

# **VISA REQUIREMENTS AND DESTINATION CHOICE: INTEGRATING THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR AND THE STIMULUS-ORGANISM-RESPONSE MODEL**

By

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## ABSTRACT

When tourists select an international destination to visit, the ease of obtaining a visa is seen as an important consideration. However, when the visa application process is perceived as burdensome and emotionally stressful, it can discourage tourists from participating in international tourism. Research to date has paid little attention to the relationship between visa requirements and destination choice. Another aspect that is overlooked in the literature is the influence of the visa application process on a tourist's emotions, as well as whether the emotional responses that were triggered as a result of the visa application process influence the tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice.

Using the theory of planned behaviour and the stimulus-organism-response model, the study aimed to understand the relationships between visa requirements expectations, the emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, and a tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice. A mixed-methods sequential exploratory design was used to collect data from South Africans by means of focus groups and online self-administered questionnaires. The findings from the focus groups were used to develop and confirm some of the scales in the online questionnaire. Two additional visa requirements, not mentioned in the literature were identified. Nineteen participants took part in the focus groups, and 444 questionnaires were used in the quantitative data analysis. Structural equation modelling was used as the quantitative data analysis technique, revealing a number of significant relationships.

The results differed slightly between those respondents who had applied for visas before and those who had not. For the group that had applied for visas before, certain visa requirements expectations played a moderating role in the relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination. For the group that had not applied for a visa before, emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process played a more pronounced role than for the group that had applied for a visa before. More specifically, there was a relationship between a respondent's level of excitement and enthusiasm that was triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination of choice. For this group, emotions also

played a mediating role between the visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination of choice.

This study makes a valuable contribution by integrating the TPB and the S-O-R model to understand the influence of visa requirements on destination choice. The results should be useful in convincing policymakers to formulate less restrictive visa policies that would encourage tourists to visit their respective countries.

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## GLOSSARY

**Accessibility:** The ease with which a tourist can reach the desired destination of choice (Dwyer & Kim, 2003).

**Attitude toward the behaviour:** The tourist's own appraisal of performing a particular behaviour, either negatively or positively (Ajzen, 1991; Han, Lee & Lee, 2011).

**Behavioural intention:** The attestation of how vigorously tourists "...are willing to try, or how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform the behaviour" (Ajzen, 1991:181).

**Consular officials:** Government representatives of the destination country working at an embassy, high commissions, or consulate (EHC) based in a host country's territory, normally with the main mandate of upholding their country's immigration laws (Seminara, 2008).

**Destination choice:** "...a process of choosing one destination among a number of alternatives for the purpose of fulfilling the travel-related needs at hand" (Hwang, Gretzel, Xiang & Fesenmaier, 2006:17).

**Destination:** "A physical space in which a visitor spends at least one overnight. It includes tourism products such as support services and attractions, and tourism resources within one day's return travel time. It has physical and administrative boundaries defining its management, images and perceptions defining its market competitiveness. Local tourism destinations incorporate various stakeholders often including a host community, and can nest and network to form larger destinations" (UNWTO, 2007:1).

**Diplomatic missions:** Government offices of destination countries in another country with the main purpose of maintaining bilateral relations and executing public administration such as issuing visas (Karaman, 2016).

**Emotion:** “psycho-physiological, they can affect our physical state but are also experienced as mental states, states that display immediacy and intensity” (Malone, McCabe & Smith, 2014:242).

**Frontline officials:** Visa facilitation centre (VFC) employees based in a host country’s territory, with a strictly administrative and non-judgemental visa function (Rietveld, 2014).

**Motivation:** “an internal factor that arouses, directs, and integrates a person’s behaviour” (Murray, 1964:7).

**Perceived behavioural control:** “the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour” (Ajzen, 1991:188).

**Leisure travel:** “...a trip outside the person’s usual environment, for the main purpose of entertainment, holiday, recreation, relaxation or hobby” (Björk & Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2015:44)

**Reciprocity visas:** “...the bilateral visa agreements between two countries, where a country can exempt or demand visas from citizens of another country as a reaction to the application of a comparable visa policy by another country” (Woyo, 2017:71).

**Stimulus-organism-response model:** A model that posits that, when a person is exposed to a social and physical environment (stimulus), he/she generates internal states or experiences emotions (organism), which then trigger his/her approach and avoidance behaviours in response to a particular environment (responses) (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974).

**Subjective norm:** “the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour” (Ajzen, 1991:188).

**Theory of planned behaviour:** A theory that postulates that a tourist’s intention towards a specific behaviour will lead that tourist to perform the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:181).

**Tourist:** “a traveller taking a trip to a main destination outside his/her usual environment, for less than a year, for any main purpose (business, leisure or other personal purpose) other than to be employed by a resident entity in the country or place visited” (DESA, 2008:10).

**Visa facilitation centres:** Privately-run service companies tasked with operating the outsourced administrative and non-judgemental part of immigration visas by countries (Vfs.Global, 2001).

**Visa facilitation:** “...the streamlining of the country’s visa policies so as to reduce the visa applications bottlenecks” (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014:306).

**Visa stress:** An emotional strain caused by the experience of immigration processes such as obtaining a tourist visa or a legal permanent residence (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Jasso, Massey, Rosenzweig & Smith, 2005).

**Visa:** An official acknowledgement issued by the consular office that the application to enter the destination country for a specific purpose or transit has been reviewed and approved (Song, Lee, Reisinger & Xu, 2017:667).

**Visa requirements:** The complete process required by the authorities of a country to obtain a visa prior to travelling to that country, in which potential tourists are obligated to submit an application and a wide range of specific supporting documents to the country’s embassy, high commission, consulate, or visa facilitation centre (Attström, Bausager, Nielsen, Leonardsen, Hansen & Mercer, 2013; Whyte, 2009).

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<b>ASEAN</b>	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
<b>AMOS</b>	Analysis of Moment Structures
<b>AU</b>	African Union
<b>COVID-19</b>	Coronavirus disease of 2019
<b>EHC</b>	Embassy, high commission, consulate
<b>FDI</b>	Foreign direct investments
<b>GDP</b>	Gross domestic product
<b>IATA</b>	International Air Transport Association
<b>IBM</b>	International Business Machines
<b>LSM</b>	Living standard measure
<b>PAD</b>	Pleasure-arousal-dominance
<b>PANAS</b>	Positive and negative affect schedule
<b>SADC</b>	Southern African Development Community
<b>SPSS</b>	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
<b>S-O-R</b>	Stimulus-organism-response
<b>TPB</b>	Theory of planned behaviour
<b>TRA</b>	Theory of reasoned action
<b>UNWTO</b>	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
<b>VFC</b>	Visa facilitation centre
<b>VFR</b>	Visiting friends and relatives
<b>VISA</b>	Visitors intended stay abroad
<b>VOA</b>	Visa on arrival
<b>WTTC</b>	World Travel and Tourism Council

# CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

International travel for leisure or holiday purposes is a popular tourism activity (Bangwayo-Skeete & Skeete, 2016; Li & Song, 2013; Neumayer, 2006). It involves tourists visiting their preferred destination choice abroad to satisfy their desires (Lam & Hsu, 2006), and it is a lucrative business that contributes to the gross domestic product (GDP) of most destination countries. In 2019, before the Covid-19 pandemic, leisure travel accounted for 55% of global international traveller arrivals (UNWTO, 2020). In the same year, the World Tourism Barometer (WTB) estimated that international tourism arrivals had grown by 4% to reach 1 460 million, while international tourism receipts had grown by 3% to reach \$1 481 billion globally (UNWTO, 2020). The World Travel Barometer data indicate that Europe led the international tourism market with 51% of the arrivals and 39% of the receipts, while Africa lagged behind all other continents with 5% of the arrivals and 3% of the receipts (UNWTO, 2020). Owing to the Covid-19 pandemic, 2020 was the worst year on record for tourism, as international tourist arrivals plunged by 72% from 1 460 million in 2019 to 400 million in 2020 and to 415 million in 2021 (UNWTO, 2022). At the same time, international tourism receipts plunged by 63%, from \$1 700 billion in 2019 to \$638 billion in 2020, and to between \$700 billion and \$800 billion in 2021 (UNWTO, 2022). Following the Covid-19 pandemic, a UNWTO Panel of Experts survey shows that 64% of tourism experts anticipate that international tourism will return to 2019 levels only from the year 2024 onwards (UNWTO, 2022). Nevertheless, international travel requires significant investment from the tourist, and therefore they tend to plan well in advance before travelling (Boratynski & Szimborska, 2006).

## 1.2 BACKGROUND

Deciding on a destination to visit is considered to be a critical part of a tourist's decision-making process (Um & Crompton, 1992). Destination choice is made up of multiple stages in which the alternative destinations are gradually reduced until a final single choice remains (Ankomah, Crompton & Baker, 1996; Karl, 2018; Um & Crompton, 1992). According to Yang, Fik and Zhang (2013), there are three types of destination choice: intended, dream,

and past. The past destination choice is a destination that tourists have previously visited; the dream destination choice is a destination that tourists are keen to visit if given an opportunity; and the intended destination choice is a destination that tourists plan to visit in future. This research considers the intended destination choice. Several theories and models have been used to explain destination choice, such as the general model of destination choice (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), the pleasure travel destination choice process model (Um & Crompton, 1990), the value-attitude-behaviour hierarchy model (Homer & Kahle, 1988), the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

One of the most popular theories used to explain destination choice is the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) developed by Ajzen in 1991. Various authors have used this theory successfully to predict tourists' intentions to visit a specific destination of choice. Al Ziadat (2015) found that international tourists' intention to revisit Jordan was directly influenced by their attitudes and subjective norms. Jalilvand and Samiei (2012) examined whether electronic word-of-mouth influenced tourists' intention to visit Iran. The results found that attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and electronic word-of-mouth influenced tourists' intentions. Apart from attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, studies have found that several destination attributes can also influence international tourists' destination choices. According to Whyte, Packer and Ballantyne (2018:472), destination attributes are defined as "the tangible and intangible core attributes and attractors of a destination that influence travellers to choose one destination over another". These destination attributes include, but are not limited to: geographical location (Wen & Huang, 2020); accessibility, shopping, entertainment, hospitality, service, price reasonableness, traditions, climate, local cuisine, physiography, accommodation, tourism infrastructure, activities, safety and security (Kiatkawsin & Han, 2017); beautiful scenery, variety of tourist attractions, cultural identity (Kruger & Viljoen, 2019); historical sites (Yiamjanya & Wongleedee, 2014); cleanliness and sanitation, health and medical facilities, and local transport quality (Queiroz Neto, Lohmann, Scott & Dimmock, 2017).

According to Kahtani, Xia and Veenendaal (2011), the accessibility of destinations is one of the most significant attributes that affect tourists' decisions to visit a destination. In a tourism context, accessibility is defined by Kahtani *et al.* (2011) and Dwyer and Kim (2003) as the

ease with which tourists can reach their preferred destination choices. When accessibility is unattainable, tourists are forced to abandon their desire to travel to a destination, and might choose a substitute destination because of perceived restricted access (Tian, Crompton & Witt, 1996). In other words, the relative attractiveness of the destination is presumably impacted by the ease of access to it (Freier & Holloway, 2019:1176). Several studies (Hughes & Jones, 2010; Isaac & Eid, 2019; Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015; Seyidov & Adomaitienė, 2016) have explored the influence of accessibility on tourists' destination choices. When investigating the management of the Gascoyne region in Western Australia, Hughes and Jones (2010) found accessibility to be among the most important factors that attracted visitors to the region. Nikjoo and Ketabi (2015) found that accessibility was the most important factor that attracted Iranian travellers to Istanbul and Antalya in Turkey. Isaac and Eid (2019) found that, in addition to safety concerns, the lack of accessibility was one of the most important factors preventing tourists from visiting Palestine, mainly because of Israel's border control. Seyidov and Adomaitienė (2016) found that accessibility was one of the most important factors influencing Azerbaijani tourists' decisions to travel to various types of tourism destinations.

Factors such as transport infrastructure (Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2008; Prideaux, 2000; Sellner & Nagl, 2010), embassies and consulates (Santana-Gallego, Ledesma-Rodríguez & Pérez-Rodríguez, 2016), and government regulations such as visa requirements (Balli, Balli & Cebeci, 2013; Enemuo & Dim-Jacob, 2018; Karaman, 2016) seem to influence a destination's accessibility. The presence or absence of transportation infrastructure such as harbours, airports, pipeline networks, ports, roads, rail, and the facilities associated with these networks determines the accessibility of the destination relative to other destinations (Dickinson & Robbins, 2007; Lew & McKercher, 2006; Salas-Olmedo, García & Gutiérrez, 2015; Vulevic, 2016). The presence of the destination country's embassies or consulates in the tourists' home country might have an influence on a destination's accessibility. Gil-Pareja, Llorca-Vivero and Martínez-Serrano (2007) found that tourism flows from advanced economy countries to emerging economy countries increased by between 15% and 30% because of the presence of embassies and consulates in the emerging economy countries. Related to the presence of consulates and embassies, government travel regulations such as visa requirements can also play a role in affecting the destination country's accessibility, either positively or negatively. According to Lee and Choi (2020), visa requirements are



partly related to accessibility in the sense that some countries require tourists to obtain a visa before entering their territory. In other words, visa requirements determine whether it would be possible for a tourist to enter their destination of choice (Freier & Holloway, 2019). For the purpose of this study, 'visa requirements' is defined as the complete process required by the authorities of a country to obtain a visa prior to travelling to that country, in which potential tourists are obligated to submit an application and a wide range of specific supporting documents to the country's embassy, high commission, consulate, or visa facilitation centre (Attström *et al.*, 2013; Whyte, 2009).

As stated earlier, international tourism will continue to grow. For this reason, border security and the regulation of the global movements of people such as illegal immigrants are necessary. To control this global mobility of people, most countries use visa policies (Page, 1999:72). Even though some countries allow tourists to enter with just a passport, the majority of tourists still require visas. This assertion has been echoed by the UNWTO (2015:4), which estimates that 61% of the global population in 2014 required a visa before visiting a destination country –, a significant decrease from 77% in 2008; and according to the UNWTO (2018:2), this percentage decreased further to 53% in 2017. According to Akman (2016:118), the visa system is perhaps the most effective instrument a country can employ to control and regulate the global movements of people. In general, the purpose of visas is to grant or deny people legal access to a country (Guild, 2009). In other words, a visa is an official acknowledgement, issued by the consular office, that the application to enter or transit the destination country for a specific purpose has been reviewed and approved. Therefore, the failure or success of any country's tourism industry can (among other things) also be determined by its own visa policy (Avdan, 2013:593; Bangwayo-Skeete & Skeete, 2016:409; Lan, 2012:624; Liu & McKercher, 2014:604; Song, Lee, Reisinger & Xu, 2017). Some countries do not impose visas on certain other countries; this is known as 'visa free travel'. For example, visa-free countries for South African passport holders include all the Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries, Brazil, Thailand, Singapore, Kenya, and The Philippines (OnlineVisa, 2021). Other countries require visas on arrival; for example, countries that require visas on arrival for South African passport holders include The Comoros, Gabon, Ghana, Samoa, Senegal, Guinea-Bissau, The Seychelles, Sri Lanka, and Qatar (OnlineVisa, 2021). Still other countries require visitors to go through a comprehensive visa application process. All of the Schengen countries, the United States,

the United Kingdom, China, New Zealand, Serbia, Australia, Burundi, and Cameroon (OnlineVisa, 2021) require South African passport holders to go through a comprehensive visa application process. The study focuses on tourist visas that require a comprehensive application process.

Most destination countries rely on their embassies, high commissions, or consulates abroad to vet all the prospective international travellers' backgrounds thoroughly and to filter out any unwanted persons before their arrival (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014; Karaman, 2016). For the purpose of this research, we abbreviate 'embassies, high commissions, or consulates' as EHC. In other cases, countries can outsource their administrative and non-judgemental tasks of issuing visas to privately run service companies known as visa facilitation centres (VFCs) – for example, Visa Facilitation Service Global (VFS Global) (Vfs.Global, 2001). However, any visa assessments and decisions are adjudicated by the responsible country's EHC and not by the VFC. In other words, the VFC does not play any part in or influence the visa application outcome. A VFC is thus an amalgam of visa specialist services that facilitates the application process, including automating and managing the call centre on behalf of the country's EHC. In simpler terms, a VFC is responsible for the 'front office' process, after which they send the application to the EHC to make the final decision. Since some EHCs still allow people to apply for visas at their premises, this research assumes that the premises that facilitate visa processing are EHCs or VFCs.

Ease of access, relating in particular to visa requirements or to the ease of obtaining a visa, is perceived by travellers as an important factor when choosing a destination to visit (Aydin & Karamehmet, 2017). Heath (2002) and Xiang (2013) found that visa requirements were the most important issue affecting tourists' decision-making between alternative destinations. In addition, Boniface and Cooper (2001) identified visa requirements as among the most significant precondition factors that underpinned a decision by tourists to travel to an international destination for leisure purposes. Song, Gartner and Tasci (2012) found that visa requirements were a potent instrument that governments could adjust to tourism demand through either relaxing the visa requirements (visa-free entry) to increase tourist volumes or increasing the visa restrictions to reduce tourist volumes. Several studies (Anyasor, Rejoice Okocha, Agina & Nwankwo, 2021; Glaesser & Kester, 2013; Neiman & Swagel, 2009; Ng & Whalley, 2008; Rhymer & Speare, 2017) have portrayed visa

requirements as an additional constraint to international tourism that makes it more difficult for tourists to visit their desired destination.

