1	1	1	3	1	4	5	3	1	6	2	9	13	11	14	4	11	4	15	15	17	1	1	23	2
12	37	62	87	1	2	3	1	3	2	7	5	6	5	7	7	8	6	10	3	3	1	12	20	7	13	22	12	16
13	38	63	88	1	1	2	1	5	3	6	4	3	4	6	2	11	13	12	1	15	8	7	2	12	15	21	13	7
14	39	64	89	1	2	3	2	4	1	4	7	8	2	5	6	11	12	9	16	13	16	11	18	18	14	16	18	23
15	40	65	90	1	2	1	4	2	4	3	8	7	7	11	1	3	5	7	12	14	13	8	17	20	19	20	19	11
16	41	66	91	1	1	3	3	1	6	5	1	5	9	10	3	2	11	13	8	12	12	5	6	21	8	8	4	15
17	42	67	92	1	1	2	2	3	4	2	6	2	3	2	12	5	2	10	13	5	8	18	9	16	10	17	16	20
18	43	68	93	1	2	1	4	2	6	4	1	4	8	9	10	7	9	3	12	12	9	7	20	19	9	19	21	13
19	44	69	94	1	2	2	1	3	5	2	8	9	10	4	9	8	13	1	1	14	10	19	10	11	18	15	7	6
20	45	70	95	1	1	3	2	5	4	1	3	8	1	3	8	6	6	9	5	7	13	4	15	1	7	22	15	21
21	46	71	96	1	1	1	2	5	1	7	2	3	2	1	11	4	7	5	3	2	1	3	12	18	5	19	14	9
22	47	72	97	1	2	1	3	1	3	2	6	2	1	8	7	1	4	2	11	8	2	17	4	17	21	16	3	5
23	48	73	98	1	2	3	4	2	2	6	7	7	8	3	4	9	3	6	2	11	11	16	2	8	11	23	6	22
24	49	74	99	1	1	2	1	4	6	3	5	5	3	1	5	13	1	14	8	14	6	15	9	14	3	6	9	17
25	50	75	100	1	1	2	3	3	2	4	6	4	7	5	3	12	12	12	4	6	2	17	11	2	12	4	8	10



SASAS QUESTIONNAIRE 1: 2006

Number of persons in this household

Number of persons 16 years and older in this household

Household schedule	Write in from oldest (top) to youngest (bottom)	Person number	How old is [name]? (completed years; less than 1 year =0)	Is [name] a male or female? M=1 F=2	What population group does [name] belong to?	What is [name]'s relationship to the respondent
<p><i>Please list all persons in the household who eat from the same cooking pot and who were resident 15 out of the past 30 days</i></p> <p><i>Note: Circle the number next to the name of the household head.</i></p>		01				
		02				
		03				
		04				
		05				
		06				
		07				
		08				
		09				
		10				
		11				
		12				
		13				
		14				
		15				
		16				
		17				
		18				
		19				
		20				
		21				
		22				
		23				
		24				
		25				

Population Group
1 = Black African
2 = Coloured
3 = Indian or Asian
4 = White
5 = Other (<i>specify</i>)

Relationship to respondent codes
1 = Respondent
2 = Wife or husband or partner
3 = Son/daughter/stepchild/adopted child
4 = Father/mother/ stepfather/stepmother
5 = Brother/sister/stepbrother/stepsister
6 = Grandchild/great grandchild
7 = Grandparent/great grandparent
8 = Mother- or father-in-law
9 = Son- or daughter-in-law
10 = Brother- or sister-in-law
11 = Other relation (e.g. aunt/uncle)
12 = Non-relationship



TOURISM AND LEISURE

Suppose you could change the way you spend your time, spending more time on some things and less time on others. Which of the things on the following list would you like to spend more time on, and which you would you like to spend less time on? [Fieldworker: Please circle ONE number on each line]

		Much more time	A bit more time	Same time as now	A bit less time	Much less time	(Do not know)
1. ¹²	Time in a paid job	1	2	3	4	5	8
2.	Time with your family	1	2	3	4	5	8
3.	Time with friends	1	2	3	4	5	8
4.	Time in leisure activities	1	2	3	4	5	8

5. Compared to other people your age, how often would you say you take part in social activities?

Much less than most	1
Less than most	2
About the same as most	3
More than most	4
Much more than most	5
(Don't know)	8

How interested are you in the following activities? [Fieldworker: Please circle ONE number on each line]

		Very interested	Fairly Interested	Not interested	(Do not know)
6.	Going to the beach	1	2	3	8
7.	Visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building	1	2	3	8
8.	Visiting a nature reserve	1	2	3	8
9.	Visiting Robben Island	1	2	3	8
10.	Religious gatherings	1	2	3	8
11.	Visiting an African cultural village	1	2	3	8
12.	Adventure activities i.e. canoeing, 4x4, etc	1	2	3	8
13.	Meetings/conferencing/events	1	2	3	8
14.	Shopping	1	2	3	8
15.	Soccer	1	2	3	8
16.	Rugby	1	2	3	8

¹² Note the question numbers in the questionnaires do not denote the actual numbers in the original questionnaire



Please say to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements.
[Showcard 3] [Fieldworker: Please circle ONE number on each line]

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Dis-agree	Strongly disagree	(Do not know)
17. The best sort of holiday is to be away from large and busy cities	1	2	3	4	5	8
18. Good service is more important than cost when choosing a hotel	1	2	3	4	5	8
19. I think that freedom is more important than obeying rules	1	2	3	4	5	8
20. The best holidays are at large tourist resorts with lots of entertainment	1	2	3	4	5	8
21. My favourite holiday destination is Kruger Park	1	2	3	4	5	8

Please say to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements. [Showcard 3]

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Dis-agree	Strongly disagree	(Do not know)
22. My favourite holiday destination is Cape Town	1	2	3	4	5	8
23. Spending more than one day looking at wild animals is boring	1	2	3	4	5	8
24. I do not like spending holidays away from home	1	2	3	4	5	8
25. I do not like to go to places where other races dominate	1	2	3	4	5	8
26. Most of my holidays are spent at the homes of family members or friends	1	2	3	4	5	8
27. I prefer camping to other types of holidays	1	2	3	4	5	8
28. The best place for a holiday is at the beach	1	2	3	4	5	8
29. Foreign destinations are better than local ones	1	2	3	4	5	8
30. Staying in a big city hotel is better than staying in a small local place	1	2	3	4	5	8
31. I mostly purchase brand name clothing	1	2	3	4	5	8
32. Traditional African food should be available in hotels and other accommodation	1	2	3	4	5	8
33. Travelling on your own is better than taking an organised bus tour	1	2	3	4	5	8
34. My favourite holiday destination is Durban	1	2	3	4	5	8
35. Scenic, beautiful places attract me	1	2	3	4	5	8
36. All sex related tourism industries should be banned	1	2	3	4	5	8
37. I would rather go to the Kruger Park than the beach	1	2	3	4	5	8
38. I would love to spend time in the desert	1	2	3	4	5	8
39. I go on holiday (away from my place) at least once a year	1	2	3	4	5	8



40. Have you ever seen or heard of the Sho't Left campaign?

Yes	1
No	2
Uncertain	3

RESPONDENT CHARACTERISTICS

41. Sex of respondent [copy from contact sheet]

Male	1
Female	2

42. Race of respondent [copy from contact sheet]

Black African	1
Coloured	2
Indian/Asian	3
White	4
Other	5

43. Age of respondent in completed years [copy from contact sheet]

			Years
--	--	--	-------

(Don't know) = 997

44. What is your current marital status?

Married	1
Widower/widow	2
Divorced	3
Separated	4
Never married	5
(Refused to answer)	7
(Don't know)	8

→ Skip to Q.45
 } Skip to Q.46

45. Are you currently living with your husband/wife?

Yes	1
No	2
(Refused to answer)	7
(Do not know)	8

46. Do you live together with a partner?

Yes	1
No	2
(Refused to answer)	7
(Don't know)	8
(Not applicable - living together with spouse)	0

47. Do you have children living at home with you?

Yes, respondent has children living at home	1
No, does not	2



48. What is the highest level of education that you have ever completed?

No schooling	00	NTC 2/ N2/ NC (V) Level 3	15
Grade R/ Grade 0	01	NTC 3/ N3/NC (V) Level 4	16
Grade 1/ Sub A/Class 1	02	N4/NTC 4	17
Grade 2 / Sub B/Class 2	03	N5/NTC 5	18
Grade 3/Standard 1/ ABET 1 (Kha Ri Gude, Sanli)	04	N6/NTC 6	19
Grade 4/ Standard 2	05	Diploma	20
Grade 5/ Standard 3/ ABET 2	06	Advanced diploma (AD)	21
Grade 6/Standard 4	07	Bachelor degree	22
Grade 7/Standard 5/ ABET 3	08	Post graduate diploma (PGD)	23
Grade 8/Standard 6/Form 1	09	Honours degree	24
Grade 9/Standard 7/Form 2/ ABET 4	10	Master degree	25
Grade 10/ Standard 8/ Form 3	11	Doctorate degree, Laureatus in Technology	26
Grade 11/ Standard 9/ Form 4	12	Other (specify)	27
Grade 12/Standard 10/Form 5/Matric	13	(Do not know)	88
NTC 1/ N1/NC (V) Level 2	14		

49. What language do you speak mostly at home?

50. What is your mother tongue?

	49. Mostly spoken at home	50. Mother tongue
Sesotho	01	01
Setswana	02	02
Sepedi	03	03
Siswati	04	04
IsiNdebele	05	05
IsiXhosa	06	06
IsiZulu	07	07
Xitsonga	08	08
Tshivenda/Lemba	09	09
Afrikaans	10	10
English	11	11
Other African language	12	12
European language	13	13
Indian language	14	14
Other (specify)	15	15



51. What is your current employment status? (WHICH BEST DESCRIBES YOUR PRESENT WORK SITUATION?)

Unemployed, not looking for work	01
Unemployed, looking for work	02
Pensioner (aged/retired)	03
Temporarily sick	04
Permanently disabled	05
Housewife, not working at all, not looking for work	06
Housewife, looking for work	07
Student/learner	08
Self-employed – full-time	09
Self-employed – part-time	10
Employed part-time (if none of the above)	11
Employed full-time	12
Other (specify)	13

52. What is your current occupation? [WRITE DOWN THE RESPONSE. IF NOT CURRENTLY EMPLOYED, ASK FOR MOST RECENT OCCUPATION]

(Refused to answer)	97
(Don't know, inadequately described)	98
(Not applicable – never had a job)	00

53. Do you consider yourself as belonging to any religion?

Yes	1
No	2

→ Skip to Q.55

54. If answer is yes, which one? Please specify denomination

Christian (without specification)	01	Seventh Day Adventist	17
African Evangelical Church	02	St John's Apostolic	18
Anglican	03	United Congregation Church	19
Assemblies of God	04	Universal Church of God	20
Apostle Twelve	05	Nazareth	21
Baptist	06	Zionist Christian Church	22
Dutch Reformed	07	Other Christian	23
Full Gospel Church of God	08	Islam / Muslim	24
Faith Mission	09	Judaism / Jewish	25
Church of God and Saints of Christ	10	Hinduism / Hindu	26
Jehovah's Witness	11	Buddhism / Buddhist	27
Lutheran	12	Other (specify)	28
Methodist	13	(Refused)	97
Pentecostal Holiness Church	14	(Do not know)	98
Roman Catholic	15	(Not answered)	99



55. Apart from special occasions such as weddings, funerals and baptisms, how often do you attend services or meetings connected with your religion?

Several times a week	01
Once a week	02
2 or 3 times a month	03
Once a month	04
Several times a year	05
Once a year	06
Less often	07
Never	08
(Refused)	97
(Do not know)	98

56. In our society there are groups which tend to be towards the top and groups which tend to be towards the bottom. Where would you put yourself on a scale of 1 to 10, where 10 is the top and 1 the bottom?

Highest	10
	9
	8
	7
	6
	5
	4
	3
	2
Lowest	1

57. Do you have access to a computer? [*Fieldworker: Multiple response*]

a. Yes, at home	1
b. Yes, at work	2
c. Yes, at a post office	3
d. Yes, at an educational institution	4
e. Yes, at an Internet Café	5
f. Yes, at a Community Centre	6
g. Yes, at a Telecentre	7
h. Yes, other (please specify)	8
i. None	9

58. Do you have access to the Internet? [*Fieldworker: Multiple response*]

a. Yes, at home	1
b. Yes, at work	2
c. Yes, at an educational institution	3
d. Yes, at an internet cafe	4
e. Yes, at a community centre	5
f. Yes, at a post office	6
g. Yes, through a cellphone	7
h. Yes, other (please specify)	8
i. None	9

59. Do you personally have a cell phone for personal or business use?

Personal use	1
Business use	2
Both	3
None	4



PERSONAL AND HOUSEHOLD INCOME *SHOWCARD G2*

60. Please give me the letter that best describes the **TOTAL MONTHLY HOUSEHOLD INCOME** of all the people in your household before tax and other deductions. Please include all sources of income i.e. salaries, pensions, income from investment, etc.
61. Please give me the letter that best describes your **PERSONAL TOTAL MONTHLY INCOME** before tax and other deductions. Please include all sources of income i.e. salaries, pensions, income from investment, etc.

		60. Household	61. Personal
	No income	01	01
K	R1 – R500	02	02
L	R501 –R750	03	03
M	R751 – R1 000	04	04
N	R1 001-R1 500	05	05
O	R1 501 – R2 000	06	06
P	R2 001 – R3 000	07	07
Q	R3 001 – R5 000	08	08
R	R5 001 – R7 500	09	09
S	R7 501 – R10 000	10	10
T	R10 001 – R15 000	11	11
U	R15 001 – R20 000	12	12
V	R20 001 – R30 000	13	13
W	R30 000 +	14	14
	(Refuse to answer)	97	97
	(Uncertain/Don't know)	98	98

62. What monthly income level do you consider to be minimal for your household, i.e. your household could not make ends meet with less?