Some travellers see visa requirements as the most unpleasant part of planning international travel, as it can determine whether they will be permitted to visit their desired destination country or not (Rahim & Daud, 2012:57). The visa application process might not only include document processing, but also a personal interview (Neiman & Swagel, 2009). Document processing includes the non-exhaustive list of supporting documents required to accompany the visa application form, such as passport-size photos, foreign bank drafts, certified qualifications documents, biometrics, certified medical reports, proof of income, proof of a return ticket, proof of employment, proof of property ownership, and proof of accommodation reservations (Ng & Whalley, 2008:8). These requirements might not only delay the issuing of the visa but also increase applicants' costs (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014). Adding to a possible delay in the issuing of the visa is the fact that each visa application undergoes a thorough background check to filter out any unwanted persons before their arrival in the destination country (Lee, Song & Bendle, 2010). For most tourists, the compulsory face-to-face interview is the most daunting part of the visa application process (Flensted-Jensen, 2019). During preparation for the interview, tourists might spend a substantial number of hours practising at home and researching possible questions and answers. The tourists might also incur transport costs if they have to travel long distances to the nearest EHC or VFC for the interview because these centres are not located in their city of residence (Hu, 2013). Furthermore, tourists might feel coerced to dress appropriately every time they make a personal appearance either for an interview or simply to deliver documents to the EHC or VFC. Various researchers have examined the current visa system and have found that the quality of service and the transparency and complexity of the procedures in most of these EHCs or VFCs are disconcerting. For instance, Woyo (2017) found that the visa procedures in most EHCs or VFCs are cumbersome, time-consuming, expensive, and duplicative. Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014) discovered that certain elements that are inherent in the visa application process (such as the cost of the visa, required embassy visits, the visa processing/application time, the chance of denial, and the required number of documents) directly contribute to the negative perceptions that tourists have of the destination country before or after the visit. Therefore, from the above it is clear that expectations about visa requirements might influence tourists' destination choice.

In addition, there is a perception that EHCs or VFCs are reducing the accessibility of destinations by emotionally mistreating potential tourists who require tourist visas (Stephenson, 2004). For example, Özdemir and Ayata (2018) found that many nationals from Turkey felt emotionally hurt and mistreated by consular officials when their Schengen tourist visas were refused. As a result, Turkey nationals perceived Schengen visa procedures as discriminatory, humiliating, and unjust because Turkey was the only European country that required a visa to travel to the Schengen states (Özdemir & Ayata, 2018). According to Li, Scott and Walters (2015), people's first reaction or response to any a situation, event, or environment is emotional. Jenkins and Oatley (1996) define emotion as the conscious or unconscious situation assessment relevant to a tourist's important goal, followed by actions, bodily changes, and expressions. Because of the cost of visas, the number of documents required, the required embassy visits, the chance of denial, the treatment received from officials, and the time spent waiting for the visa (its processing time), the visa application process could be regarded as an emotionally stressful experience for any applicant. However, one should be careful not to assume that the visa application process only triggers negative emotions. Some travellers experience the process as an exciting event that creates anticipation about the future international holiday. That said, the emotional experience of the visa process does not only start after the visa has been issued or refused at EHCs or VFCs, but begins during the travel planning stage, even before the tourist applies for a visa (Seminara, 2008). One could argue that the frustrations and stressful situations of expectations about visa requirements start at the decision-making stage when the tourists are planning the holiday, and not at the EHCs or VFCs.

To understand the emotions of tourists that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, and how these emotions influence their intention to visit their destination of choice, this study uses the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model developed by Mehrabian and Russell (1974). The S-O-R posits that, when a person is exposed to a social and physical environment (stimulus), this generates internal states or experience emotions (organism), which then trigger approach and avoidance behaviours in response to a particular environment (responses). The emotional experience can mediate the relationship between stimuli that are extrinsic to the individual and the eventual response, thus creating an indirect relationship (Essawy, 2019; Jang & Namkung, 2009; Machleit & Eroglu, 2000; Robert & John, 1982). In the context of this study, the visa application process and its

resultant expectations about visa requirements are seen as the chosen environmental stimulus. In the S-O-R model, individuals' emotions play a prominent part in driving decisions and behaviour (Eroglu, Machleit & Davis, 2001; Ladhari, 2007; Machleit & Eroglu, 2000). In the context of this study, negative or positive anticipated emotional responses are presumed to predict tourists' intention to visit their destination of choice. The term 'response' is the last component of the S-O-R model, and is defined by Xiao and Benbasat (2011) as an individual's reaction to stimuli and organism. Hence, the intention to visit the destination of choice is directly and indirectly determined by expectations about visa requirements. In other words, tourists' emotional responses may influence their final behavioural intentions (Lu, Cheng & Wang, 2017). This study thus combines the TPB and the S-O-R model to predict the influence of visa requirements on a tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice.

It should however be noted that individuals who have not applied for visas before have no experience of the process, and therefore the expectations that they have and the emotions that they expect to be triggered by the visa application process might be different from those who have applied for a visa before. Therefore, it is important to consider the experiences of both groups, since it can assist in developing more robust theories and models of human behaviour in destination choice, as well as potentially informing future policy objectives.

### **1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Destination choice (including intention to visit a destination) has been investigated by many authors (Al Ziadat, 2015; Guillet, Law & Leung, 2012; Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012; Karl, 2018; Liu, Li, Cárdenas & Yang, 2018a; Phau, Quintal & Shanka, 2014; Yang, Liu, Li & Harrill, 2018). The TPB has been used extensively to measure tourists' intention to visit their destination of choice (Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Sparks & Pan, 2009). For example, in their study of outbound Chinese tourists, Sparks and Pan (2009) found that the best predictors of visit intention were subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Jalilvand and Samiei (2012) found that attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and an extra variable – electronic word-of-mouth – were the best predictors of international tourists' intention to choose Iran as a destination. Lam and Hsu (2006) found that subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and an additional construct – past behaviour – were the best predictors of Taiwanese tourists' intention to

choose Hong Kong as a destination. Apart from the original TPB variables (subjective norms, attitude, and perceived behavioural control), a number of additional variables have also been proven to have an effect on destination choice. One of these variables is accessibility (Kahtani *et al.*, 2011). Lee and Choi (2020) found that visa requirements were partly related to accessibility in the sense that some countries require tourists to obtain a visa before entering their territory. In other words, visa requirements determine whether it would be possible for a tourist to enter their destination of choice (Freier & Holloway, 2019).

Research to date has paid little attention to the relationship between visa requirements and tourists' destination choice. Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014) examined the impact of travel visas on perception and destination choice. Duerrmeier Rizzi found that travel visas negatively influenced tourists' perceptions of a destination, and identified the following visa requirements as good indicators of destination choice: visa-processing/application time, cost of visas, required embassy visits, chance of denial, and number of documents required. Woyo (2017) showed that visa requirements negatively influenced a country's visa openness scores and tourists' destination choices, which in turn affected tourism development. Focusing on the flow and profile of tourists from China to Hong Kong, Liu and McKercher (2014) studied the influence of visa exemptions. The authors concluded that the relaxation of visa requirements through the 'individual visit scheme' in 2003 saw a significant increase in mainland Chinese residents visiting Hong Kong. Lawson and Roychoudhury (2015) provided evidence that the removal of visa restrictions for South Koreans visiting Japan led to a 25% increase in tourism flows to Japan in comparison with 12% a year earlier. Therefore, visa requirements determine whether or not a tourist can visit his or her desired destination of choice.

Since visa requirements are country-specific, the available body of knowledge does not provide an exhaustive or comprehensive list of visa requirements. Where studies have looked at visa requirements, they have only incorporated a limited number of requirements (Asquith, Bailey, Hope-Jones, Manji & Westcott, 2019; Boratynski & Szimborska, 2006; Croce, 2018; Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014). Other studies have used 'visa requirements' as an umbrella term without identifying specific requirements (Czaika & de Haas, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2010; Ortega & Peri, 2013; Rhymer & Speare, 2017; Siskin & Wyler, 2013b). Hence, what remains missing in the literature is a comprehensive list of visa requirements.

Applying the TPB, Han *et al.* (2011) explored the effect of visa exemptions on the intention to visit South Korea by Chinese tourists. To increase the predictions of tourists' intending to visit South Korea, they included visa exemptions as an additional variable in the TPB. They found visa exemptions to be one of the strongest predictors of Chinese tourists' intentions to visit South Korea. Also using the TPB, Han (2014) added operational constraints (including the difficulty of obtaining a tourist visa) as a predictor of Chinese tourists' intention to visit South Africa. The results showed a negative relationship between operational constraints and visit intention. What remains unknown, in the context of the TPB, is whether there is a relationship between specific visa requirements and visit intention. In addition, the study investigates the moderating role of visa requirements in the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and visit intention. Visa requirements is seen as a moderator in these relationships, since it is expected either to strengthen or to weaken the relationships. This has also echoed in a notable number of studies (Han *et al.*, 2011; Lawson & Roychoudhury, 2016; Liu & McKercher, 2014) that visa requirements act as a deterrent, barrier, or obstacle that makes it more difficult for a tourist to visit the destination. For example, Liu and McKercher (2014) found that visa requirements act as a barrier to market access that, when eased, has the potential to increase the number of tourist arrivals. Similarly, Lawson and Roychoudhury (2015) established that visa requirements deterred people from travelling to such an extent that, if they were eliminated, the travel flow would more than triple between countries. A study by Han *et al.* (2011) also revealed that Chinese tourists formed a favourable attitude and intention to visit South Korea because of their anticipation of lenient visa requirements.

A notable number of studies in various settings (Hosany, Prayag, Van Der Veen, Huang & Deesilatham, 2017; Jordan, Spencer & Prayag, 2019; Lin, Kerstetter, Nawijn & Mitas, 2014; Loureiro, 2015; Pestana, Parreira & Moutinho, 2020) have pointed to the significance of understanding the emotional traits of the tourism experience and its effect on tourists' behaviour. Across the various settings, Hosany and Prayag (2013); Kwornik and Ross (2007); Tsaur, Chiu and Wang (2007) discovered that a positive emotional experience influenced tourists' decision-making, satisfaction, behavioural intentions, and destination choice in particular when planning a leisure holiday. In most of these studies there seemed to be a general consensus that tourists have emotional responses to their surroundings (Machleit & Eroglu, 2000).

Several studies have suggested that the visa application process is an emotional experience for many tourists. Seminara (2008:7) recognised that “being refused a visa is a very emotional experience for many visa applicants”. Özdemir and Ayata (2018) found that many nationals from Turkey whose visa applications had been refused perceived Schengen tourist visa requirements as emotionally damaging, difficult, discriminatory, and unjust. Hence, it could be contended that, upon finding out whether a visa would be required to visit a destination during the planning process in the pre-trip stage, tourists might experience emotional responses ranging from joy to excitement, satisfaction, frustration, sadness, and anger. In other words, the visa application process triggers some emotions (Özdemir & Ayata, 2018:180; Seminara, 2008; Zengeni & Zengeni, 2012); however, what remains uncertain is the extent to which the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process influence a tourist’s intention to visit a destination. To this end, this study uses Mehrabian and Russell’s S-O-R model. This model has been used before in various tourism contexts to measure tourists’ emotional responses to specific stimuli (Abdullah, Jayaraman & Kamal, 2016; Forrest, 2015; Tan, 2017), but not in the context of visa requirements.

This study therefore aims to answer the following research question: What are the relationships between visa requirements expectations, the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, and a tourist’s intention to visit their destination of choice? By integrating the TPB and the S-O-R model the study addresses the research gaps as highlighted above, to predict the influence of visa requirements on a tourist’s intention to visit their destination of choice. Furthermore, the study tests the moderating effect of expectations of visa requirements on the relationships between the TPB-based predictor variables and the intention to visit a destination of choice, and the mediating effect of the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination of choice.

## **1.4 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES**

Using the theory of planned behaviour and the stimulus-organism-response model, this study aims to understand the relationships between visa requirements expectations, the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, and a tourist’s



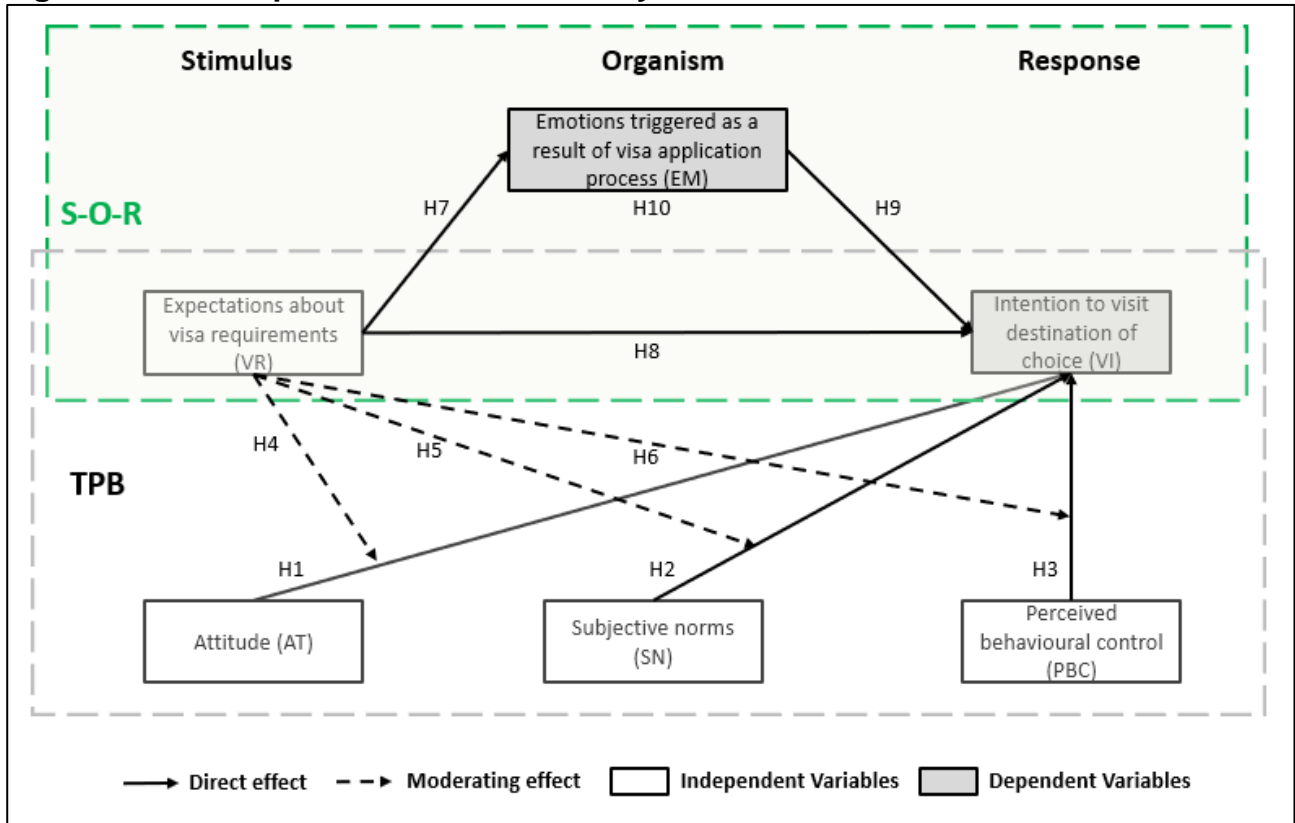
intention to visit their destination of choice. More specifically, the research study investigates the moderating effect of expectations about visa requirements on the relationships between the TPB-based predictor variables (subjective norms, attitude, perceived behavioural control) and the intention to visit a destination of choice, and the mediating effect of the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and the intention to visit a destination of choice by using the S-O-R model. To achieve this aim, the following research objectives guide this study:

- 1) To explore the requirements of obtaining a visa during the visa application process.
- 2) To assess the emotions that tourists experience during the visa application process.
- 3) To measure the relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination.
- 4) To investigate the moderating effect of visa requirements expectations on the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination.
- 5) To measure the relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.
- 6) To establish whether a relationship exists between a tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.
- 7) To examine the mediating effect of the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination.
- 8) To compare the group that has applied for visas before, against the group that has not applied for visas before.

## 1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Using the TPB and the S-O-R model as theoretical foundations, the conceptual model developed for this study is provided in Figure 1.1 below.

**Figure 1.1: Conceptual model for the study**



Source: Researcher's own construction

The model is built on the following research hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 1:** There is a relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

**Hypothesis 2:** There is a relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.

**Hypothesis 3:** There is a relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.

**Hypothesis 4:** Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

**Hypothesis 5:** Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.

**Hypothesis 6:** Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.

**Hypothesis 7:** There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.

**Hypothesis 8:** There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination.

**Hypothesis 9:** There is a relationship between the emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

**Hypothesis 10:** A tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination.

An appropriate strategy of enquiry to achieve the objectives and to test the hypotheses is explained in the next section.