R _____
(Don't know = 98)

63. Taking all things together, would you say you are: [Showcard 6]

Very happy	1
Happy	2
Neither happy nor unhappy	3
Not happy	4
Not at all happy	5
(Do not know)	8

64. Now consider today and the last few days. Would you say that you are...?

In a better mood than usual	1
Normal	2
In a worse mood than usual	3
(Do not know)	8

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION



SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIAL ATTITUDES SURVEY
Questionnaire 3: October/December 2017

RESPONDENTS AGED 16 YEARS +

Good (morning/afternoon/evening), I'm _____ and we are conducting a survey for the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). The HSRC regularly conducts surveys of opinion amongst the South African population. Topics include a wide range of social matters such as communications, politics, education, unemployment, the problems of the aged and inter-group relations. As a follow-up to this earlier work, we would like to ask you questions on a variety of subjects that are of national importance. To obtain reliable, scientific information we request that you answer the questions that follow as honestly as possible. Your opinion is important in this research. The area in which you live and you yourself have been selected randomly for the purpose of this survey. The fact that you have been chosen is thus quite coincidental. The information you give to us will be kept confidential. You and your household members will not be identified by name or address in any of the reports we plan to write.

PARTICULARS OF VISITS

	DAY MONTH		TIME STARTED		TIME COMPLETED		**RESPONSE	
			HR	MIN	HR	MIN		
First visit	/	/ 2017						
Second visit	/	/ 2017						
Third visit	/	/ 2017						

****RESPONSE CODES**

Completed questionnaire	= 01
Partially completed questionnaire (specify reason)	= 02
Revisit	
Appointment made	= 03
Selected respondent not at home	= 04
No one home	= 05
Do not qualify	
Vacant house/flat/stand/not a house or flat/demolished	= 06
No person qualifies according to the survey specifications	= 07
Respondent cannot communicate with interviewer because of language	= 08
Respondent is physically/mentally not fit to be interviewed	= 09
Refusals	
Contact person refused	= 10
Interview refused by selected respondent	= 11
Interview refused by parent	= 12
Interview refused by another household member	= 13
OFFICE USE	= 14

STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL



Name of Interviewer

Number of interviewer

--	--	--

Checked by

--

Signature of supervisor _____

FIELDWORK CONTROL

CONTROL	YES	NO	REMARKS
Personal	1	2	
Telephonic	1	2	
Name	SIGNATURE		
.....	DATE/...../.....2006		

RESPONDENT SELECTION PROCEDURE

Number of households at visiting point

--	--

Number of persons 16 years and older at visiting point

--	--

Please list all persons at the visiting point who are 16 years and older and were resident 15 out of the past 30 days. Once completed, use the Kish grid on next page to determine which person is to be interviewed.

Names of Persons Aged 16 and Older	
	01
	02
	03
	04
	05
	06
	07
	08
	09
	10
	11
	12
	13
	14
	15
	16
	17
	18
	19
	20
	21
	22
	23
	24
	25

NAME OF RESPONDENT:
ADDRESS OF RESPONDENT:
.....
TEL NO.:



GRID TO SELECT RESPONDENT

NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRE	NUMBER OF PERSONS FROM WHICH RESPONDENT MUST BE DRAWN																											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25			
1	26	51	76	1	1	1	3	2	4	1	3	5	8	6	5	12	10	1	6	8	7	19	19	13	21	13	24	25
2	27	52	77	1	2	3	4	3	1	2	2	3	4	8	3	7	2	5	14	4	15	4	8	6	16	14	22	19
3	28	53	78	1	1	2	1	4	2	7	6	9	3	5	11	2	1	3	11	7	10	16	16	10	5	2	2	3
4	29	54	79	1	2	3	2	1	3	5	8	6	2	4	2	4	8	11	10	16	6	9	10	15	11	12	11	18
5	30	55	80	1	1	1	4	5	6	3	5	7	5	9	8	13	3	2	13	5	18	1	4	1	20	11	5	24
6	31	56	81	1	2	2	2	3	5	7	7	8	7	1	4	9	14	8	2	17	17	14	12	14	22	10	3	14
7	32	57	82	1	2	1	1	4	1	4	1	4	6	3	6	5	7	13	9	2	3	13	14	8	2	7	20	4
8	33	58	83	1	1	2	3	2	5	1	4	2	1	7	10	6	5	4	15	10	5	2	13	4	17	5	17	8
9	34	59	84	1	1	3	2	5	6	2	2	1	9	10	1	10	4	6	6	1	9	10	1	5	6	9	1	12
10	35	60	85	1	2	2	4	1	3	3	6	9	10	11	12	3	9	15	7	8	11	6	3	9	4	3	10	1
11	36	61	86	1	1	1	3	1	4	5	3	1	6	2	9	13	11	14	4	11	4	15	15	17	1	1	23	2
12	37	62	87	1	2	3	1	3	2	7	5	6	5	7	7	8	6	10	3	3	1	12	20	7	13	22	12	16
13	38	63	88	1	1	2	1	5	3	6	4	3	4	6	2	11	13	12	1	15	8	7	2	12	15	21	13	7
14	39	64	89	1	2	3	2	4	1	4	7	8	2	5	6	11	12	9	16	13	16	11	18	18	14	16	18	23
15	40	65	90	1	2	1	4	2	4	3	8	7	7	11	1	3	5	7	12	14	13	8	17	20	19	20	19	11
16	41	66	91	1	1	3	3	1	6	5	1	5	9	10	3	2	11	13	8	12	12	5	6	21	8	8	4	15
17	42	67	92	1	1	2	2	3	4	2	6	2	3	2	12	5	2	10	13	5	8	18	9	16	10	17	16	20
18	43	68	93	1	2	1	4	2	6	4	1	4	8	9	10	7	9	3	12	12	9	7	20	19	9	19	21	13
19	44	69	94	1	2	2	1	3	5	2	8	9	10	4	9	8	13	1	1	14	10	19	10	11	18	15	7	6
20	45	70	95	1	1	3	2	5	4	1	3	8	1	3	8	6	6	9	5	7	13	4	15	1	7	22	15	21
21	46	71	96	1	1	1	2	5	1	7	2	3	2	1	11	4	7	5	3	2	1	3	12	18	5	19	14	9
22	47	72	97	1	2	1	3	1	3	2	6	2	1	8	7	1	4	2	11	8	2	17	4	17	21	16	3	5
23	48	73	98	1	2	3	4	2	2	6	7	7	8	3	4	9	3	6	2	11	11	16	2	8	11	23	6	22
24	49	74	99	1	1	2	1	4	6	3	5	5	3	1	5	13	1	14	8	14	6	15	9	14	3	6	9	17
25	50	75	100	1	1	2	3	3	2	4	6	4	7	5	3	12	12	12	4	6	2	17	11	2	12	4	8	10



SASAS QUESTIONNAIRE 3: 2017

Number of persons in this household

Number of persons 16 years and older in this household

Household schedule	Write in from oldest (top) to youngest (bottom)	Person number	How old is [name]? (completed years; less than 1 year =0)	Is [name] a male or female? M=1 F=2	What population group does [name] belong to?	What is [name]'s relationship to the respondent
Please list all persons in the household who eat from the same cooking pot and who were resident 15 out of the past 30 days Note: Circle the number next to the name of the household head.		01				
		02				
		03				
		04				
		05				
		06				
		07				
		08				
		09				
		10				
		11				
		12				
		13				
		14				
		15				
		16				
		17				
		18				
		19				
		20				
		21				
		22				
		23				
		24				
		25				

Population Group
1 = Black African
2 = Coloured
3 = Indian or Asian
4 = White
5 = Other (<i>specify</i>)

Relationship to respondent codes
1 = Respondent
2 = Wife or husband or partner
3 = Son/daughter/stepchild/adopted child
4 = Father/mother/ stepfather/stepmother
5 = Brother/sister/stepbrother/stepsister
6 = Grandchild/great grandchild
7 = Grandparent/great grandparent
8 = Mother- or father-in-law
9 = Son- or daughter-in-law
10 = Brother- or sister-in-law
11 = Other relation (e.g. aunt/uncle)
12 = Non-relation



TOURISM AND LEISURE MODULE

I am now going to ask you questions about the kind of things that you like to do to relax and when you go on holiday.