## 1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research methodology consists of the research design, research process, sampling, data collection method, and data analysis techniques (Gill & Johnson, 2010; Sekaran, 2000). The research design is seen as the master logic that indicates how research is supposed to be done. Using Rocco *et al.*'s (2003) descriptions of worldviews, post-positivism was adopted as a research paradigm to guide the study. It has been argued by Henderson (2011) that post-positivism regularly works in leisure studies because researchers are often concerned to find meanings from people about their multiple interpretations of reality. As such, this study was designed to investigate the relationship between a tourist's expectations about visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination of choice. This study adopted a mixed-methods sequential exploratory design to present a comprehensive understanding of the visa application process with a specific focus on the emotional experience. Phase 1 involved the collection of qualitative data and analysis, followed by Phase 2, which involved a quantitative data collection method in the form of self-administered questionnaires. The focus group findings in Phase 1 were used to develop the

visa requirements expectations scale in the self-administered questionnaire used in Phase 2.

The target population for the qualitative phase was South African citizens, living in South Africa and aged eighteen years or older, who either had applied for visas before or had never applied for visas before for holiday purposes. The target population for the quantitative phases was South African citizens, living in South Africa and aged eighteen years or older, who planned to travel internationally in the next three years. Individuals who had applied for visas before and those who had never applied for visas before were included in both phases. Purposive sampling was used in the qualitative phase. The researcher used his personal network (family, friends, and colleagues) to invite individuals via email or WhatsApp to participate in the focus groups. Thereafter, snowball sampling was used to increase the number of participants. A non-probability convenience sampling technique was used to collect data from respondents in the quantitative phase. Convenience sampling involves selecting respondents from a population that is voluntarily available and accessible to the researcher. An external market research company with a panel of over 40 000 individuals from different population groups, genders, ages, education levels, ages, and places of residence was used to reach the target population.

Focus group interviews were used as the primary data collection method, for the qualitative phase. Data collected during the focus groups was used to ensure that the list of visa requirements as given in the literature was exhaustive. Where additional requirements were mentioned that were not identified in the literature, these were added to the measurement instrument. The focus groups were also used to verify the applicability of the PANAS scale in the context of visas. In this study, 'virtual' focus group interviews were used, mainly because of the outbreak of coronavirus (COVID-19) around the world. Virtual focus groups support social distancing measures, as they eliminate physical contact between participants. Three focus groups were conducted on the 04 February 2021, 08 February 2021 and 12 February 2021. The first focus group consisted of 13 participants who had applied for a visa before, while the second focus group had two participants who had applied for a visa before. The third focus group had four participants who had never applied for a visa before. In this study, saturation was reached after three focus groups.

For the quantitative phase, data collection was done using an online self-administered questionnaire. Before completing the survey, respondents gave their informed consent to the researcher that they wished to participate voluntarily in the survey. The covering letter that the market research company sent to the respondents via email explained the purpose of the survey and invited the panel members to participate in it. The data was collected over a 15-day period, from 15 June 2021 to 30 June 2021. The final number of usable questionnaires totalled 444, split between those who had previously applied for a visa (301) and those who had not applied for a visa before (143); this was considered sufficient for the necessary data analysis techniques.

For the qualitative phase, two semi-structured focus group guides consisting of several open-ended questions were compiled. The first focus group guide was used to elicit information from the participants who had applied for a visa before for holiday purposes, while the second focus group guide was used to elicit information from the participants who had never applied for a visa before for holiday purposes. Appendix A provides the focus group guide for the groups that had applied for a visa before, and Appendix B provides the focus group guide for the group that had not applied for a visa before. In both focus group guides, Section A, developed from the sources listed in sections 2.6 and 2.7 of the literature review, covered expectations about visa requirements; Section B, developed from the sources listed in sections 3.4, 3.5, and 3.6 of the literature review, covered the possible emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process; and Section C, developed from the sources listed in section 4.6 of the literature review, covered the influence of visas on participants' decision-making processes. A pre-test was then done to assess the guides and to make final recommendations and comments to ensure the appropriateness of their content and language. The pre-testing was conducted on four selected individuals from the study population.

For the quantitative phase, an online self-administered questionnaire was developed to collect quantitative data from the target population. One screening question was used to identify suitable respondents: (a) Do you intend to travel internationally in the next three years for holiday purposes? If they answered "No", they were not allowed to continue. The questionnaire consisted of eight sections. Section A asked respondents about their international travel history, including whether they had visited a destination that required a

visa before. This enabled the researcher to split the respondents into two groups: those who had applied for visas before, and those who had not applied for visas before. Section B captured the demographic characteristics of the respondents: their age, travel companions, gender, relationship status, and place of residence.

Section C measured respondents' attitude towards the destination they intended to visit, and consisted of one question with seven items, developed from Han *et al.* (2011) and Soliman (2021). Section D measured respondents' subjective norms, and consisted of one question with five items, adapted from Jordan, Bynum, Knollenberg and Kline (2018), Park, Hsieh and Lee (2017) and Han *et al.* (2011). Section E measured respondents' perceived behavioural control, and consisted of one question with four items adapted from Han *et al.* (2011) and Soliman (2021). Section H measured respondents' visit intention, and consisted of one question with four items adapted from Han *et al.* (2011) and Park *et al.* (2017). Each item measured in section C to H was assessed on a Likert scale with seven points ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Section F measured respondents' expectations about visa requirements, and consisted of one question with 21 items. Nineteen items were developed from the literature (Abrego, 2015; Arudou, 2021; Asquith *et al.*, 2019; Boratynski & Szimborska, 2006; Brabandt & Mau, 2013; Çakar, 2015; Croce, 2018; Czaika & de Haas, 2014; Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014; Ivankiv, 2020; Jayasinghe, 2021; Kirsanova, 2014; Lee, Paulidor & Mpaga, 2018a; Mau, Gülzau, Laube & Zaun, 2015; Piątek, 2019; Satzewich, 2015; Woyo, 2017), as shown in Table 2.5. Two additional items (the manual application process instead of online, and applying for a longer validity visa, only to be issued with shorter validity visa) were identified during the focus groups and added to the list of requirements identified in Table 2.5. Each item in the expectations about visa requirements construct was assessed using a seven-point semantic differential scale. Respondents were asked to state their position on a scale between two bipolar adjectives that best reflected their expectations of the visa application process. The semantic differential scale points of 1 to 3 implied a tendency towards the left-hand adjective, 4 implied neutral, while 5 to 7 implied a tendency towards the right-hand adjective. Section G measured the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and consisted of one question with 20 items adopted from Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988). Each item in this construct was assessed on a Likert scale with five points ranging from 1 = very slightly or not at all to 5 = extremely. It should be noted that no additional emotions were identified

during the focus groups, and that the applicability of the positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS) scale of Watson *et al.* (1988) in the context of visa applications was confirmed in the focus groups.

Pre-testing was conducted among 19 respondents from the study population using the actual online survey via Qualtrics. After pre-testing the questionnaire and before the data collection began, ethical clearance was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at the University of Pretoria (protocol number: EMS194/20). Appendix D provides the Research Ethics Committee's approval letter. Content analysis was used to analyse the narrative data from the focus groups. The objective was to investigate tourists' visa application experiences, with a specific focus on their emotional experiences and the requirements they had to meet for their applications. For the quantitative phase, responses from the online self-administered questionnaire were captured electronically, and underwent a thorough data preparation phase to make the data fit for use. The International Business Machines (IBM) Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 25 and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 25 were used to analyse the data. To address the research objectives (in particular, objectives 3, 4 5, 6, 7 and 8) and to test the hypotheses, structural equation modelling (SEM) was conducted. In other words, SEM tested the proposed conceptual model. Goodness-of-fit and parameter estimates were also assessed.

## 1.7 DELIMITATIONS

The researcher sets the boundaries of this study by drawing a distinction between pertinent and irrelevant information, as emphasised by Leedy and Ormrod (2005). First, the study focuses on South African tourists visiting a destination for leisure or holiday and not for business purposes. Visiting for business purposes does not give the traveller a choice about whether or not to apply for a visa, as it is part of their job and not a voluntary decision. It is acknowledged that leisure might include visiting friends and relatives (VFR); however, this study focuses strictly on tourist visas.

Second, the study only focuses on traditional visas for which a comprehensive application process (with various requirements) needs to be completed before the individual arrives at the destination. Therefore, e-visas or visas-on-arrival are excluded from the study, since the

requirements for an e-visa or a visa on arrival are often much less cumbersome and arguably, since it does not include a physical interview, not as emotionally draining as for a traditional visa.

Third, although the visa requirements for nationalities differ, and some nationalities require visas for certain countries while others do not, the study focuses on South African citizens living in South Africa who were planning to travel internationally in the next three years for holiday purposes. South Africa is ranked 105 out of 198 countries in terms of the mobility score, which means that South African tourists can travel to 63 countries visa-free, can get a visa on arrival in 42 countries, and require a visa to travel to 93 countries (Passport Index, 2022). In other words, the higher the mobility score, the better the global mobility that South African passport bearers enjoy. In sum, a South African tourist requires a visa to travel to 53% of the countries in the world.

Fourth, in this study, visa policies are viewed from a tourism perspective, not a security or international relations perspective.

## **1.8 LAYOUT OF THE STUDY**

Chapter 1 provides an introduction and background to the study, and formulates the problem statement, purpose statement, research objectives, and hypotheses. The methodology is then outlined. The chapter ends by highlighting the boundaries that delineate the study.

In Chapter 2, the concept of visas in the context of international tourism is reviewed. The chapter begins with a discussion of international tourism, travel motivation, and destination choice. Then it looks into visa requirements policies and the reasons why countries impose visas, such as border security, illegal immigration, reciprocity, and revenue generation. A discussion on the impact of visa requirements policies on domestic economies and on tourists is provided. The chapter then introduces the concept of behaviour, and clarifies the concept through some well-known theories and models of human behaviour. The TPB is chosen as a theoretical framework for this study.

Chapter 3 reviews the role of emotions in visitor intentions. This chapter begins by explaining what an emotion is, and ends with emotional responses in tourism, including different



theoretical approaches. Tourists might respond to the emotional stress they experience during a burdensome visa application process by choosing alternative destinations with less restrictive visa regimes. The stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model is used to explain what triggers emotions and behaviours.

Chapter 4 begins with a discussion of the application of the TPB in tourism, followed by the model presentation and an exposition of each construct. This chapter concludes the literature review chapters by developing a conceptual model that integrates the S-O-R model and the TPB to explain the impact of constructs such as the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control on tourists' intention to visit a destination.

Chapter 5 explains the research methodology in detail. It begins by discussing the philosophical assumptions and the paradigmatic and epistemological perspectives underpinning the study. The chosen research design and methodology is centred on achieving the research objectives. To meet the research objectives and to test the hypotheses, this study uses a mixed-methods sequential exploratory design. The first phase centres on a qualitative study that is inductive in nature, and the second phase is formulated principally based on a deductive quantitative study. The chapter also explains the instruments designed for the data collection and the data analysis techniques used. The chapter ends with the ethical considerations.

Chapter 6 presents the results obtained from both the qualitative and the quantitative components of the research study. This chapter discusses the findings from the focus groups and how they were incorporated into the measurement instrument. The discussion then moves to the quantitative results by explaining the validity and reliability of the constructs, focusing on exploratory factor analyses (EFA). The chapter ends with a discussion of the measurement models.

Chapter 7 discusses the results of the hypotheses testing by providing the structural equation models.

Chapter 8 consolidates the study and emphasises the key empirical and theoretical findings discussed in chapters 6 and 7. At the same time, the theoretical and practical contributions

of the study are proposed; the research limitations are disclosed; and conclusions and recommendations for future research are made.

## **1.9 CONCLUSION**

Deciding on a destination to visit is a critical part of a tourist's decision-making process. Therefore, tourists see the ease of obtaining a visa as an important consideration when choosing an international destination to visit. However, a burdensome visa application process is often regarded as an emotionally stressful experience that can discourage tourists from participating in international tourism. Research to date has paid little attention to the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and destination choice, or to the role that a tourist's emotions play in the visa application process. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to understand the relationships between visa requirements expectations, the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, and a tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice. More specifically, the research study investigates the moderating effect of expectations about visa requirements on the relationships between the TPB-based predictor variables (subjective norms, attitude, perceived behavioural control) and the intention to visit a destination of choice, and the mediating effect of the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and the intention to visit a destination of choice by using the S-O-R model. This chapter introduced the study and provided its background, problem statement, purpose statement, research objectives and hypotheses, and methodology. Boundaries to delineate areas that are not addressed in the study were defined. The chapter also highlighted the value of the study and the contributions that it will make academically and to the tourism sector.

The next chapter will examine destination choice and visas in the context of international tourism.

## **CHAPTER 2: DESTINATION CHOICE AND VISAS IN THE CONTEXT OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter 1 introduced and provided the background to the study. The purpose of this study as highlighted in Chapter 1, is to understand the relationships between visa requirements expectations, the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, and a tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice. More specifically, the research study investigates the moderating effect of expectations about visa requirements on the relationships between the TPB-based predictor variables (subjective norms, attitude, perceived behavioural control) and the intention to visit a destination of choice, and the mediating effect of the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and the intention to visit a destination of choice by using the S-O-R model. This chapter starts with a discussion of international tourism, travel motivation, and destination choice. Included in the chapter is a discussion on the global importance of visas in making a country's borders more secure. However, the presence of visas has a negative impact on the tourist, as it restricts access to their destination of choice. The purpose of this chapter is to provide an understanding of visas and their influence on destination countries, as well as to identify and explain the requirements that need to be met by the tourist during the visa application process. The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) is chosen as the theoretical framework mainly because of its extensive use and its proven validity to understand and predict destination choice. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the emotional stress as a result of the visa application process. Therefore, this chapter concludes by acting as a point of departure for the next chapter, which is centred on the emotions that are triggered in the tourist as a result of the visa application process.

## 2.2 INTERNATIONAL TOURISM

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), tourism is defined as the practice of individuals travelling to a destination for no longer than 12 months, mainly for leisure, business, or other purposes; where businesses provide services such as catering, accommodation, and transportation to these travellers (DESA, 2008). Similarly, the 2017 Annual South African Tourism Report defined tourism as the practice of individuals travelling to a destination for at least one night for the purpose of holiday, visiting friends and family, or business (meetings, incentives, conferences, and exhibitions); for religious or medical reasons; and so on. This study focusses on travelling for leisure or holiday purposes. In this study, 'leisure' is seen as an experience or an array of activities in which tourists take part in the course of their free time (Tribe, 2020). Likewise, 'holiday' in this study is seen as tourists visiting their preferred destination choice in pursuit of happiness, enjoyment, satisfaction, or self-actualisation. The benefits associated with leisure travel participation include relaxation, family bonding, shopping and sight-seeing, companionship, meeting new people, and relationship building (Guillet *et al.*, 2012).

In this study, 'international tourism' refers to inbound and outbound tourism that crosses international borders (Seetaram, Song & Page, 2014). International tourism has experienced rapid expansion in the past 50 years: globally, it has increased from 25 million tourist arrivals in 1950 to 277 million tourist arrivals in 1980; from 674 million tourist arrivals in 2000 to 1,235 million tourist arrivals in 2016; and before the Covid-19 pandemic, it was projected to reach 1,809 million tourist arrivals by the year 2030 (UNWTO, 2017). This tourism growth spurt is attributed to the significant improvements in economic globalisation, international commerce, and technology, which have led to a rise in available disposable income (Chen, Cui, Balezentis, Streimikiene & Jin, 2021a; Gidebo, 2021; Sokhanvar, Aghaei & Aker, 2018), making international outbound travel more convenient and affordable. However, with the Covid-19 pandemic, international tourists arrivals plunged by 72% and international tourism receipts plunged by 63% in 2020 (UNWTO, 2022). A post-Covid-19 pandemic projections survey done by a UNWTO panel of experts indicated that 64% of tourism experts anticipated that international tourism would only return to 2019 levels from the year 2024 onwards (UNWTO, 2022).

International tourism is a powerful engine for the destination country's economic growth (Du, Lew & Ng, 2016; Jaforullah, 2015; Pablo-Romero & Molina, 2013; UNWTO, 2015). Put simply, international tourism injects money into the economic system of destination countries and regions (Frempong & Deichmann, 2017; Newsome, 2020; Oklevik, Gössling, Hall, Steen Jacobsen, Grøtte & McCabe, 2019). In South Africa, for example, the tourism industry was directly and indirectly responsible for 1,5 million jobs (9.5% of total employment) in 2017; and by 2028, the tourism industry is expected to create a potential 2,1 million jobs (South African Tourism, 2017). However, international tourism has both positive and negative impacts; and these are discussed in the sections that follow.

### **2.2.1 Positive impacts of international tourism on a destination country**

International tourism helps to achieve the United Nations' sustainable development goals – in particular, goal one, goal two and goal seventeen (United Nations, 2015). Firstly, goal one and goal two relate to eradicating extreme poverty and hunger in the world, while goal seventeen addresses global partnership for development among countries. Thus, the income raised by international tourism through tourists' payment for goods and services can be channelled towards these goals. Second, because international tourism functions as an export industry, it can attract foreign exchange that in the long run might improve the destination country's balance of payments (Karaman, 2016; Obi, Martin & Chidi Obi, 2016). The following are some of the examples of the countries whose economies directly and indirectly benefit from tourism: Singapore, Hong Kong (China), Malaysia, Dubai (the United Arab Emirates), Seychelles, Barbados, Kenya, the Maldives, and Tanzania (Neumayer, 2010). Third, international tourism is responsible for the creation of job opportunities, thus leading to a reduction in a country's unemployment rate (World Economic Forum, 2013). Fourth, international tourism can drive new infrastructure investment – in particular, in the transportation (building new roads) and communication sectors (Arshad, Iqbal & Shahbaz, 2018; Barman & Nath, 2019; Pechlaner, Thees, Manske-Wang & Scuttari, 2021; Permatasari & Padilla, 2020). International tourism also has the potential to improve significantly the destination country's standards of living and to increase incomes, mainly because of the rise in disposable income (Bezuidenhout & Grater, 2016; Lee & Xue, 2020; Sörensson & von Friedrichs, 2013). Last but not least, international tourism contributes to

the cultural exchange between visitors and the destination country's citizens, leading to the revival of local culture – for example, through a greater demand for crafts, arts and local food, protection of the natural landscape, and an appreciation for and consciousness of cultural heritage and identity (Dahles, 2013; Markwick, 2018; Richards, 2014; Ursache, 2015).