1. ¹³ Which of the following tourist activities are you very interested in doing?

[Showcard 22]

INTERVIEWER: MULTIPLE RESPONSES ALLOWED. CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY

a.	Going to the beach	01
b.	Visiting a museum, art gallery or historical building	02
c.	Visiting a nature reserve	03
d.	Visiting Robben Island	04
e.	Attending religious events	05
f.	Visiting an African cultural village	06
g.	Adventure activities e.g. canoeing, mountaineering, 4x4, etc.	07
h.	Shopping	08
i.	Sports events	09
j.	Visiting a rural area	10
k.	Visiting friends or family	11
l.	Other, SPECIFY	12
m.	(None of the above)	13
n.	(Don't know)	88

2. During the last year, how many business trips did you take where you spent at least one night away from home? (This can be for domestic or international business)

TE IN NUMBER OF TRIPS: (Don't know) = 88

3. During the last year, how many holiday trips did you take within South Africa?

WRITE IN NUMBER OF TRIPS: If answer is '0': → Ask Q.4
If answer is '1' or more: → Go to Q.5.
(Don't know) = 88

¹³ Note the question numbers in the questionnaire do not denote the actual numbers in the original questionnaire



4. What is the main reason why you did not take a holiday trip inside South Africa in the last year? [*Showcard SC 23*]

Financial reasons (Not enough money)	01	→ Complete question and Go to Q.7
Not enough time to travel	02	
Too busy at work/school	03	
No family/friends to visit somewhere else	04	
Too much hassle to travel	05	
Sick	06	
Disabled	07	
Too old to travel	08	
Worried about safety/security/crime	09	
Have young children	10	
I no longer wish to travel	11	
No interest/nothing to see or do that appeals to me	12	
Taking care of sick/elderly relative	13	
Do not like sleeping in other places	14	
No particular reason	15	
Other, SPECIFY	16	
(Do not know)	88	

I would now like you to think of your most recent holiday trip within South Africa in the last year.

5. What was the main type of accommodation used on this holiday trip?

Hotel	01
Guest House/Guest Farm	02
Bed and Breakfast	03
Lodge	04
Hostel/Backpackers	05
Self-catering establishment	06
Stayed with friends and relatives	07
Holiday Home/Second Home	08
Campsite	09
Caravan Park	10
Other, SPECIFY.....	11
(Don't know)	88

6. Which of the following activities did you do while on this holiday trip? [*Showcard SC 24*]

INTERVIEWER: MULTIPLE RESPONSES ALLOWED. CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY.

a.	Go to the beach	01
b.	Visit a museum, art gallery or historical building	02
c.	Explore nature and wildlife	03
d.	Attend a religious event	04
e.	Visit an African cultural village	05
f.	Adventure activities e.g. canoeing, hiking, mountaineering, 4x4, etc.	06
g.	Sports events	07
h.	Visit a rural area	08
i.	Visit friends or family	09
j.	Other, specify...	10
k.	(None of the above)	11
l.	(Don't know)	88



I would now like you to think of holidays in general, not just in the last year.

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements? [*Showcard SC 1*]

	Strongly agree	Agree	No opinion	Dis-agree	Strongly disagree	(Don't know)
7. Most of my holidays are spent at the homes of family members or friends?	1	2	3	4	5	8
8. I like spending holidays with other members of my family	1	2	3	4	5	8
9. I would rather spend holidays with friends than family	1	2	3	4	5	8
10. The best sort of holiday is to be away from large and busy cities	1	2	3	4	5	8
11. I would rather go to the Kruger Park than the beach	1	2	3	4	5	8
12. Spending more than one day looking at wild animals is boring	1	2	3	4	5	8
13. I enjoy hiking in the mountains	1	2	3	4	5	8
14. I would rather stay at home than go camping (tent)	1	2	3	4	5	8
15. The best place for a holiday is at the beach	1	2	3	4	5	8
16. I would love to spend time in the desert	1	2	3	4	5	8
17. I do not like spending holidays away from home	1	2	3	4	5	8
18. My favourite holiday destination is Kruger Park	1	2	3	4	5	8
19. My favourite holiday destination is Cape Town	1	2	3	4	5	8
20. Foreign destinations are better than local ones	1	2	3	4	5	8
21. My favourite holiday involves exploring new places and cultures	1	2	3	4	5	8
22. I would rather camp (tent) than pay very high prices for accommodation	1	2	3	4	5	8
23. I prefer self-catering holidays to any other	1	2	3	4	5	8



	Strongly agree	Agree	No opinion	Dis-agree	Strongly disagree	(Don't know)
24. I am prepared to pay high prices for good holiday accommodation	1	2	3	4	5	8
25. Good service is more important than cost when choosing a hotel	1	2	3	4	5	8
26. Travelling is for the rich only	1	2	3	4	5	8
27. I enjoy travelling by road to get to my holiday destination	1	2	3	4	5	8
28. The best way to travel distances over 300 km is by air	1	2	3	4	5	8
29. I participate in adventure sport	1	2	3	4	5	8
30. I enjoy going to art galleries	1	2	3	4	5	8
31. I do not like to go to places where other races dominate	1	2	3	4	5	8
32. People should spend less time in front of the television	1	2	3	4	5	8
33. Traditional African food should be available in hotels and other accommodation	1	2	3	4	5	8

34. How important do you think it is to visit a cultural or heritage attraction during holidays? Please answer on a scale from 0 to 10 where 0 is “Not at all important” and 10 is “extremely important”. [Showcard SC 25]

Not at all important	Extremely important	(Don't know)
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08	09 10	88

RESPONDENT CHARACTERISTICS

35. Sex of respondent [copy from contact sheet]

Male	1
Female	2

36. Race of respondent [copy from contact sheet]

Black African	1
Coloured	2
Indian/Asian	3
White	4
Other	5



37. Age of respondent in completed years [copy from contact sheet]

Years
(Don't know) = 998

38. Do you have a spouse/partner and if yes, do you share the same household?

Yes, I have a spouse/partner and we live in the same household	1
Yes, I have a spouse/partner but we don't live in the same household	2
No spouse/partner	3
(Refused)	9

39. What is your current marital status?

Married	1
Civil partnership	2
Separated from spouse/civil partner	3
Divorced from spouse/ legally separated from my civil partner	4
Widowed/civil partner died	5
Never married/never in civil partnership	6
(Refused to answer)	7
(Don't know)	8

40. What is the highest level of education that you have ever completed?

No schooling	00	NTC 2/ N2/ NC (V) Level 3	15
Grade R/ Grade 0	01	NTC 3/ N3/NC (V) Level 4	16
Grade 1/ Sub A/Class 1	02	N4/NTC 4	17
Grade 2 / Sub B/Class 2	03	N5/NTC 5	18
Grade 3/Standard 1/ ABET 1 (Kha Ri Gude, Sanli)	04	N6/NTC 6	19
Grade 4/ Standard 2	05	Diploma	20
Grade 5/ Standard 3/ ABET 2	06	Advanced diploma (AD)	21
Grade 6/Standard 4	07	Bachelor degree	22
Grade 7/Standard 5/ ABET 3	08	Post graduate diploma (PGD)	23
Grade 8/Standard 6/Form 1	09	Honours degree	24
Grade 9/Standard 7/Form 2/ ABET 4	10	Master degree	25
	11	Doctorate degree, Laureatus in Technology	26
Grade 10/ Standard 8/ Form 3	12	Other (specify)	27
Grade 11/ Standard 9/ Form 4	13	(Do not know)	88
Grade 12/Standard 10/Form 5/Matric	14		
NTC 1/ N1/NC (V) Level 2			