### **2.2.2 Negative impacts of international tourism on a destination country**

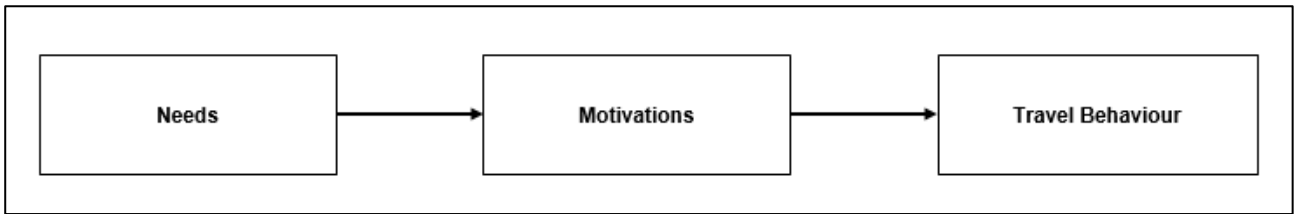
It is undisputed that international tourism leads to economic growth in most destination countries. Despite this massive potential, international tourism might still be perceived in a negative light by some. Even though international tourism is responsible for the creation of job opportunities, these jobs are often based on the time of year (seasonal) and are widely considered to be low-skilled and poorly paid (Terry, 2016). According to Tkalec and Vizek (2016), international tourism activity increases destination countries' overall price levels for goods and services – in particular, restaurants, hotels, houses, culture, and recreation. The probable reason for the overall increase in prices is that the local population is often less wealthy than the tourists. International tourism leads to a misdistribution of income, since businesses and landowners tend to benefit more from tourism revenue, while local residents are subjected to increases in the cost of living (Abdollahzadeh & Sharifzadeh, 2014; Dumbrovská, 2017; Hanafiah, Jamaluddin & Zulkifly, 2013; Martín Martín, Guaita Martínez & Salinas Fernández, 2018). In other words, income from international tourism benefits big companies instead of residents. International tourism also leads to aviation emissions (Debbage & Debbage, 2019), climate change (Kaján & Saarinen, 2013) and unsustainable tourism (Kim, Kim, Lee, Lee & Andrada, 2019). Governments that are serious about climate change must address these problems through robust regulatory mechanisms such as taxation or levies even though it comes with costs to travellers and airlines (Higham, Font & Wu, 2021). Furthermore, some scholars, such as Cheer, Milano and Novelli (2019); Dodds and Butler (2019b); Milano, Novelli and Cheer (2019); Prakash, Perera, Newsome, Kusuminda and Walker (2019), argue that international tourism can lead to cultural and traditional problems, social friction such as traffic jams and overcrowding, and environmental degradation such as litter, footpath erosion, and the disruption of habitats to build hotels as the local and foreign populations migrate to these destination countries. Tourists travel internationally because they are pulled by the perceived attributes of the destinations, and

are pushed by a variety of motivational factors that ultimately influence their travel decisions (Tang, 2014).

## **2.3 NEEDS AND TRAVEL MOTIVATION**

Historically, travelling either locally or internationally for leisure purposes was a major life event because it involved considerably more than simply the time used up travelling. In the past, visiting friends and relatives, cultural experiences, the need for health care, and pilgrimages used to motivate people to travel (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2016; Moutinho, 1987). Nowadays, the motivations to travel are similar, and can include recreation, health, family, education, kinship, personal safety, good weather, and beautiful scenery (Kassean & Gassita, 2013; Michael, Wien & Reisinger, 2017; Wangari, 2017; Wong & Musa, 2014). An identified need to travel is the main factor in understanding individuals' motivation (Kassean & Gassita, 2013), and it directs and drives an individual's motivation and behaviour (Maslow, 1954; Maslow, 1981; Murray, 1964). Needs are central to most motivation theories (Pizam, Chon & Mansfeld, 1999; Yousaf, Amin & Santos, 2018), while motivations are the most important factor contributing to tourist behaviour. According to Tasci and Ko (2017), the relationship between needs and motivations is existential. In other words, a need is a "state of felt deprivation", while motivations are a driving force behind people acting in a particular way to satisfy the need (Kotler, Armstrong, Saunders & Wong, 1996:7). 'Motivation' refers to "a condition or an inner state of need that exerts a push on the individual to do particular types of action to achieve a feeling of fulfilment" (Moutinho & Vargas-Sanchez, 2018:79). In a tourism context, motivation relates to why a tourist travels to a particular destination or place (Wijaya, Wahyudi, Kusuma & Sugianto, 2018). Thus motivation initiates the decision-making process (Tsai, Sakulsinlapakorn & Council, 2016). To understand the tourist's motivation, one has first to discover the tourist's needs and how travel can fulfil them (Abbate & Di Nuovo, 2013; Bond & Falk, 2013). Simply put, the tourist's motivation is a connecting factor between their needs and their final travel behaviour, as illustrated in Figure 2.1.

**Figure 2.1: Motivations connect needs and travel behaviour**



Source: Lubbe (2003)

Even though several scholars, such as Crompton (1979); Dann (1981); Iso-Ahola (2011); Pearce (2005), have tried to explain what motivates people to travel, there is still no consensus on the topic. This shows that travel behaviour is quite a complex field of study (Farmaki, Khalilzadeh & Altinay, 2019; Woyo & Slabbert, 2020). Therefore, there is need for further investigation regarding travel motivation, specifically by analysing how visa requirements influence travel behaviour in an African context. This lack of agreement among scholars on what motivates people to travel has led to the development of several notable theories and approaches, as shown in Table 2.1.



**Table 2.1: Chronological list of major theories explaining travel needs and motivation**

<b>Theorist(s)</b>	<b>Theory</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>Needs explained</b>
Aristotle	Theory of leisure	Leisure	Amusement, recreation, and contemplation
Freud	Psychoanalytic theory	General	Identity driven: sex, eating, and drinking; Ego driven: doing the right things; Superego driven: doing what is appropriate and normal for the society
Maslow (1943)	Hierarchy of human needs	General	Physiological, safety and security, social, psychological, and self-actualisation
Cohen (1972)	Motivational tourist typology	Travel	Different levels of willingness to seek adventure, risks, different, novel, and exotic
Plog (2001); Plog (1973)	Psychocentric or allocentric tourist typology	Travel	Introverted/extraverted tendencies defining willingness to travel to familiar versus unfamiliar places
Dann (1977); Dann (1981)	Push-and-pull theory	Travel	Person-related reasons (boredom and stress) that push to get away; Place-related reasons (attractions) that pull to go somewhere
Gray (1970)	Wanderlust/Sunlust	Travel	Desire to go from a known to an unknown place; Desire to go to mass tourism resorts
Crompton (1979)	No specific name	Travel	Escape from mundane, self-exploration and evaluation, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, and facilitation of social interaction
Krippendorf (1987)	No specific name	Travel	Recuperation and regeneration, compensation and social integration, escape, communication, broadening the mind, freedom and self-determination, self-realization, and happiness
Iso-Ahola (1982)	Theory of Seeking/ Escaping	Leisure	Personal and interpersonal escaping (routine environments), Personal and interpersonal seeking (intrinsic rewards) for optimal arousal
Pearce (1988); Pearce (1993)	Travel career ladder	Travel	Physiological (externally and internally oriented), safety/security (self- and other-directed), relationship (other- and self-directed), self-esteem/development (other- and self-directed), and fulfilment needs
Pearce and Lee (2005)	Travel career pattern	Travel	Novelty, escape/relax, relationship (strengthen), autonomy, nature, self-development (host-site involvement), stimulation, self-development (personal development), relationship (security), self-actualise, isolation, nostalgia, romance, and recognition

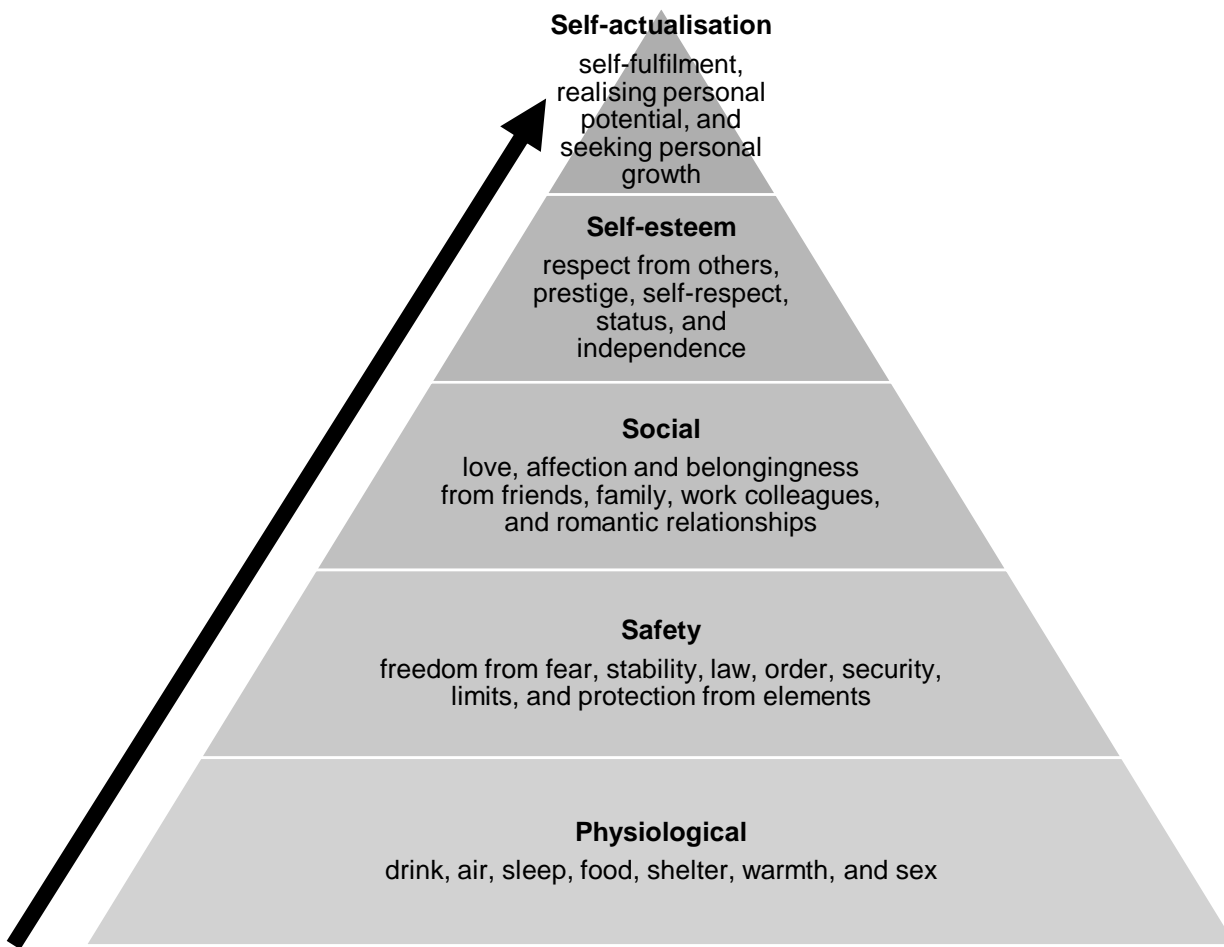
Source: Tasci and Ko (2017)

Several theories and model have been used for many years to explain what drives individuals to travel (Hosany, Buzova & Sanz-Blas, 2020). Examples include Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the 'leisure ladder' model, push-and-pull motivation, and the psychocentric-allocentric model. In spite of their differences, all of these theories concur that the study of motivation is based on human biological and psychological needs (Leong, Yeh, Hsiao & Huan, 2015). Therefore, understanding motivation can assist researchers to comprehend better the question of why and what motivates tourists to travel internationally. From a practical point of view, a better understanding of traveller motivations can assist destinations and tour operators to develop products that meet the needs of these travellers (Xiao, So & Wang, 2015).

### **2.3.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs**

Abraham Maslow was the first scholar to discover what needs individuals have, and how they can be attained, through his development of the hierarchy of needs in 1943. Known as Maslow's theory, this grand theory argues that individuals' needs are arranged in a hierarchy from lower order to higher order, such that, as one need is partially or sufficiently fulfilled, the individual moves to the next higher-order need (Maslow, 1943; Maslow, 1981). In other words, before satisfying the next most-important need, an individual will always attempt first to satisfy the lower-level basic needs. To be specific, all individuals aspire to move up through the hierarchy to the need for self-actualisation (Ho, Liao, Huang & Chen, 2015; Prayag, 2012). However, it is likely that their progress will end in failure if their lower needs are not met. In general, researchers use Maslow's theory when seeking to examine and understand human behaviour; however, because of its vast scope and its thorough clarification, it is also used in the field of tourism (Yousaf *et al.*, 2018). This theory divides human behaviour into five distinct levels of needs that are sorted in the hierarchical order of motivational importance, as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

**Figure 2.2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs**



Source: Maslow (1943)

Level 1: Physiological needs: At the base of Maslow's hierarchy pyramid are all the physiological needs that are essential for human survival, such as the need for sleep, food, air, and reproduction (Spielman, 2017). On the one hand, if these physiological needs are not met, the human body struggles to function. On the other hand, if these physiological needs are satisfied, then a new set of basic needs develops in the form of safety needs (Kassean & Gassita, 2013; Wijaya *et al.*, 2018). Applying the same concept to international tourism, physiological needs are the essential needs that tourists expect destinations to provide. These necessities include accommodation, food, escapism and excitement, arousal, and the visual attractions provided to tourists during their stay at a destination (Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán & Santa-Cruz, 2016; Šimková & Holzner, 2014). Some tourists make their choices on the basis of expecting the breath-taking beauty of the

destination (Tasci & Ko, 2017). If a tourist's physiological needs cannot be satisfied by the destination, they might choose to travel to a different destination where their basic needs are not at risk. According to Wong and Musa (2014), physiological needs are the most important natural requirement that motivates a tourist to travel.

Level 2: Safety needs: The second need in Maslow's hierarchy pyramid is associated with individuals' safety-related issues. Safety needs are regarded as the desire of individuals to be free of danger (Chen, Van Assche, Vansteenkiste, Soenens & Beyers, 2015; Tarlow, 2014). In general, freedom from fear, stability, law, order, security, limits, and protection from the elements are people's main requirements (Juvonen & Saarnikko, 2014). Applying the same concept to international tourism, tourists are attracted to destinations that can provide a secure and safe environment in which they feel protected from any threats during their stay (Yousaf *et al.*, 2018). Prior to travelling, tourists seek reassurance (through internet searches, the media, word-of-mouth, and government travel warnings) about the international destination's safety factors. For example, can the destination provide a calm and peaceful environment that is free from crime, terrorism, and natural disasters? In 2016, South African Tourism (2017) identified safety and security concerns as the main barrier inhibiting international tourists from travelling to South Africa. This point has been echoed by several researchers (Amir, Ismail & See, 2015; Ayob & Masron, 2014; Garg, 2015; Morozov & Morozova, 2016; Sudigdo, Khalifa & Abuelhassan, 2019; Zou & Meng, 2020) – that most tourists want to travel to a destination that is secure and safe from natural or human-caused disasters. This is because destinations that are clouded by security and safety concerns breed psychological trauma such as fear, and reduce tourists' wish to visit them (Rittichainuwat, 2013). According to Tasci and Ko (2017), safety needs can be the core motive or prerequisite for tourists to travel. In other words, if the destination does not provide a safe environment in line with the tourist's needs, they might choose to travel to a different destination where their safety needs will be met.

Level 3 and Level 4: Social and self-esteem needs: The third need in Maslow's hierarchy pyramid is linked with tourists' social-related issues. 'Social needs' refers to an individual's desire for acceptance, love, and affiliation in relationships with other people (Ozguner & Ozguner, 2014). In short, social needs imply the ability to develop or create a sense of social belonging by forming healthy relationships with other people. Applying the same concept to

international tourism, social belonging tends to motivate tourists to visit particular destinations in order to develop strong bonds with family, relatives, and friends, or to attend activities and social events that allow interaction between themselves and the local community (Yousaf *et al.*, 2018).