41. How many years of full-time education have you completed?

INTERVIEWER: INCLUDE ALL PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLING, UNIVERSITY AND OTHER POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION, AND FULL-TIME VOCATIONAL TRAINING, BUT DO NOT INCLUDE REPEATED YEARS. IF RESPONDENT IS CURRENTLY IN EDUCATION, COUNT THE NUMBER OF YEARS COMPLETED SO FAR.

years
(No formal schooling) = 00
(Don't know) = 98



42. What language do you speak mostly at home?

Sesotho	01
Setswana	02
Sepedi	03
Siswati	04
IsiNdebele	05
IsiXhosa	06
IsiZulu	07
Xitsonga	08
Tshivenda/Lemba	09
Afrikaans	10
English	11
Other African language	12
European language	13
Indian language	14
Other (specify)	15

43. How many languages do you speak well enough to hold a conversation in, including the language(s) you speak at home?

One language	1
Two languages	2
Three languages	3
Four or more languages	4

44. When you were 15 years old, for whom did your father work? If your father did not have a paid job at the time, please give information about his last job before that time.

Employee of a private company or business	1
Government (national, provincial or local)	2
Self-employed	3
Other (please specify)	4
(Can't choose)	8

45. When you were 15 years old, what kind of work did your father do; his main occupation? Describe fully, (no initials or abbreviations). If your father did not have a paid job at the time, please give information about his last job before that time

46. Are you currently working for pay, did you work for pay in the past, or have you never been in paid work?

I am currently in paid work	01
I am currently not in paid work but I had paid work in the past	02
Never had paid work	03
No answer	08

→ Ask Q.47
→ Skip to Q.48.



47. How many hours, on average, do you usually work for pay in a normal week, including overtime?

Hours

96 hours or more	96
(Do not know)	98

48. Are/were you an employee, self-employed or working for your own family's business? (Refer to your main job)

An employee	1	→ Skip to Q.50
Self-employed without employees	2	→ Skip to Q.50
Self-employed with employees	3	→ Ask Q.49
Working for your own family's business	4	→ Ask Q.50
(No answer)	9	
NAP (Never had work)	0	

49. How many employees do/did you have, not including yourself?

employees

9995 employees or more	9995
(No answer)	9999
(Not applicable)	0000

50. Do/did you supervise other employees?

INTERVIEWER: IF NOT CURRENTLY EMPLOYED, ASK FOR MOST RECENT JOB

Yes	1	→ Skip to Q.52
No	2	
(Don't know)	8	
(No answer)	9	
(Not applicable - never had a job)	0	

51. How many other employees do/did you supervise?

employees

9995 employees or more	9995
(No answer)	9999
(Not applicable)	0000

52. Do/did you work for a for profit organisation or for a non-profit organisation?

INTERVIEWER: CIRCLE ONE RESPONSE. IF NO CURRENT JOB ASK FOR MOST RECENT JOB

For-profit organisation	1
Non-profit organisation	2
(Don't know)	8
(No answer)	9
(Not applicable – never had a job)	0



53. Do you consider yourself as belonging to any religion?

Yes	1
No	2

→ Skip to Q.55

54. If answer is yes, which one? Please specify denomination

Christian (without specification)	01	Seventh Day Adventist	17
African Evangelical Church	02	St John's Apostolic	18
Anglican	03	United Congregation Church	19
Assemblies of God	04	Universal Church of God	20
Apostle Twelve	05	Nazareth	21
Baptist	06	Zionist Christian Church	22
Dutch Reformed	07	Other Christian	23
Full Gospel Church of God	08	Islam / Muslim	24
Faith Mission	09	Judaism / Jewish	25
Church of God and Saints of Christ	10	Hinduism / Hindu	26
Jehovah's Witness	11	Buddhism / Buddhist	27
Lutheran	12	Other (specify)	28
Methodist	13	(Refused)	97
Pentecostal Holiness Church	14	(Do not know)	98
Roman Catholic	15	(Not answered)	99

55. Apart from special occasions such as weddings, funerals and baptisms, how often do you attend religious services or meetings?

Several times a week or more often	01
Once a week	02
2 or 3 times a month	03
Once a month	04
Several times a year	05
Once a year	06
Less frequently than once a year	07
Never	08
(Refused)	97
(Do not know)	98
(No answer)	99

56. Regardless of whether you belong to a particular religion, how religious would you say you are? [Showcard SC 26]

Not at all religious											Very religious	(Do not know)
	00	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09		



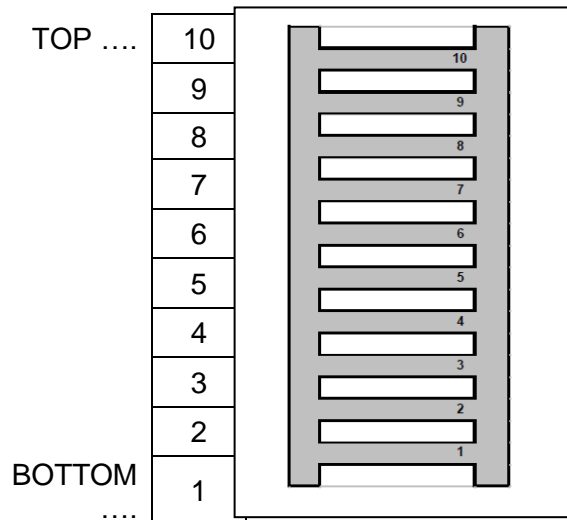
57. Would you say that you and your family are...

Wealthy	1
Very comfortable	2
Reasonably comfortable	3
Just getting along	4
Poor	5
Very poor	6

58. Most people see themselves as belonging to a particular class. Please tell me which social class you would say you belong to?

Lower class	1
Working class	2
Lower middle class	3
Middle class	4
Upper-middle class	5
Upper class	6
(Don't know)	

59. In our society, there are groups which tend to be towards the top and groups which tend to be towards the bottom. Below is a scale that runs from the top to the bottom. Where would you put yourself on this scale? [Showcard SC 27]



60. Taking all things together in your life, how happy would you say you are? [Showcard SC 28]

Extremely unhappy										Extremely happy										(Ref usal)	(Do not know)	
00	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	77	88



HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

61. Do you have access to the Internet?

INTERVIEWER: MULTIPLE RESPONSES ALLOWED. CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY.

a.	Yes, at home	1
b.	Yes, at work	2
c.	Yes, at an educational institution	3
d.	Yes, at an internet café	4
e.	Yes, at a community centre	5
f.	Yes, through a cellphone	6
g.	Yes, through a wifi hotspot	7
h.	Yes, other (SPECIFY)	8
i.	None	9

PERSONAL AND HOUSEHOLD INCOME

62. Please consider the income of all household members and any income which may be received by the household as a whole. What is the main source of income in your household?

Salaries and/or wages	1
Remittances	2
Pensions and/or grants	3
Sale of farm products and services	4
Other non-farm income	5
No income	6
(Refused to answer)	7
(Don't know)	8



63. Please give me the letter that best describes the **TOTAL MONTHLY HOUSEHOLD INCOME** of all the people in your household before tax and other deductions. Please include all sources of income i.e. salaries, pensions, income from investment, etc. [Showcard SC 29]
64. Please give me the letter that best describes your **PERSONAL TOTAL MONTHLY INCOME** before tax and other deductions. Please include all sources of income i.e. salaries, pensions, income from investment, etc. [Showcard SC 29]

		Household	Personal
	No income	01	01
K	R1 – R500	02	02
L	R501 –R750	03	03
M	R751 – R1 000	04	04
N	R1 001-R1 500	05	05
O	R1 501 – R2 000	06	06
P	R2 001 – R3 000	07	07
Q	R3 001 – R5 000	08	08
R	R5 001 – R7 500	09	09
S	R7 501 – R10 000	10	10
T	R10 001 – R15 000	11	11
U	R15 001 – R20 000	12	12
V	R20 001 – R30 000	13	13
W	R30 001 – R50 000	14	14
X	R 50 001 +	15	15
	(Refuse to answer)	97	97
	(Uncertain/Don't know)	98	98

65. What monthly income level do you consider to be minimal for your household, i.e. your household could not make ends meet with less?

R _____

(Don't know = 98)

66. Is the total monthly income of your household higher, lower or more or less the same as this figure?

Much higher	1
Higher	2
More or less the same	3
Lower	4
Much lower	5
(Don't know)	8

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION



SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIAL ATTITUDES SURVEY
Questionnaire 2: February 2020

RESPONDENTS AGED 16 YEARS +

Good (morning/afternoon/evening), I'm _____ and we are conducting a survey for the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). The HSRC regularly conducts surveys of opinion amongst the South African population. Topics include a wide range of social matters such as communications, politics, education, unemployment, the problems of the aged and inter-group relations. As a follow-up to this earlier work, we would like to ask you questions on a variety of subjects that are of national importance. To obtain reliable, scientific information we request that you answer the questions that follow as honestly as possible. Your opinion is important in this research. The area in which you live and you yourself have been selected randomly for the purpose of this survey. The fact that you have been chosen is thus quite coincidental. The information you give to us will be kept confidential. You and your household members will not be identified by name or address in any of the reports we plan to write.

PARTICULARS OF VISITS

	DAY MONTH		TIME STARTED		TIME COMPLETED		**RESPONSE
			HR	MIN	HR	MIN	
First visit	/	/ 2020					
Second visit	/	/ 2020					
Third visit	/	/ 2020					

****RESPONSE CODES**

Completed questionnaire	= 01
Partially completed questionnaire (specify reason)	= 02
Revisit	
Appointment made	= 03
Selected respondent not at home	= 04
No one home	= 05
Do not qualify	
Vacant house/flat/stand/not a house or flat/demolished	= 06
No person qualifies according to the survey specifications	= 07
Respondent cannot communicate with interviewer because of language	= 08
Respondent is physically/mentally not fit to be interviewed	= 09
Refusals	
Contact person refused	= 10
Interview refused by selected respondent	= 11
Interview refused by parent	= 12
Interview refused by other household member	= 13
OFFICE USE	= 14

STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL



Name of Interviewer

Number of interviewer

--	--	--

Checked by

--

Signature of supervisor _____

FIELDWORK CONTROL

CONTROL	YES	NO	REMARKS
Personal	1	2	
Telephonic	1	2	
Name	SIGNATURE		
.....	DATE/...../.....2006		

RESPONDENT SELECTION PROCEDURE

Number of households at visiting point

--	--

Number of persons 16 years and older at visiting point

--	--

Please list all persons at the visiting point who are 16 years and older and were resident 15 out of the past 30 days. Once completed, use the Kish grid on next page to determine which person is to be interviewed.

Names of Persons Aged 16 and Older	
	01
	02
	03
	04
	05
	06
	07
	08
	09
	10
	11
	12
	13
	14
	15
	16
	17
	18
	19
	20
	21
	22
	23
	24
	25

NAME OF RESPONDENT:
ADDRESS OF RESPONDENT:
TEL NO.:



GRID TO SELECT RESPONDENT

NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRE	NUMBER OF PERSONS FROM WHICH RESPONDENT MUST BE DRAWN																											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25			
1	26	51	76	1	1	1	3	2	4	1	3	5	8	6	5	12	10	1	6	8	7	19	19	13	21	13	24	25
2	27	52	77	1	2	3	4	3	1	2	2	3	4	8	3	7	2	5	14	4	15	4	8	6	16	14	22	19
3	28	53	78	1	1	2	1	4	2	7	6	9	3	5	11	2	1	3	11	7	10	16	16	10	5	2	2	3
4	29	54	79	1	2	3	2	1	3	5	8	6	2	4	2	4	8	11	10	16	6	9	10	15	11	12	11	18
5	30	55	80	1	1	1	4	5	6	3	5	7	5	9	8	14	3	2	13	5	18	1	4	1	20	11	5	24
6	31	56	81	1	2	2	2	3	5	7	7	8	7	1	4	9	14	8	2	17	17	14	12	14	22	10	3	14
7	32	57	82	1	2	1	1	4	1	4	1	4	6	3	6	5	7	13	9	2	3	13	14	8	2	7	20	4
8	33	58	83	1	1	2	3	2	5	1	4	2	1	7	10	6	5	4	15	10	5	2	13	4	17	5	17	8
9	34	59	84	1	1	3	2	5	6	2	2	1	9	10	1	10	4	6	6	1	9	10	1	5	6	9	1	12
10	35	60	85	1	2	2	4	1	3	3	6	9	10	11	12	3	9	15	7	8	11	6	3	9	4	3	10	1
11	36	61	86	1	1	1	3	1	4	5	3	1	6	2	9	13	11	14	4	11	4	15	15	17	1	1	23	2
12	37	62	87	1	2	3	1	3	2	7	5	6	5	7	7	8	6	10	3	3	1	12	20	7	13	22	12	16
13	38	63	88	1	1	2	1	5	3	6	4	3	4	6	2	11	13	12	1	15	8	7	2	12	15	21	13	7
14	39	64	89	1	2	3	2	4	1	4	7	8	2	5	6	11	12	9	16	13	16	11	18	18	14	16	18	23
15	40	65	90	1	2	1	4	2	4	3	8	7	7	11	1	3	5	7	12	14	13	8	17	20	19	20	19	11
16	41	66	91	1	1	3	3	1	6	5	1	5	9	10	3	2	11	13	8	12	12	5	6	21	8	8	4	15
17	42	67	92	1	1	2	2	3	4	2	6	2	3	2	12	5	2	10	13	5	8	18	9	16	10	17	16	20
18	43	68	93	1	2	1	4	2	6	4	1	4	8	9	10	7	9	3	12	12	9	7	20	19	9	19	21	13
19	44	69	94	1	2	2	1	3	5	2	8	9	10	4	9	8	13	1	1	14	10	19	10	11	18	15	7	6
20	45	70	95	1	1	3	2	5	4	1	3	8	1	3	8	6	6	9	5	7	13	4	15	1	7	22	15	21
21	46	71	96	1	1	1	2	5	1	7	2	3	2	1	11	4	7	5	3	2	1	3	12	18	5	19	14	9
22	47	72	97	1	2	1	3	1	3	2	6	2	1	8	7	1	4	2	11	8	2	17	4	17	21	16	3	5
23	48	73	98	1	2	3	4	2	2	6	7	7	8	3	4	9	3	6	2	11	11	16	2	8	11	23	6	22
24	49	74	99	1	1	2	1	4	6	3	5	5	3	1	5	13	1	14	8	14	6	15	9	14	3	6	9	17
25	50	75	100	1	1	2	3	3	2	4	6	4	7	5	3	12	12	12	4	6	2	17	11	2	12	4	8	10