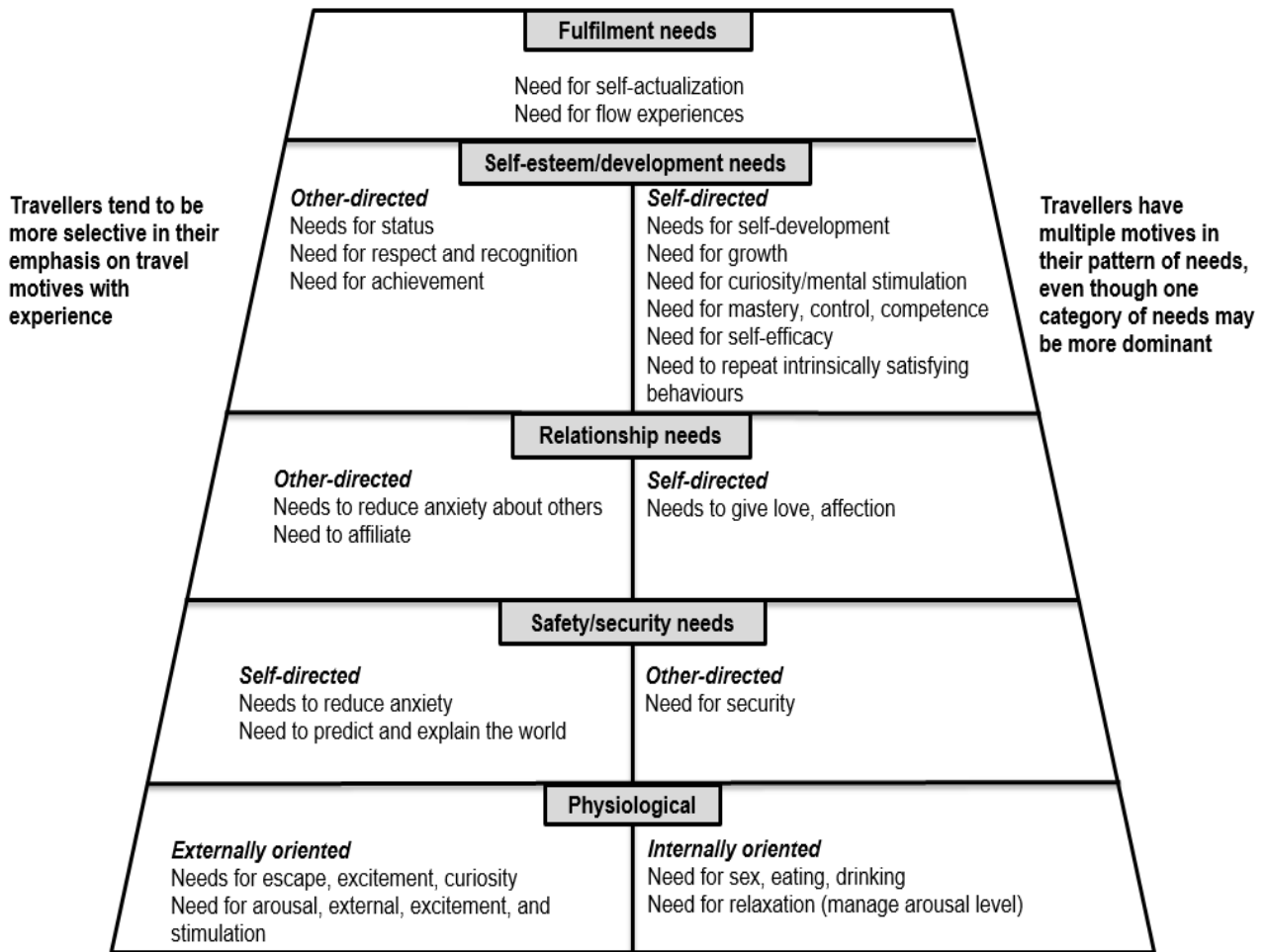
Once this social need is fulfilled, the fourth need in Maslow's hierarchy pyramid arises, which is associated with individuals' self-esteem needs. 'Self-esteem' or 'ego needs' represents the individual's desire for status, achievement, approval, and recognition from other people (Ozguner & Ozguner, 2014). Applying the same concept to international tourism, tourists travel to gain higher social status and to impress friends, relatives, and social groups (Yousaf *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, the self-esteem needs of tourists can be fulfilled when they share their trip information with others after returning home.

Level 5: Self-actualisation needs: Once self-esteem needs are relatively well met, the highest level of need in Maslow's hierarchy pyramid, self-actualisation or self-fulfilment, becomes essential. These needs are regarded as the desire of individuals to realise their own potential and capacities by achieving their specific personal potential, personal cultivation, and personal growth (Šimková & Holzner, 2014). Applying the same concept to international tourism, the self-actualisation needs of tourists can be satisfied when they are involved in tourism activities that are quite challenging, and so either benefit the society or improve their own special skills (Yousaf *et al.*, 2018)

### **2.3.2 The travel needs ladder**

The major criticism of Maslow's hierarchy of needs is that it focuses largely on individual needs, and does not offer comprehensive insights into tourism behaviour (Juvonen & Saarnikko, 2014). The travel needs ladder developed by Phillip Pearce is based upon Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Pearce, 1988). The ladder postulates that, as tourists accumulate travelling experiences, "they increasingly seek satisfaction of higher needs" (Pearce, 1991:46). In other words, tourists' motives to travel vary or adjust according to their travel experience. Like Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the travel needs ladder categorises five hierarchical steps that guide the behaviour of tourists as they move up or down the ladder. In other words, the travel needs ladder arranges tourists' needs into groups, from which various motivations will arise. Figure 2.3 shows the travel needs ladder.

Figure 2.3: Travel needs ladder



Source: Pearce (1988)

According to Tasci and Ko (2017), the travel needs ladder allows multiple needs to exist at the same time, and they can change according to place, time, situation, and social company during the trip. For example, a South African tourist might visit London mainly to escape from mundane tasks (a physiological need), to see family (a relationship need), and to see what the city is like (a self-development need). In brief, different tourists have different travel motivations, and so they will travel for different reasons.

### 2.3.3 The pull-and-push motivation

Another widely accepted theoretical framework in tourism research that explains human needs and motivations to travel is Dann (1977) push-and-pull motivation theory. In this theory, travel motivation is regarded as a factor that can pull or push tourists to travel (Dann,

1977; Yousaf *et al.*, 2018). Pull factors “represent the specific attractions of the destination which induce the traveller to go there...” (Dann, 1981:191), while push factors “deal with tourists’ motivation per se” (Dann, 1981:190). In a simpler explanation, pull factors are those attributes that attract a tourist to a destination, such as price, people, activities, familiarity, attractions, infrastructure, and accessibility, whereas push factors are those attributes that satisfy tourists’ desires for bonding, adventure and novelty seeking, rest and relaxation, and experiencing cultures (Prayag, 2012). For instance, a push factor determines ‘whether’ to travel while pull factors help the tourists to select ‘where’ to travel.

The interrelationship between the push-and-pull factors plays an important role in the tourist’s destination choice (Prayag & Ryan, 2011; Seebaluck, Munhurrun, Naidoo & Rughoonauth, 2015), as indicated in Figure 2.4. Jamaluddin, Wan Adnan, Noordin, Md Noor and Suhaimi (2018) argue that tourists consider whether their motivational needs (push factors) correspond with the destination’s attributes (pull factors) when they decide whether or not to travel to a destination. Depending on tourists’ psychological predispositions, interests, motivations, and individual circumstances, Kirilenko, Stepchenkova and Hernandez (2019) and Morrison (2019) recognise that the push-and-pull factors differ from one tourist to another.

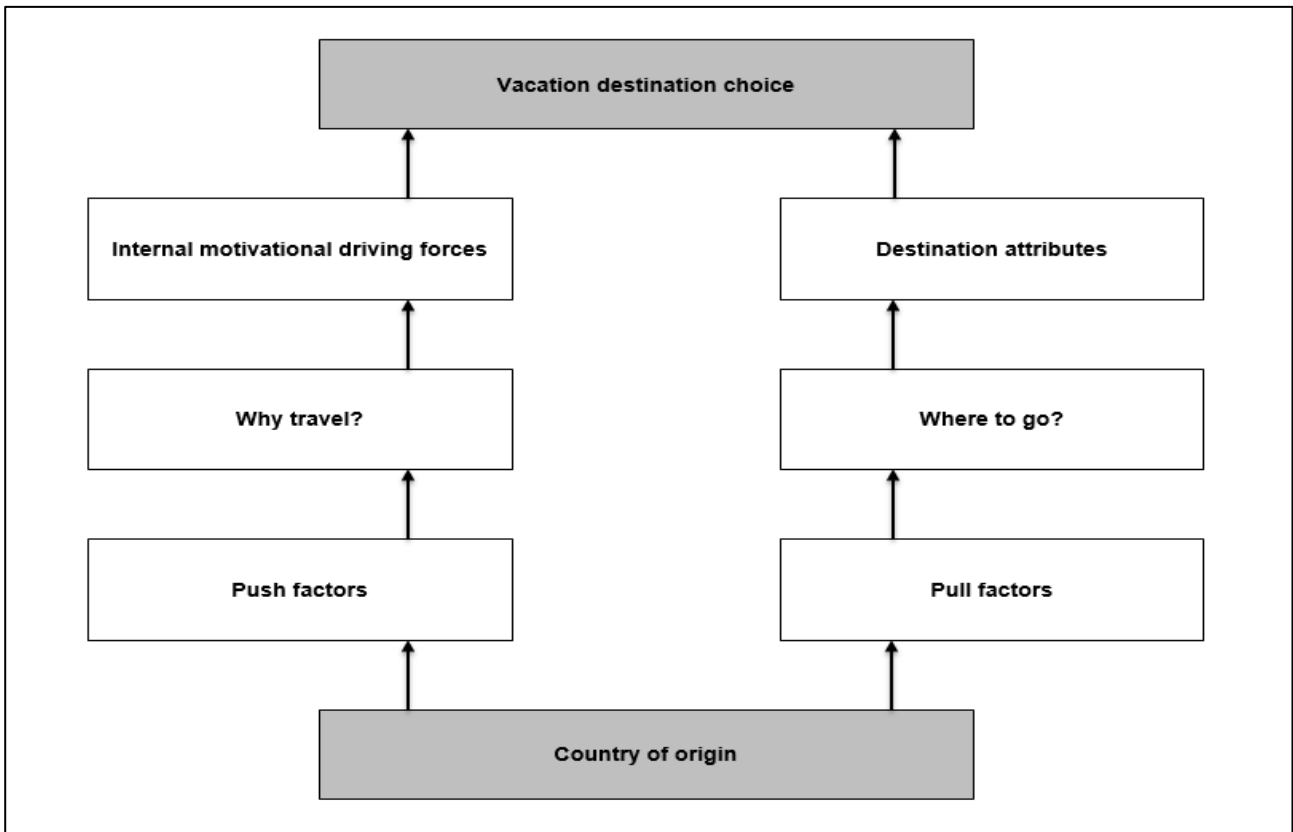
Since Dann (1977), several scholars (Kassean & Gassita, 2013; Masina, Boshoff & Sifolo, 2021; Mutanga, Vengesayi, Chikuta, Muboko & Gandiwa, 2017; Sastre & Phakdee-Auksorn, 2017; Whyte, 2017; Yousefi & Marzuki, 2015) have applied the push-and-pull motivation theory to clarify travel contexts. Kassean and Gassita (2013) found that tourists were motivated to travel to Mauritius for leisure purposes by the following push factors: relaxation, nostalgia, novelty, social interaction, and escape; and the following pull factors: landscape and scenery, climate and weather, beaches, the exotic atmosphere, flora and fauna, authentic Mauritian culture, and Mauritian hospitality. Masina *et al.* (2021) found that international tourists were motivated to travel to Manyeleti Nature Reserve, Mpumalanga, South Africa by the following push factors: Recreational activities, learning experiences, culture, and destination attractions; and the following pull factors: relaxation, enriching and learning experiences, adventure, novelty and social contact. Yousefi and Marzuki (2015) found that international tourists were motivated to travel to Penang, Malaysia by the following push factors: cultural and historical attractions, environment and safety, and

tourism facilities; and the following pull factors: ego enhancement, novelty and knowledge-seeking, and rest and relaxation.

Sastre and Phakdee-Auksorn (2017) found that British international tourists were motivated to travel to Phuket, Thailand by the following main push factors: to have fun, rest and relax, escape, do something new and exciting, as well as have an adventure; and the following main pull factors: natural sceneries and landscapes, beaches, hospitality and friendliness of the people, climate, and safety and security. Mutanga *et al.* (2017) found that international tourists were motivated to travel to Gonarezhou and Matusadona National Parks, Zimbabwe by the following main push factors: to seek knowledge and recreation, to appreciate the wildlife and feel close to nature as well as the following main pull factors: abundance of wildlife in the park, availability of different animal species in the Park, beautiful landscape, good opportunities to learn more about nature, friendliness of the local people, and harmonious local community park relationships. In his study of cruise tourism destinations, Whyte (2017) found that the push factors that motivated tourists to travel were stimulus avoidance (to relax mentally and physically, and to avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life), social (to build and develop close friendship with others), competence mastery (to challenge one's own abilities), and intellectual (to discover new things and places). On the other hand, he found that the pull factors (destination attributes) were the on-board environment (the ship's facilities are clean, and the accommodation and food are of a high quality), on-board social interaction (the ship provides opportunities to meet and socialise with other people), and on-board recreation (the ship has high-quality entertainment facilities, health and fitness facilities, and an exciting atmosphere).



**Figure 2.4: Interrelationship between push and pull factors**



Source: You, O'leary, Morrison and Hong (2000)

### 2.3.4 The psychocentric-allocentric model

The psychocentric-allocentric model developed by Stanley Plog (1973) is one of the major theories that have been used for many years to explain the human need and motivation to travel. This theory was based on the consistent and observable patterns of tourists (Juvonen & Saarnikko, 2014). In this theory, Plog (1973) attempted to connect personality characteristics, personal values, and lifestyles to tourist behaviour by classifying tourists as 'allocentrics' at one end and 'psychocentrics' at the other (Bayarsaikhan, Kim & Gim, 2020; Hryhorczuk, Zvinchuk, Shkiriak-Nyzhnyk, Slobodchenko, Matsola & Hryhorczuk, 2019). Allocentrics are represented by independent outward-looking people seeking adventurous holidays, while psychocentrics are non-adventurous, inward-looking, and insular tourists who are concerned with their own affairs (Šimková & Holzner, 2014). In other words, the allocentric tourist prefers to travel to off-the-beaten-track tourist destinations, while the psychocentric tourist is more likely to travel to well-known tourist destinations that are safe, familiar, and already popular (Karl, 2018). For example, Hong Kong leisure travellers have

been characterised as psychocentrics because they tend to seek comfort and a familiar atmosphere (Guillet, Lee, Law & Leung, 2011). Even though the idea of the psychocentric-allocentric theory is naturally relevant to some nationalities, it has been criticised for its applicability in the real world and its unidimensional description of traveller behaviour (Kim, Yilmaz & Choe, 2019).

In conclusion, it is evident that there is a link between needs, motivation, and behaviours. In particular, Lubbe (2003) found that motivation is a connecting factor between tourists' needs and their final travel behaviour. Hence, the next section discusses human behaviour in general and tourists' behaviour in particular. It highlights several theories that explain human behaviour and, in the end, settle on the theory that forms the foundation of this study to predict tourists' intention to visit a specific destination.

## **2.4 THE STUDY OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR IN TOURISM**

Pearce (2011:2) defined behaviour as “both observable actions and the internal cognitive and affective worlds of individuals” and “how they think, feel and react to tourism settings”. Tourist behaviour is not only important to policy and decision-makers, but also to people who might want to understand their own tourism experiences (Dann & Parrinello, 2009; Pearce, 2005). Even though a considerable number of academic articles on tourism behaviour exist (Cohen, Prayag & Moital, 2014; Horner & Swarbrooke, 2016; Pearce, 2011; Uysal, Perdue & Sirgy, 2012), there is still a shortage of social psychological studies in the field of tourism (Dann & Parrinello, 2009) – in particular, on destination choice (Ben-Elia & Avineri, 2015; Kirillova, Fu, Lehto & Cai, 2014; Qiu, Masiero & Li, 2018). This study will focus on some behavioural theories as they relate to destination choice.

Several studies (Karl, Reintinger & Schmude, 2015; Pestana *et al.*, 2020; Tham, Croy & Mair, 2013; Yiamjanya & Wongleedee, 2014; Yoo, Yoon & Park, 2018) have shown a high correlation between motivation and destination choice, mainly because motivation initiates the tourists' decision-making process. According to Guillet *et al.* (2012), for a tourist to select a destination to which to travel, the destination must first satisfy the tourist's motivations. Therefore, destination choice is one of the central components in tourists' travel decision-making processes (Liu, 2014). To attract international travellers to visit and revisit destinations, studying destination choice is of critical importance for those destinations.

## 2.4.1 Destination choice

Nicosia (1966:84) was the first scholar to articulate the concept of destination choice using the ‘theory of buyer’ behaviour, and he described it as “emerging from a funnelling process”. However, he could not explain the meaning of this process. An explanation of Nicosia’s process was offered by Howard and Sheth (1969) through the notion of ‘choice sets’ in the literature on consumer behaviour. They conceptualised the ‘funnelling process’ to explain how the potential tourist filters down the number of destinations until they reach a final choice. Howard and Sheth’s conceptualisation enabled future researchers such as Woodside and Sherrell (1977) to theorise choice sets for travel and tourism. According to Decrop (2010:93), using choice sets is “the way consumers first consider product or brand alternatives and then evaluate them in order to come to a final choice”. The destination choice process enables the assessment and judgement of tourists’ intention to visit destinations (Qiu *et al.*, 2018).

For some tourists, deciding on a destination to visit for leisure or a holiday is habitual and involves little effort; however, for other tourists it can be an extensive, multifaceted, and complicated process (Geldenhuys & Van der Merwe, 2014; Karl *et al.*, 2015). The decision-making process comprises a number of elements such as whether to travel or not, when to travel, where to travel and what to do, how long to stay, how much to spend, and with whom to travel (Alvarez & Brida, 2019; Bratić, Radivojević, Stojiljković, Simović, Juvan, Lesjak & Podovšovnik, 2021; Clavé, Saladié, Cortés-Jiménez, Young & Young, 2015; Karl *et al.*, 2015; Yoo *et al.*, 2018). Given these various elements, where to travel is a crucial conceptualisation of holiday choice that has to be made (Nyman, Westin & Carson, 2018).

Destination choice has been defined by various scholars as the process that involves creating a first set of imaginable destinations until a final single choice remains by applying an alternative reduction technique (Decrop, 2010; Um & Crompton, 1992). Hsu *et al.* (2009) had the same view but conceptualised destination choice as a tourist’s selection of a preferred destination from a set of other destinations. However, the definition of destination choice adopted for this study is the one advocated by Ankomah *et al.* (1996); Karl (2018); Tham *et al.* (2013), who defined it as a multi-stage procedure in which the alternative destinations that are ordered by the characteristics of hierarchy sets are reduced one by one until a final single choice is reached.

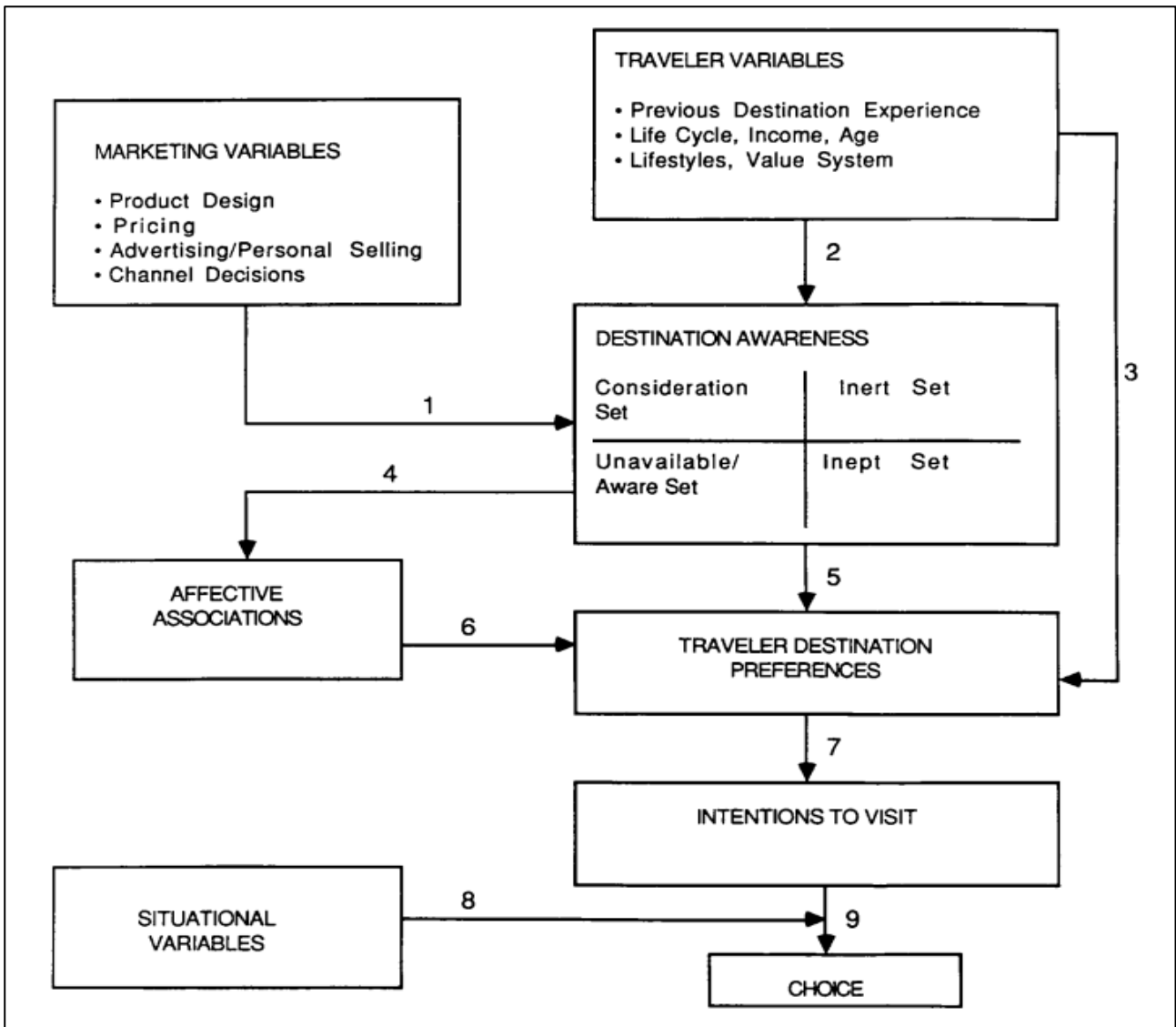
Various theories and models of human behaviour in the context of destination choice have been developed in an attempt to understand the tourist decision-making process (Dellaert, Arentze & Horeni, 2014; Karl *et al.*, 2015). These models have been developed to describe the strategies and processes and the psychological and socio-demographic factors that influence tourists' holiday planning process (Karl, Muskat & Ritchie, 2020; Poudel & Nyaupane, 2017). The general model of destination choice (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), the model of the leisure travel destination choice process (Um & Crompton, 1990), the value-attitude-behaviour model (Homer & Kahle, 1988), the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) are discussed in the sections that follow.

### **2.4.2 General model of destination choice**

The general model of destination choice was developed by Woodside and Lysonski (1989). This model recognises the fundamental role of preferences and perceptions in explaining tourists' decision-making processes about their destination choice. The model proposes that the destination chosen for a holiday is the product of a sequence of implicit and explicit decisions developed from a preliminary state of destination awareness, from which a specific destination favourite arises to form a travel intention (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989).

The general model of destination choice, presented in Figure 2.5, consists of eight variables and nine relationships. The destination choice process begins with 'destination awareness'. At this stage, the tourists go through emotional and cognitive appraisals of all the potential destinations after classifying them into four mental sets: a consideration set, an inert set, an unavailable and aware set, and an inept set (Dai, Wang & Kirillova, 2022). The process at the destination awareness stage is influenced by exogenous variables – namely, marketing variables (shown by relationship 1 in the diagram) and traveller variables (shown by relationship 2 in the diagram).

**Figure 2.5: General model of destination choice**



Source: Woodside and Lysonski (1989)

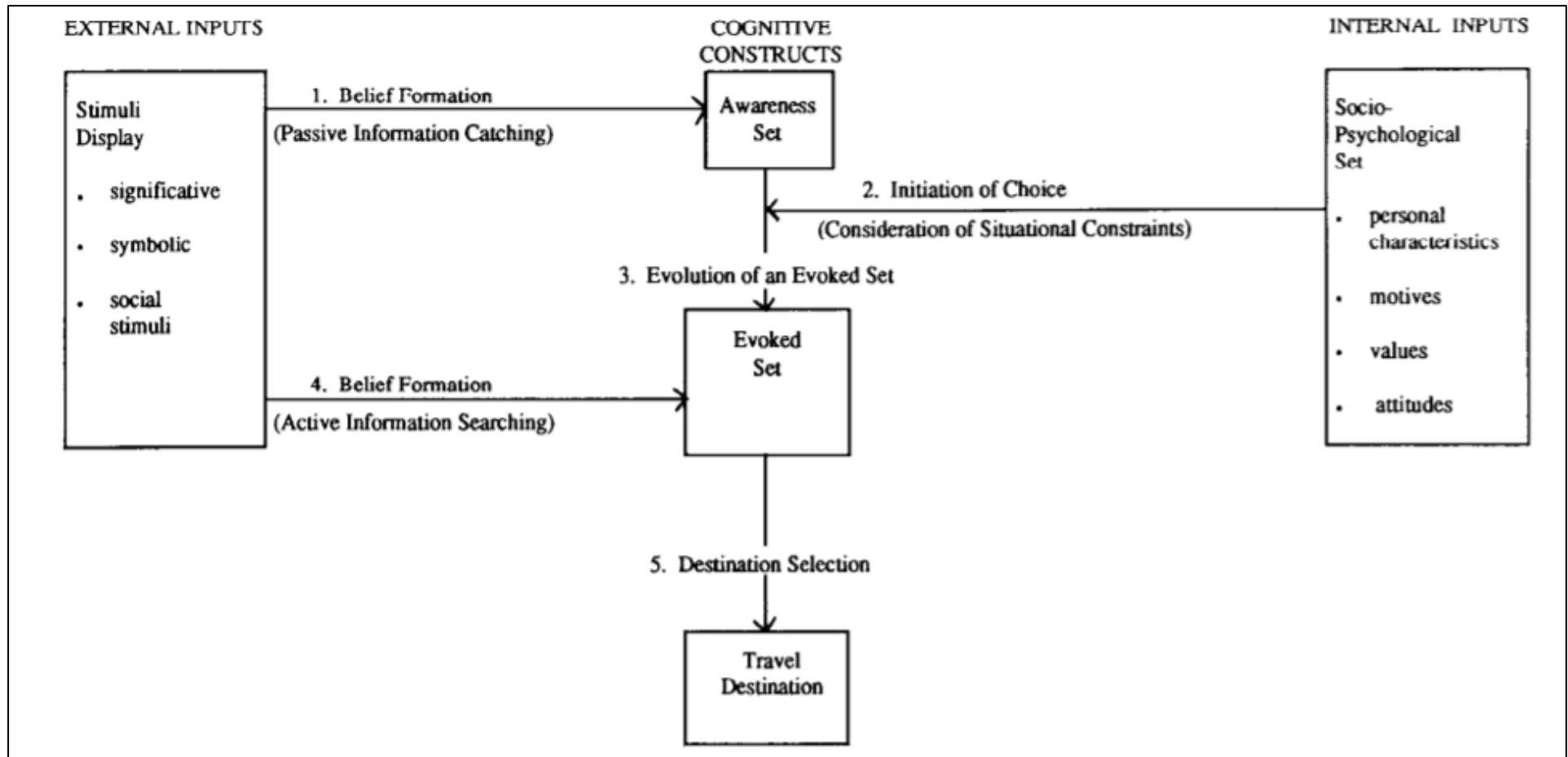
The process then moves to the 'destination preference' stage. This stage is governed by affective associations (positive or negative), shown by relationship 6 in the diagram, and by the tourist's characteristics (values, prior destination experience, or age), shown by relationship 3 in the diagram (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). The process then moves to the 'intentions to visit' stage. Intentions to visit, shown by relationship 7, indicates a decision stage before the final choice, when the tourist must consider the destination they have selected in greater detail (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). The destination they intend or plan to be visited can be influenced by situational variables (shown by relationship 8 in the

diagram) such as pandemic diseases (e.g., swine flu or Covid-19), which lead to the creation of particular preferences for different destinations (shown by relationship 9 in the diagram) prior to the final destination choice (Oppewal, Huybers & Crouch, 2010). Therefore, the final destination is influenced by situational variables and the intention to visit.

### **2.4.3 A model of the pleasure travel destination choice process**

A model of the pleasure travel destination choice process, also known as the tourists' destination choice model, was developed by Um and Crompton (1990), who conceived of a comparable arrangement to the model of Woodside and Lysonski (1989); however, they describe these sets in more detail before a final destination is chosen, as shown in Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6: A model of the pleasure travel destination choice process



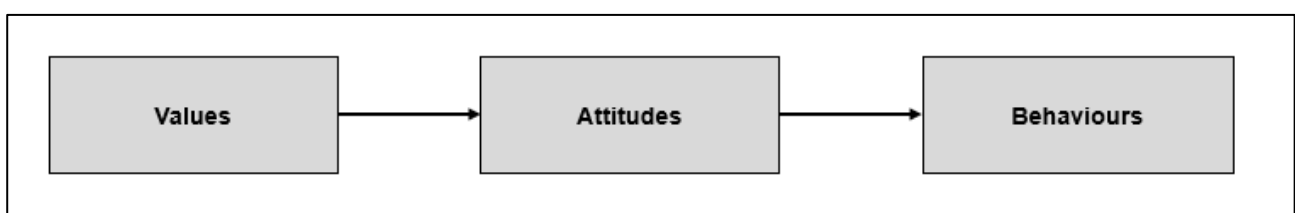
Source: Um and Crompton (1990)

This model consists of three stages: awareness set (which is an initial set composed of the lists of destinations of which the tourist is aware), an evoked set (this is simply a consideration set, as discussed in Woodside and Lysonski's (1989) model in the previous section), and the final destination choice (Li, Meng & Zhang, 2016a). Furthermore, Um and Crompton (1990) establish that the destination choice process is influenced by internal inputs (such as a socio-psychological set) and external inputs (such as a stimuli display), plus situational constraints (such as time and money).

#### 2.4.4 Value-attitude-behaviour model

The value-attitude-behaviour (VAB) model was first developed and tested by Homer and Kahle (1988) in a food shopping context. The VAB model proposes that the value dimensions of consumers of natural food influence their attitude towards food, which in turn influences their shopping behaviours. In other words, Homer and Kahle's (1988) findings suggest that attitude plays a mediating role between values and behaviour, and that values have no significant and direct influence on natural food shopping behaviours. The sequence of the model flows from values to attitudes, and then to specific behaviours, as indicated in Figure 2.7 below. The mediating role of attitudes between values and actual behaviour is the main emphasis of this model.

**Figure 2.7: Value-attitude-behaviour model**



Source: Homer and Kahle (1988)

The VAB model has been applied and tested in different settings, such as environmental psychology (Samarasinghe, 2012), consumer behaviour (Allen, Ng & Wilson, 2002), e-shopping behaviour (Jayawardhena, 2004), and choice of travel mode (Lee & Jan, 2015; Paulssen, Temme, Vij & Walker, 2014).



A small but growing number of studies in a tourism context have applied the VAB model to explain tourists' behaviour, such as destination visitation (Kiatkawsin & Han, 2017), eco-friendly hotel stays (Sadiq, Adil & Paul, 2022), Chinese tourists' behavioural intention towards tourist destinations (Li, Cai & Qiu, 2016b), tourists' behavioural intention in coastal tourism environments (Hasan, Ray & Neela, 2021), medical tourists' behaviour (Prajitmutita, Perényi & Prentice, 2016), and the willingness to pay more for organic food (Shin, Moon, Jung & Severt, 2017). For example, Kiatkawsin and Han (2017) investigated an alternative interpretation of attitude and the extension of the VAB model in the destination attributes of Chiang Mai in Thailand. Sadiq *et al.* (2022) examined the use of the VAB theoretical framework in the context of eco-friendly hotels, while Li *et al.* (2016b) used the VAB model to study the influence of values on affective attitude towards Chinese outbound tourist destinations and behavioural intention. Hasan *et al.* (2021) applied the VAB model to examine the mediating role of tourists' attitude towards visiting major beach destinations in Bangladesh between destination evaluative factors and tourist behavioural intention, as well as revisit, recommend, and word-of-mouth. In terms of tourists' willingness to pay more for organic food, Shin *et al.* (2017:119) found that "altruistic value significantly affects biosphere values, which in turn influences willingness to pay more for an organic menu via pro-environmental attitude".

Despite extensive support for the use of the general model of destination choice, the model of the pleasure travel destination choice process, and the value-attitude-behaviour (VAB) model, they all have several limitations. One of the weaknesses of the general model of destination choice is that it suffers from a lack of parsimony. This means that it is a very complex model to use; for example, testing some of the variables, such as affective associations and their relationships, is difficult (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). The limitation of the pleasure travel destination choice process model is that it is not attentive to emotions, it has measurement problems (for example, it lacks comparison at the abstract level), and it is not reflexive and so is not dynamic (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). The biggest drawback of using the value-attitude-behaviour (VAB) model is that it does not take into account other factors such as social norms and perceived behavioural control (Johnson, 2003b). Given these drawbacks, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) is used as this study's theoretical framework, and is discussed in the next section.

## 2.4.5 Theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behaviour

Ajzen and Fishbein addressed the measurement discrepancies of their attitude-behaviour model (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) by developing the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991). The TRA and the TPB are classic psychological models built on rational choice, and can hypothetically shed light on tourists' behaviour.

### 2.4.5.1 Theory of reasoned action (TRA)

According to the TRA, subjective norms and attitudes influence behavioural intention. Owing to its simplicity and clarity, the TRA has been one of the most dominant attitude-behaviour models in social psychology (Regis, 1990). The TRA was envisioned to explain all behaviours in which individuals could exercise self-control. The TRA posits that an individual's behaviour is influenced by their intention to perform that behaviour such that, in turn, this intention is a function of their attitude towards and subjective norms for the behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) further assert that individuals form different beliefs about the value of performing a behaviour because they have different normative beliefs and different experiences. Additionally, these beliefs establish attitudes and subjective norms sequentially, which then shape intention and the resultant behaviour. However, the biggest deficiency of the TRA is that it does not allow individuals to "exercise a large degree of control over the behaviour" (Montano & Kasprzyk, 2015:71). In other words, behaviours that are under volitional control do not always occur in the TRA. Therefore, to take care of the non-volitional deficiencies of the TRA, the TPB was introduced by integrating an extra variable of perceived behavioural control (PBC) as an element of behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991). The PBC component refers to an individual's belief that they have the means, opportunity, and ability to perform a particular behaviour (Montano & Kasprzyk, 2015).