SASAS QUESTIONNAIRE 2: 2020

Number of persons in this household

Number of persons 16 years and older in this household

Household schedule	Write in from oldest (top) to youngest (bottom)	Person number	How old is [name]? (completed years; less than 1 year =0)	Is [name] a male or female? M=1 F=2	What population group does [name] belong to?	What is [name]'s relationship to the respondent
<i>Please list all persons in the household who eat from the same cooking pot and who were resident 15 out of the past 30 days</i>		01				
		02				
		03				
		04				
		05				
		06				
		07				
		08				
		09				
		10				
		11				
		12				
		13				
		14				
		15				
		16				
		17				
		18				
		19				
		20				
		21				
		22				
		23				
		24				
		25				

Note: Circle the number next to the name of the household head.

Population Group
1 = Black African
2 = Coloured
3 = Indian or Asian
4 = White
5 = Other (<i>specify</i>)

Relationship to respondent codes
1 = Respondent
2 = Wife or husband or partner
3 = Son/daughter/stepchild/adopted child
4 = Father/mother/ step father/step mother
5 = Brother/sister/step brother/step sister
6 = Grandchild/great grandchild
7 = Grandparent/great grandparent
8 = Mother- or father-in-law
9 = Son- or daughter-in-law
10 = Brother- or sister-in-law
11 = Other relation (e.g. aunt/uncle)
12 = Non-relation



TRAVEL AND TOURISM

Now I would like to ask you some questions about travel and tourism.

How interested are you in the following activities?

	Very interested	Fairly Interested	Not interested	(Do not know)
1. ¹⁴ Going to the beach	1	2	3	8
2. Visiting a museum, art gallery, historical building	1	2	3	8
3. Being in nature	1	2	3	8
4. Visiting a nature reserve	1	2	3	8
5. Visiting heritage sights , i.e. Robben Island	1	2	3	8
6. Religious gatherings	1	2	3	8
7. Visiting a cultural village	1	2	3	8
8. Adventure activities i.e. canoeing, 4x4, etc.	1	2	3	8
9. Shopping	1	2	3	8
10. Sports events	1	2	3	8
11. Visiting a rural area	1	2	3	8
12. Visiting friends or family	1	2	3	8
13. Travelling abroad on holiday	1	2	3	8

14. During the last year, how many holiday trips did you take within South Africa?

WRITE IN NUMBER OF TRIPS:

If answer is '0': → Ask Q.15

If answer is '1' or more: → Go to Q.16

(Don't know) = 88

15. What are the main reasons why you did not take a holiday trip inside South Africa in the last year?

INTERVIEWER: PLEASE WRITE DOWN UP TO A MAXIMUM OF THREE ANSWERS. IF THE RESPONDENT MENTIONS MORE THAN THREE ASK THEM TO NARROW IT DOWN TO THE TOP THREE. PLEASE WRITE DOWN THE ANSWER IN ENGLISH, BUT KEEPING AS CLOSE AS POSSIBLE TO THE DIRECT TRANSLATION. PROBE: ANYTHING ELSE?

There are many reasons why people travel on holiday.

16. Are any of the following important reasons why you go on holiday? [*Showcard 21*]

INTERVIEWER: MULTIPLE RESPONSES ALLOWED

¹⁴ Note the question numbers in the questionnaire do not denote the actual numbers in the original questionnaire



17. Which of these are the most important reason why you go on holiday? [*Showcard 21*]

	Reasons for holiday (MULTIPLE RESPONSE)	Main reason (ONE OPTION ONLY)
a. To have fun	1	1
b. To rest and relax	2	2
c. To do things with my companion, family, friends	3	3
d. (None of the above)	4	4

18. And how about the following? Are any of these important reasons why you go on holiday? [*Showcard 22*]

INTERVIEWER: MULTIPLE RESPONSES ALLOWED

19. Which of these are the most important reason why you go on holiday? [*Showcard 22*]

	Reasons for holiday (MULTIPLE RESPONSE)	Main reason (ONE OPTION ONLY)
a. To view the scenery and be close to nature	1	1
b. To learn new things and discover new cultures	2	2
c. To gaining a new perspective on life	3	3
d. To develop my personal interests	4	4
e. (None of the above)	5	5

20. And finally, are any of the following important reasons why you go on holiday? [*Showcard 23*]

INTERVIEWER: MULTIPLE RESPONSES ALLOWED

21. Which of these are the most important reason why you go on holiday? [*Showcard 23*]

	Reasons for holiday (MULTIPLE RESPONSE)	Main reason (ONE OPTION ONLY)
a. To be independent and do things my own way	1	1
b. To explore the unknown	2	2
c. To experience peace and calm	3	3
d. To think about good times I have had in the past	4	4
e. To have romantic relationships	5	5
f. To share skill and knowledge with others	6	6
g. (None of the above)	7	7

RESPONDENT CHARACTERISTICS

22. Sex of respondent [copy from contact sheet]

Male	1
Female	2



23. Race of respondent [copy from contact sheet]

Black African	1
Coloured	2
Indian/Asian	3
White	4
Other	5

24. Age of respondent in completed years [copy from contact sheet]

			Years
--	--	--	-------

(Don't know) = 998

25. What is your current marital status?

Married	1
Separated from spouse / partner	2
Divorced	3
Widowed	4
Never married but engaged	5
Never married and not engaged	6
(Refused to answer)	7
(Do not know)	8

26. Do you have a spouse/partner and if yes, do you share the same household?

Yes, I have a spouse/partner and we live in the same household	1
Yes, I have a spouse/partner but we don't live in the same household	2
No spouse/partner	3
(Refused)	9

27. What is the highest level of education that you have ever completed?

No schooling	00	NTC 2/ N2/ NC (V) Level 3	15
Grade R/ Grade 0	01	NTC 3/ N3/NC (V) Level 4	16
Grade 1/ Sub A/Class 1	02	N4/NTC 4	17
Grade 2 / Sub B/Class 2	03	N5/NTC 5	18
Grade 3/Standard 1/ ABET 1 (Kha Ri Gude, Sanli)	04	N6/NTC 6	19
Grade 4/ Standard 2	05	Diploma	20
Grade 5/ Standard 3/ ABET 2	06	Advanced diploma (AD)	21
Grade 6/Standard 4	07	Bachelor degree	22
Grade 7/Standard 5/ ABET 3	08	Post graduate diploma (PGD)	23
Grade 8/Standard 6/Form 1	09	Honours degree	24
Grade 9/Standard 7/Form 2/ ABET 4	10	Master degree	25
Grade 10/ Standard 8/ Form 3	11	Doctorate degree, Laureatus in Technology	26
Grade 11/ Standard 9/ Form 4	12	Other (specify)	27
Grade 12/Standard 10/Form 5/Matric	13	(Do not know)	88
NTC 1/ N1/NC (V) Level 2	14		



28. How many years of full-time education have you completed?

INTERVIEWER: INCLUDE ALL PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLING, UNIVERSITY AND OTHER POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION, AND FULL-TIME VOCATIONAL TRAINING, BUT DO NOT INCLUDE REPEATED YEARS. IF RESPONDENT IS CURRENTLY IN EDUCATION, COUNT THE NUMBER OF YEARS COMPLETED SO FAR.