#### **2.4.5.2 Theory of planned behaviour (TPB)**

According to Han and Stoel (2017); Yuriev, Dahmen, Paillé, Boiral and Guillaumie (2020), the TPB is one of the most commonly applied social-psychological theories for explaining human behaviour. Ajzen (2019) stated that over 2 000 empirical studies in behavioural science had applied the TPB by 2019. The TPB has been used in various contexts to predict human intentions and behaviours: smoking cessation (Norman, Conner & Bell, 1999), suicide behaviour (Conner, Conwell & Duberstein, 2001), healthy eating behaviour (Conner, Norman & Bell, 2002), green consumerism (Han, Hsu & Sheu, 2010), charity donation behaviour (Kashif, Sarifuddin & Hassan, 2015), social media use behaviour (Hansen, Saridakis & Benson, 2018), and tourists' health risk preventative behaviour (Huang, Dai & Xu, 2020) and travel intentions (Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016).

The TPB is grounded in the TRA. The foundation of the TPB is that individuals are rational and that, when making decisions, they tend to use a large amount of information (Ajzen, 2002). Concisely, the TPB argues that behavioural intentions influence behaviour. It is guided by three belief constructs: the expectations of others (normative beliefs), things that might prevent or support behaviour (control beliefs), and beliefs about consequences (behavioural beliefs), all influencing human behaviour.

- (a) 'Attitudes' is the "the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question" (Ajzen, 1991:188)
- (b) 'Subjective norms' is "the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour" (Ajzen, 1991:188)
- (c) 'Perceived behavioural control' is "the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour" (Ajzen, 1991:188)

In a tourism context, this means that the tourist's intention towards a specific behaviour will lead that tourist to perform the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; McCabe, Li & Chen, 2016). Therefore, the TPB suggests a positive correlation between the tourist's intention and their actual behaviour. In the context of destination choice, the TPB assumes that tourists' attitudes towards a destination, tourists' subjective norms about a destination, and tourists' perceived behavioural control over visiting a destination collectively determine intention to visit the destination of choice and, as a result, the visiting behaviour

(Ajzen, 2002:665). Han *et al.* (2011) employed the TPB to investigate the effect of a tourist visa exemption on Chinese tourists' intention to visit South Korea. They found that the strongest predictor of intention to visit South Korea was the expectation of a tourist visa exemption, followed by perceived behavioural control. Likewise, the study of Sparks and Pan (2009) of Chinese outbound tourists' attitude towards international travel demonstrated that subjective norms and perceived behavioural control were the strongest predictors of their intention to visit the destination of choice. Lam and Hsu's (2006) study of Taiwanese tourists' intention to choose Hong Kong as a destination of choice found that subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and an additional construct, 'past behaviour', were the best predictors of the intention to visit their destination of choice.

In this study, the TPB is used to predict tourists' intention to visit their destination of choice while taking visa requirements into consideration. The justification for the use of the TPB as the theoretical framework in this study lies mainly in its extensive use and its proven validity to understand and predict different forms of behaviour. In other words, the TPB's applicability has been substantiated in different tourism research contexts – for example: leisure participation (Ajzen & Driver, 1991), international travel and destination choice (Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010), Indian consumers' green hotel visit intention (Verma & Chandra, 2018), and attitudes towards wine tourism (Sparks, 2007), to name but a few.

The TPB has also been criticised over the years. The existing body of research (Chang, 1998; Han *et al.*, 2011; Lee *et al.*, 2010; Rise, Sheeran & Hukkelberg, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2006; Vallerand, Deshaies, Cuerrier, Pelletier & Mongeau, 1992) has found that the TPB's predictive ability is not perfect because, on average, the justified variance in intention ranges from 28% to 40%. These low percentages indicate that the TPB is still not accounting for variance in intention; thus it requires new additional constructs to increase its power to predict intention (Conner & Armitage, 1998). Ajzen (1991) supported Conner and Armitage's findings by pointing out that, once the core variables of the theory – attitude (AT), subjective norms (SN), and perceived behavioural control (PBC) – have been taken into account, the TPB can be modified by including extra constructs to increase the power to predict intention or behaviour. In other words, the TPB variables and base paths could be expanded and rearranged to meet research needs. Hence, new variables could be included in the

conceptual model to explore the target behaviour. This model modification process is described by Perugini and Bagozzi (2001:79-80) as ‘theory deepening’. Despite some criticism, the TPB has been extensively used to predict either destination choice or intention to visit. Chapter 4 will expand the TPB in detail.

## **2.5 INTERNATIONAL TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS**

It is essential to understand the constraints that keep tourists from travelling internationally for leisure purposes before one tries to identify the various factors that influence destination choice. Tourists who are considering international travel are generally heavily constrained (Dickinson & Peeters, 2014; Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014; Lawson & Lemke, 2011). Overcoming these constraints is expected to be significant in determining their travel intentions (Sparks & Pan, 2009). By definition, travel constraints are those factors that cause a lack of ability to start travelling, that lead to undesirable influences on the quality of the travel experience, that result in the failure to increase travel frequency, or that impede continuous travelling (Hung & Petrick, 2010).

Although constraints are not a new concept in the tourism literature, there is still little understanding of why some people do not travel despite the existence of affordable international destinations. A considerable body of research has pointed out that travel constraints are connected (Aziz & Long, 2022; Bonn, Cho, Lee & Kim, 2016; Karl, Bauer, Ritchie & Passauer, 2020; Kazeminia, Del Chiappa & Jafari, 2015; Khan, Chelliah & Ahmed, 2019; Khan, Chelliah, Haron & Ahmed, 2017; Lai, Li & Harrill, 2013; Rahi, 2018; Wang, 2014; Zhang & Schmude, 2021). Building on this argument, Ascher (1984) documented three dimensions of travel constraints that discourage tourists from travelling internationally: passport and visa requirements, customs duties, and foreign exchange controls. For example, if procedures are overly burdensome, applications are arbitrarily denied, or excessive fees are charged, then passport and visa requirements can inhibit international tourism for leisure purposes. Similarly, the higher the foreign exchange controls – in particular, the exchange rate of the destination choice – the less likely the tourist is to visit that destination (De Vita, 2014). Likewise, the higher the custom duties of the destination choice, the less likely the tourist will be to visit that destination, as they would limit their spending (Ascher, 1984).

Crawford and Godbey (1987) developed a travel constraints sequential model that starts with intrapersonal constraints, then moves to interpersonal constraints, and ends with structural constraints. Intrapersonal constraints relate to individual psychological state inhibitors such as a lack of interest, depression, stress, religiosity, and anxiety; interpersonal constraints are inhibitors that require the presence of a partner such as the co-participant's nonavailability; and structural constraints relate to not having sufficient resources to participate in leisure activities, such as a lack of time, opportunity, and money (Losada, Alén, Domínguez & Nicolau, 2016). In the context of nature-based tourism, Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002) employed the structural constraints and found that time and money were more important than the other constraints. This was consistent with the findings of other authors (Ajzen (1991); (Ajzen, 2002; Ankomah *et al.*, 1996; Decrop, 2010; Han *et al.*, 2011; Karl *et al.*, 2015; Um & Crompton, 1990).

Sparks and Pan (2009) identified two main constraints – external and safety factors – as inhibiting Chinese nationals from travelling to Australia. The following external constraints were documented: flight time, exchange rate, cost, the burdensome process of obtaining entry visas, and language barriers between Australia and China. Lai *et al.* (2013) assessed the constraints that inhibited outbound Chinese tourists from visiting the United States. Six kinds of constraint were documented: past travel experiences, more attractive alternatives, security concerns, time and distance constraints, monetary concerns, and difficulty in acquiring travel visas. However, their study confirmed that the burdensome process of obtaining entry visas was the major constraint inhibiting outbound Chinese tourists from visiting the United States. This finding echoed those in earlier studies of Li (2007) and Zhou, King and Turner (1998). Karl *et al.* (2015) documented eight travel constraints that varied according to the tourists and the destinations. Their study identified financial constraints, time constraints, family situations, danger at the destination, the travel companion, health constraints, the political situation, and climate conditions. Deichmann and Frempong (2016) identified the visa acquisition process, limited public transportation options, and deficient highway infrastructure as the main constraints that inhibited international tourists from visiting Ghana. Lin, Qiu Zhang, Gu and Peng (2017) investigated the barriers that hindered outbound Chinese tourists from visiting Japan. Their study identified history and nationalist sentiment, the current Sino-Japanese political crisis, visa policy restrictions, cultural distance, alternative tourism destinations, accidents and disasters, carry capacity

(accommodation), time and financial constraints, lack of information, and media influence as the main constraints inhibiting outbound Chinese tourists from visiting Japan. Considering the above, it is clear that the burdensome process of obtaining an entry visa is one of the major constraints hindering tourists from travelling internationally. Um and Crompton (1990) found that, when the international tourism destination satisfies specific motivations for leisure travel, tourists tend to have a more positive attitude towards visiting that destination choice. Building on Um and Crompton, Guillet *et al.* (2012) argued that, for a destination to be chosen, it should be perceived as having the ability to satisfy the tourist's travel motivations.

### **2.5.1 Factors influencing destination choice**

Destination choice is affected by various factors. Understanding these factors is of considerable interest to destinations that are attempting to increase their international tourism market share. Table 2.2 provides a non-exhaustive list of factors influencing destination choice. It shows that safety and security, budget and time, destination attributes (including accessibility), and socio-demographics are some of the factors that influence destination choice.

**Table 2.2: Factors influencing destination choice**

Source	Context	Factors
Hsu <i>et al.</i> (2009)	Studied destination preferences of Taiwanese tourists in making destination choices	Psychological factor, physical factor, tangible factor, social interaction, intangible factor, novelty seeking
Prayag (2010)	Investigated the influence of brand image assessment on international visitors' perceptions of Cape Town	Easy accessibility, climate, scenery, affordability, culture, political stability, gateway to other African tourist' attractions, the friendliness of the people
Wu <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Studied tourists' heterogeneous choices of destination and travel party	Tourism resources, facility fees, service quality, accessibility, weather conditions, political circumstances, tourists age, gender, and personality.
Guillet <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Discussed the factors influencing outbound Hong Kong travellers' destination choice	Socio-demographics, trip expenditure, travel party size, distance, duration of the trip
Karl <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Explored the factors affecting tourists' selection or rejection of a destination choice.	Accessibility, security, and safety, tourism flows from source markets
Seyidov and Adomaitiené (2016)	Examined factors influencing travellers' destination choice	Destination amenities, accessibility, culture, tourism infrastructure, environmental features, price, image
Kruger and Saayman (2010)	Comparing the travel motivation of tourists to Kruger and Tsitsikamma National Parks.	Knowledge seeking, activities, park attributes, nostalgia, novelty, escape and relaxation, nature experience, photography
Haarhoff (2018)	Investigated the tourist perceptions of factors influencing destination image in Kimberley resorts	Scenery, geography, accessibility, infrastructure, price, safety, amenities, and accommodation
Liu <i>et al.</i> (2018a)	Investigated the role of destination familiarity, geographic distance, and cultural motivation in destination choice	Cultural motivation, geographical distance, experiential familiarity, informational familiarity, self-reported familiarity
Zeng and He (2019)	Investigated factors influencing Chinese tourist flow in Japan	Travel purpose, time budget, prior visit experience, travel companion, opinions of others, destination resource, distribution of destinations, transportation expense, transportation network, visa policy, political relationship, weather condition, fortuitous events
Micić <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Examined the consequences of risk-related challenges in tourist destination choice	Price, service quality, terrorist acts, militant groups, migration crisis
Ezeuduji and Mhlongo (2019)	Investigated the tourist's perception of KwaZulu Natal as a destination brand image	Nature outdoors, food and wine, beaches, history and culture, and shopping
Heung and Qu (2020)	Explored Japanese tourists' satisfaction levels, and the likelihood of their recommending Hong Kong as a travel destination	People, overall convenience, price, accommodation and food, commodities, attractions, culture, climate, and image

Source: Researcher's own construction



### **2.5.1.1 Safety and security**

The safety and security of the tourist is a significant factor in destination choice. Safety and security is regarded as the desire of a tourist to be free of danger (Buda, d’Hauteserre & Johnston, 2014; Khan, Chelliah & Ahmed, 2017; Tarlow, 2014). Previous studies (Amir *et al.*, 2015; Fourie, Rosselló-Nadal & Santana-Gallego, 2020; George & Booyens, 2014; Ghaderi, Saboori & Khoshkam, 2017; Khajuria & Khanna, 2014; Zou & Meng, 2020) found that the perceived safety and security of a destination affected the tourism demand for that destination. For example, South Africa’s image was tarnished in 1998 by high crime statistics that even led international news media to label it “the crime capital of the world” (George, 2003:576). George (2003) found that, because of high crime statistics in South Africa, prospective tourists were cancelling their tours, tourists already in South Africa were unwilling to partake in activities outside their accommodation facilities, and tourists who left the country were unwilling to return to South Africa or to recommend it to other prospective tourists. More recent research has found that the high crime statistics in South Africa have not changed in the last 19 years (Lee, Olasehinde-Williams & Olanipekun, 2022; Malleka, Booyens & Hoogendoorn, 2022). Ultimately the implication of destinations that are associated with high crime statistics like South Africa is the decrease in tourism arrivals as most tourists prefer destinations that have high standards of safety and security (Cronjé & du Plessis, 2021).

As early as 1997, Sirakaya, Sheppard and McLellan (1997) listed Egypt, Ireland, Israel, the USA (Miami), and the former Yugoslavia as the most dangerous countries with high crime, violence, or terrorism incidents against tourists, while in 2003, George (2003) listed South Africa, the USA (Florida), Kenya, Egypt, Lebanon, Spain, and Yemen. A few years later, Miller (2019) found that crime, violence, and terrorist incidents against international tourists remained heavily concentrated in the following countries: the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Mali, Libya, Thailand, Colombia, Syria, Cameroon, Yemen, Pakistan, Somalia, The Philippines, Nigeria, India, Iraq, and Afghanistan. As of 2021, the most dangerous countries with high crime, violence, or terrorism incidents against tourists were Afghanistan, Yemen, Syria, South Sudan, Iraq, Somalia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Libya, the Central African Republic, Russia, Sudan, Venezuela, and North Korea (Global Peace Index, 2021). As shown by Karamelikli, Khan and Karimi (2020); Perry and Potgieter (2013); Tomazos

(2017), the incidence of high crime, violence, and terrorism leads to a drop in tourist volumes and revenue for destination countries.

### **2.5.1.2 Budget (money) and time**

The costs associated with travelling for tourism purposes are both monetary and non-monetary (Park & Jang, 2013). The monetary costs include the price of the desired tourism product, while the non-monetary costs include time, negative feelings, and the potential risks associated with travel (Park & Jang, 2014). According to Lai *et al.* (2013) and Park *et al.* (2017), money is the dominant perceived obstacle that influences tourists' destination choice. In times of economic recession, tourists have a tendency to suspend their travel plans, and in times of economic recovery or boom, tourists' international travelling increases (Tse, 2013; Xie & Tveterås, 2020). This shows that tourists are cost-conscious, as they have a tendency to assess the costs and benefits before travelling to any destination (Abubakar & Ilkan, 2016; Chen, Shang & Li, 2014; Pandža Bajcs, 2015). A number of studies (Chi, 2021; Khoshnevis Yazdi & Khanalizadeh, 2017; Peng, Song, Crouch & Witt, 2015; Seetaram *et al.*, 2014; Smeral, 2010; Ziramba, 2013) have established that tourists' assessment of costs is influenced by their income elasticity, their own price elasticity, exchange rate elasticity, and transportation cost elasticity.

International tourism is deemed a luxury item, with more than 1.0 income elasticity, which means that, as their income increases, tourists will spend a proportion of their disposable income on travelling (Peng *et al.*, 2015). Keeping all other things unchanged, a price increase will result in a decline in a tourist's intention to visit the destination. This indicates that some tourists are price-sensitive about the costs of the destination choice (Seetaram *et al.*, 2014). When choosing a destination, tourists are also exchange-rate-sensitive, because they use exchange rates as the proxy for destination prices (De Vita, 2014). This means that the higher the exchange rate of the destination, the less likely the tourist will be to visit that destination. Patuelli, Mussoni and Candela (2013) found that tourists are also sensitive to the costs of transportation to the destination. Hence, tourists will not choose destinations that have a high transportation cost elasticity. Therefore, the costs of international tourism could limit a tourist's destination choices.

Molz (2009) demonstrates that time matters in tourists' destination choices. In order to avoid the peak season, tourists need to determine the appropriate time of the year to visit the destination. Haldrup (in Dickinson & Peeters, 2014) argues that tourists should determine the time allocated to experience the destination to be visited, and not worry only about the time needed to reach the destination. The experience of time has habituated tourists to certain temporal rhythms when planning a destination to visit – in particular, during school holidays (Dickinson & Peeters, 2014). This element might limit the time availability of tourists travelling with school-going children (Bos, McCabe & Johnson, 2015; Corluka, 2019; Grigolon, Borgers, Kemperman & Timmermans, 2014; Ridderstaat, Oduber, Croes, Nijkamp & Martens, 2014).