--	--

years

(No formal schooling) = 00

(Don't know) = 98

(No answer) = 99

29. What language do you speak mostly at home?

Sesotho	01
Setswana	02
Sepedi	03
Siswati	04
IsiNdebele	05
IsiXhosa	06
IsiZulu	07
Xitsonga	08
Tshivenda/Lemba	09
Afrikaans	10
English	11
Other African language	12
European language	13
Indian language	14
Other (specify)	15

30. Are you currently working for pay, did you work for pay in the past, or have you never been in paid work?

I am currently in paid work	01
I am currently not in paid work but I had paid work in the past	02
I never had paid work	03
No answer	08

→ Skip to Q.31

31. Are/were you an employee, self-employed or working for your own family's business? (Refer to your main job)

An employee	1
Self-employed without employees	2
Self-employed with employees	3
Working for your own family's business	4
(No answer)	9
NAP (Never had work)	0



32. What is your current employment status? (Which of the following best describes your present work situation?)

Employed full-time	01
Employed part-time	02
Employed less than part-time (casual work/piecework)	03
Unemployed, not looking for work	04
Unemployed, looking for work	05
Student/learner	06
Apprentice or trainee	07
Permanently sick or disabled	08
Pensioner (aged/retired)	09
Doing housework, looking after the home, children or other persons	11
Other (specify)	12

33. Do you consider yourself as belonging to any religion?

Yes	1
No	2

→ Skip to Q.34

34. If answer is yes, which one? Please specify denomination

Christian (without specification)	01	Seventh Day Adventist	17
African Evangelical Church	02	St John's Apostolic	18
Anglican	03	United Congregation Church	19
Assemblies of God	04	Universal Church of God	20
Apostle Twelve	05	Nazareth	21
Baptist	06	Zionist Christian Church	22
Dutch Reformed	07	Other Christian	23
Full Gospel Church of God	08	Islam / Muslim	24
Faith Mission	09	Judaism / Jewish	25
Church of God and Saints of Christ	10	Hinduism / Hindu	26
Jehovah's Witness	11	Buddhism / Buddhist	27
Lutheran	12	Other (specify)	28
Methodist	13	(Refused)	97
Pentecostal Holiness Church	14	(Do not know)	98
Roman Catholic	15	(Not answered)	99

35. Regardless of whether you belong to a particular religion, how religious would you say you are? [Showcard 11]

Not at all religious										Very religious		(Do not know)
00	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	88	



36. Apart from special occasions such as weddings, funerals and baptisms, how often do you attend services or meetings connected with your religion?

Several times a week or more often	01
Once a week	02
2 or 3 times a month	03
Once a month	04
Several times a year	05
Once a year	06
Less frequently than once a year	07
Never	08
(Refused)	77
(Don't know)	88

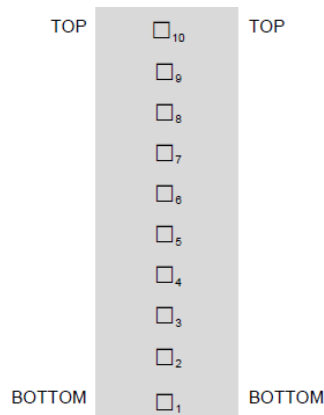
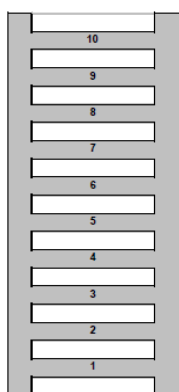
37. Would you say that you and your family are...

Wealthy	1
Very comfortable	2
Reasonably comfortable	3
Just getting along	4
Poor	5
Very poor	6

38. People sometimes describe themselves as belonging to the working class, the middle class, or the upper or lower class. Would you describe yourself as ...?

Lower class	1
Working class	2
Middle class	3
Upper middle class	4
Upper class	5
(Don't know)	8

39. In our society there are groups which tend to be towards the top and groups which tend to be towards the bottom. Below is a scale which runs from top to bottom. Where would you put yourself now on this scale? [*Showcard 12*]





PERSONAL AND HOUSEHOLD INCOME

40. Please consider the income of all household members and any income which may be received by the household as a whole. What is the main source of income in your household?

Salaries and/or wages	1
Remittances	2
Pensions and/or grants	3
Sale of farm products and services	4
Other non-farm income	5
No income	6
(Refused to answer)	7
(Don't know)	8

SHOWCARD G2

41. Please give me the letter that best describes the **TOTAL MONTHLY HOUSEHOLD INCOME** of all the people in your household before tax and other deductions. Please include all sources of income i.e. salaries, pensions, income from investment, etc.

42. Please give me the letter that best describes your **PERSONAL TOTAL MONTHLY INCOME** before tax and other deductions. Please include all sources of income i.e. salaries, pensions, income from investment, etc.

		40.Household	41.Personal
	No income	01	01
K	R1 – R500	02	02
L	R501 –R750	03	03
M	R751 – R1 000	04	04
N	R1 001-R1 500	05	05
O	R1 501 – R2 000	06	06
P	R2 001 – R3 000	07	07
Q	R3 001 – R5 000	08	08
R	R5 001 – R7 500	09	09
S	R7 501 – R10 000	10	10
T	R10 001 – R15 000	11	11
U	R15 001 – R20 000	12	12
V	R20 001 – R30 000	13	13
W	R30 001 – R50 000	14	14
X	R 50 001 +	15	15
	(Refuse to answer)	97	97
	(Uncertain/Don't know)	98	98

43. What monthly income level do you consider to be minimal for your household, i.e. your household could not make ends meet with less?

Amount (In Rands)

R

(Don't know=98)

44. Is the total monthly income of your household higher, lower or more or less the same as this figure?

Much higher	1
Higher	2
More or less the same	3
Lower	4
Much lower	5
(Don't know)	8

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION



APPENDIX B: Research ethics approval certificate



RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

Approval Certificate

27 May 2020

Mrs J Struwig
Department: Marketing Management

Dear Mrs J Struwig

The application for ethical clearance for the research project described below served before this committee on:...

Protocol No:	EMS071/20
Principal researcher:	Mrs J Struwig
Research title:	Modelling tourists' destination and activity preferences in an emerging market context
Student/Staff No:	83002597
Degree:	Doctoral
Supervisor/Promoter:	Dr EA du Preez
Department:	Marketing Management

The decision by the committee is reflected below:

Decision:	Approved
Period of approval:	2020-06-01 - 2021-08-31

The approval is subject to the researcher abiding by the principles and parameters set out in the application and research proposal in the actual execution of the research. The approval does not imply that the researcher is relieved of any accountability in terms of the Codes of Research Ethics of the University of Pretoria if action is taken beyond the approved proposal. If during the course of the research it becomes apparent that the nature and/or extent of the research deviates significantly from the original proposal, a new application for ethics clearance must be submitted for review.

We wish you success with the project.

Sincerely

pp PROF. JA NEL
CHAIR: COMMITTEE FOR RESEARCH ETHICS