### **2.5.1.3 Socio-demographics**

The term 'socio-demographics' refers to tourists' age, gender, marital status, education level, profession, income, past experience, subjective social class, and travelling party (Guillet *et al.*, 2011; Karl, 2018; Karl *et al.*, 2015; Li, Zhang, Mao & Deng, 2011; Prayag, 2010). For example, British tourists to Canada tended to be older than those going to the Caribbean region, and they travelled in groups more when going to the US than to the Caribbean region (Jang & Cai, 2002). Hong Kong tourists who were older, had a post-graduate degree, and earned higher incomes tended to prefer destination choices that were further away from their home countries than did younger tourists with a college degree who earned a lower income (Guillet *et al.*, 2011). Likewise, Portuguese tourists who were older tended to prefer visiting destinations in Africa more than did younger Portuguese tourists (Barros, Butler & Correia, 2008). Thus, socio-demographics characteristics influence a tourist's destination choice.

### **2.5.1.4 Destination attributes**

Seyidov and Adomaitienė (2016) define a 'destination' as a location with or without administrative and/or analytical boundaries where a tourist can stay overnight, relaxing or taking a holiday and breaking away from everyday life's distractions to have quality personal time. Destinations have important attributes or elements that attract tourists. The term 'destination attributes' is defined as the "positive or negative characteristics of a particular

destination on the basis of which tourists select, evaluate and identify the level of their satisfaction” (Chahal & Devi, 2015:5). Vareiro and Ribeiro (2007:200) argue that these attributes can act as gravitational forces that attract tourists. In other words, they can exert a significant influence on tourists’ destination choices, and explain why a tourist chooses one destination over another. According to a World Economic Forum (2019) report, its destination attributes determine whether or not tourists will visit a country. Destination attributes include, but are not limited to, health and hygiene, accommodation, accessibility, nature, culture, social atmosphere, climate, weather, and distance (Al-Ansi & Han, 2019; Becken, 2013; Biswas, Deb, Hasan & Khandakar, 2020; Chahal & Devi, 2015; El-Said & Aziz, 2019; Faghih-Imani & Eluru, 2015; Kim, 2014; Lee & Huang, 2014; Stemmer, Aas, Veisten & Lindberg, 2022). Table 2.3 lists several studies that have investigated destination attributes in the tourism context.

**Table 2.3: Studies that investigated destination attributes**

Source	Context	Destination attributes
Alegre and Cladera (2009)	Island destination	Beaches and sunshine, prices, social life, tranquillity, and hospitality
Xu and Chan (2010)	Touristic destination	Hedonics, relaxation and peace of mind, involvement, escapism, and recognition
Kim and Brown (2012)	Touristic destination	Relaxing with family/friends, meeting local people, experiencing adventure activities, experiencing aboriginal culture, and enjoying the scenery/landscape
Prayag and Ryan (2012)	Island destination	Accessibility of the destination, cultural and historical attractions, general level of service, variety and quality of accommodation, reputation of the island, and exoticness of the place
Vieira (2013)	Touristic destination	Accessibility, attractiveness, and basic services
Kim (2014)	Touristic destination	Accessibility, infrastructure, quality of service, destination management, local culture/history, physiography, place attachment, superstructure, and activities and events
Ramseook-Munhurrin, Seebaluck and Naidoo (2015)	Island destination	Attractions, sport, infrastructure, events, and travel environment
Jin, Lee and Lee (2015)	Water park	Fun, participation, immersion, and surprise
Ekanayake and Gnanapala (2016)	Touristic destination	Quality of tourist attractions, quality of services, and quality of tourism infrastructure
Ali (2016)	Touristic destination	Unique involvement, escape and recognition, interactivity, peace of mind, and learning
Mutanga <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Wildlife park	Recreation and knowledge seeking, appreciating wildlife, and feeling close to nature
Zhang, Wu and Buhalis (2018)	Mountain destination	Cultural attractions, tourism facilities, and natural attractions
Masina <i>et al.</i> (2021)	Wildlife park	Recreational activities, learning experiences, culture, destination attractions, relaxation, enriching and learning experiences, adventure, novelty and social contact

Source: Researcher's own construction

### 2.5.1.5 Accessibility

The tourist accessibility of any country can be a very complicated process, since it depends on overcoming a number of restrictions in each phase of the decision-making process (Lee, Agarwal & Kim, 2012). 'Accessibility' is defined by Kahtani *et al.* (2011:2) and by Dwyer and Kim (2003) as the ease with which a tourist can reach the desired tourist destination. Tian *et al.* (1996) argue that, because of perceived restricted access to their desired destination choice, tourists might choose a substitute destination. In other words, when accessibility is not available, tourists will be forced to abandon their desire to travel to that destination choice.

Factors such as transport infrastructure (Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2008; Prideaux, 2000; Sellner & Nagl, 2010), embassies and consulates (Santana-Gallego *et al.*, 2016), and government regulations such as visa requirements (Balli *et al.*, 2013; Enemu & Dim-Jacob, 2018; Karaman, 2016) seem to influence a destination's accessibility. The presence or absence of transportation infrastructure such as harbours, airports, pipeline networks, ports, road, rail, and the facilities associated with these networks determines the accessibility of the destination relative to other destinations (Dickinson & Robbins, 2007; Lew & McKercher, 2006; Salas-Olmedo *et al.*, 2015; Vulevic, 2016). The presence of the destination country's embassies or consulates in tourists' home country might also influence a destination's accessibility. Gil-Pareja *et al.* (2007) found that tourism flows from advanced economy countries to emerging economy countries increased by between 15% and 30% owing to the presence of embassies and consulates in the destination countries (in this case, those with an emerging economy). Related to the presence of consulates and embassies, government travel regulations such as visa requirements can also play a role in affecting the destination country's accessibility, either positively or negatively. In this research study, the focus is primarily on one accessibility factor: visa requirements.

## 2.6 THE CONCEPT OF VISAS

According to Lieberman and Lautenberg (1991), visa policies were not seriously enforced until after the Second World War, when borders and national security became important to many countries. Song, Lee, Reisinger and Xu (2017:667) defined a visa as an official acknowledgement, issued by the consular office in the country of residence (or origin) of tourists, that their application to enter the destination country for a specific purpose or transit has been reviewed and approved by the authorities of that destination country. Tandon (2021) notes that non-immigrant visas and immigrant visas are two over-arching categories of visa. Non-immigrant visas are for applicants who do not intend to become citizens of that country, while immigrant visas are for applicants who do intend to become citizens (White, 2017). Even though the requirements (or lack thereof) can generally differ, these two categories are applicable to every country in the world (Graham, 2021), and can be best discussed as four main sub-types of visa: tourist visas, also known as visitor visas (or pleasure travel visas); immigration visas, also known as naturalisation visas, including by marriage (to become a permanent citizen of that country); student visas (for studying abroad); and business or work visas (for working in another country, and include both non-immigrant and immigrant types) (Lee, 2018; Recchi, Deutschmann, Gabrielli & Kholmatova, 2021; Ro & Van Hook, 2022; Whyte, 2008).

The focus of this study is on tourist visas, which are for non-immigrants. There are three different ways to obtain tourist visas, depending on the country to be visited: traditional visas, e-Visas, and visas on arrival (Glaesser & Kester, 2013). Traditional visas require the tourist to complete a comprehensive application process (with various requirements) and submit their passport in advance to an embassy, high commission, consulate, or visa facilitation centre of the destination country they intend to visit before departure (Bianchi, 2006). E-visas is a type of a visa that can be obtained before departure from an official online platform of the destination country and requires neither the presence of the passport nor the physical presence of the applicant (Glaesser & Kester, 2013). Visa on arrival is purely a formality that tourists go through on their arrival at ports of entry or land borders (Vinokurov, 2009). The focus of this study is on traditional visas, which tourists have to obtain before departure.

## 2.6.1 Visa exemptions

'Visa exemption' is defined as the relaxation of visa requirements such "that travellers may present themselves at the border checkpoints without prior permission to travel to the country" (Mau *et al.*, 2015:1207). In other words, a visa exemption is merely a visa-free entrance, which is a privilege granted mainly to citizens of countries that have diplomatic ties with the destination country, or that share intergovernmental organisations, heritage, culture, and economic, and colonial links, and where there is a low security risk (Song *et al.*, 2012). Visa exemption is found most often in 31% of Central American countries and in 39% of Caribbean countries (UNWTO, 2013). A quick and simple approach is a visa on arrival, which is purely a formality that tourists go through on their arrival at ports of entry or land borders (Vinokurov, 2009). Visa on arrival is comparatively common in 30% of Southeast Asian countries and 60% of East African countries (UNWTO, 2013). The probable reason of a high percentage of visas on arrival in East African countries is that most of them are Francophone nations who advocated for the removal of visa restrictions among their member countries (Crotts, 2004; Whyte, 2008).

The benefits of visa exemptions to destination countries are well-recorded in the literature. Lee *et al.* (2010) studied the influence of visa exemptions on South Korean outbound tourism to Japan (Lee *et al.*, 2010). The researchers concluded that visa exemptions given to South Korean tourists resulted in a 20% increase in outbound demand to Japan. Cheng (2012) measured the factors influencing tourism demand of major source countries such as China, Japan, and Taiwan. Cheng established that tourism demand is significantly affected by visa requirement policies, even though the effects of exchange rates and price ratios are different among these countries. Focusing on the flow and profile of tourists from China to Hong Kong, Liu and McKercher (2014) studied the influence of visa exemptions. The researchers concluded that the relaxation of visa requirements through the 'individual visit scheme' in 2003 saw a significant increase in mainland Chinese residents visiting Hong Kong. Lawson and Roychoudhury (2015) provided evidence that the removal of visa restrictions for South Koreans visiting Japan led to a 25% increase in tourism flows to Japan in comparison with 12% a year earlier. Other studies such as Balli *et al.* (2013) revealed that introducing visa exemptions could lead to a significant increase in tourism flows to a destination country.



Nonetheless, there are disparities in tourists' levels of visa-free access to destination countries around the world (Czaika, 2017; Lawson & Roychoudhury, 2016; Lee *et al.*, 2010; Whyte, 2008). For example, Avdan (2013); Bangwayo-Skeete and Skeete (2016); Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014); Lan (2012); Liu and McKercher (2014); Mau *et al.* (2015) found that more tourists from emerging economy countries required a visa when travelling to a destination than tourists from advanced economy countries.

From the above discussion, it is clear that visa exemptions can encourage tourists to visit the destination country. However, as previously emphasised, countries impose visa restrictions mainly to reduce risks such as terrorism, illegal immigration, human trafficking, organised crime, and diseases associated with foreign nationals who visit the country. Despite these tough security measures for foreign nationals, strict visa requirements are yet to achieve their goals. One might call strict visa requirements an obstacle to progress, because they not only negatively impact the international tourism industry, but can also affect the social, economic, and political systems of destination countries. The next section outlines the end-to-end visa regime process.

## **2.6.2 Why countries impose visa restrictions**

Tourism, foreign direct investments (FDI), business, and international trade are economically desirable for governments (Neumayer, 2010). Yet some countries still impose stringent visa requirements on other countries, regardless of the considerable economic impact they have – especially on emerging economy countries, which are particularly susceptible because, since their economies are profoundly dependent on export revenues. Thus, the impact of tourism on them is more evident than on advanced economy countries (Lee & Chang, 2008:182). Stringent visa requirements include the visa processing time (also known as the visa application time), the costs of visas, required visits to the embassy, the chance of the visa being denied, and the number of documents required. Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014) argued that these elements directly contribute to tourists' negative perceptions of a destination.

Ironically, having stringent visa requirement policies can derail a country's branding and marketing efforts (Song *et al.*, 2012). However, they are also necessary because they can assist in curbing the entry of the unwanted or illegitimate individuals. In practice, stringent

visa requirement policies serve mainly to strengthen national security (Bianchi, 2006), control immigration (Whyte, 2008), and act as reciprocity marks in international relations (Lieberman & Lautenberg, 1991). They are also an economic tool through which revenue is generated (Ng & Whalley, 2008). Other reasons for having stringent visa requirement policies are to control tourism flows (Song *et al.*, 2012), to address over-tourism (Dodds & Butler, 2019a), and to control diseases (Rhymer & Speare, 2017). At the same time, countries face trade-off problems when it comes to visa requirement policies: on the one hand, opening the borders to allow the free flow of tourists is beneficial politically and economically; but on the other hand, controlling and monitoring the same people protects the nation from terrorists and the invasion of illegal immigrants. Each of these reasons for imposing visas is discussed next.

### **2.6.2.1 Border security**

As mentioned above, visa requirement policies were not seriously enforced until after the Second World War, when borders and national security became important to many countries (Lieberman & Lautenberg, 1991). Researchers argue that organised terrorism occurred most often when most countries had lenient visa requirement policies. Examples of such terror events include the 1998 bombings of the US embassies in Kenya and Tanzania (Rosenau, 2005), the 2001 Al-Qaeda terrorist attack on New York and Washington (Neiman & Swagel, 2009), the 2003 British consulate and the Hong Kong Shanghai Bank Corporation headquarters attacks in Turkey (Rodoplu, Arnold, Yücel, Tokyay, Ersoy & Cetiner, 2005), the 2004 Madrid train bombings, the 2005 London Underground bombings (Avdan, 2013), and the 2008 Mumbai terrorists attack on Taj Hotel (Schifrin, 2009).

Terrorist attacks on tourists result in the decline of foreign exchange receipts, thus allowing terrorists to inflict indirect costs and to gain political advantage over the government (Diriye, 2015; Goldman & Neubauer-Shani, 2017; Sönmez & Sönmez, 2017; Yap & Saha, 2013). Therefore, tourists' decision not to travel – or to travel to safer destinations – results in terrorism inflicting substantial losses on the country (Albu, 2016). A good example of how terrorists can damage the economy of a country is Egypt, where tourism receipts dropped significantly after 1992 (Adeloye & Carr, 2019; Shomul & Alghafri, 2018; Tomazos, 2017). In brief, all of these terrorism events unsettled global business and the tourism industry.

They created psychological trauma, such as a fear of travelling among tourists and foreign governments alike, thus jeopardising the security and safety of the worldwide tourism industry. Most countries responded to these terror attacks by enhancing and tightening their border controls through stringent visa requirement policies (Andreas & Biersteker, 2014; Avdan, 2018; Getmansky, 2020; Hipsman & Meissner, 2013; Rudolph, 2017).

Different researchers have highlighted different perspectives on why stringent visa requirement policies are important for national security. Torpey (2000) and Torpey (2018) asserts that stringent visa requirement policies are the only reliable options left that a country can use to counter national security threats such as terrorism. According to Siskin and Wyler (2013a), visa restrictions are important in curtailing human trafficking across the world. In contrast, some researchers have criticised governments for using terrorism as the main reason for intensifying stringent visa requirement policies. As explained by Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014), in recent decades tragedies caused by domestic terrorism have exceeded those caused by terrorism perpetrated by foreigners. In other words, on average, the perpetrators of terrorism were most likely to be citizens; so, targeting foreigners with visa restrictions is not justifiable. Similarly, Neiman and Swagel (2009) found that visa restrictions were the main factor leading to a decrease in tourism volumes in the United States (US) following the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001. This crisis deterred potential inbound tourists from visiting the US because it increased their psychological risk perceptions, such as a fear of being attacked by terrorists and the inhumane security screening when crossing US borders (Li, Blake & Cooper, 2010).

Similarly, autocratic and repressive regimes such as North Korea, Afghanistan, Syria, Libya, Somalia, and Myanmar impose more visa restrictions under the guise of national security (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014). The main concern of these regimes is the infiltration of foreign influence on their population through tourism, which might undermine their grip on power (Neumayer, 2010). Furthermore, it is posited that the more autocratic and repressive a regime is, the more it is threatened by open borders (Keck-Szajbel, 2013; Sager, 2020; Schiek, 2018; Schmid, 2016; Więckowski & Timothy, 2021). Additional reasons to impose visa restrictions include illegal immigration (Whyte, 2008), reciprocity (Lieberman & Lautenberg, 1991), and to generate revenue (Ng & Whalley, 2008).

### **2.6.2.2 Illegal immigration**

Illegal immigration is the permanent movement of people into a destination country owing to irregular border entries, asylum seeking, and the permanent overstaying of people who entered the destination country legally (Czaika & Hobolth, 2016). To a greater extent, illegal immigration is a result of organised crime, which can include human trafficking and smuggling. In general, visa restrictions are mainly imposed by advanced economy countries to keep away immigrants – in particular, those from emerging economy countries (Finotelli & Sciortino, 2013; Golash-Boza, 2015; Mau *et al.*, 2015). One could argue that, because illegal immigrants come from poor emerging economy countries to Western advanced economy countries, it would be reasonable to impose visa restrictions on citizens from emerging economy countries.

Evidence in the literature indicates that illegal immigration is on an upward trajectory around the world because of stricter border controls, the enlargement of regions to allow free movement of people (such as in the Schengen countries), and increasing imbalances in demographics (such as in Japan and Canada) (Alscher, 2017; Brouwer, van der Woude & van der Leun, 2018; Hollifield, Martin & Orrenius, 2014; Orrenius & Coronado, 2017; Verstraeten, Mijovic-Kondejewski, Takeda, Tanaka & Olson, 2015). In 2015, European Union (EU) member states faced illegal border crossings by 1 800 000 migrants, the majority of whom were asylum seekers who were successful in legally applying for international protection (Filippov, 2016; Karatrantos, 2021; Parkes & Pauwels, 2017; Perkowska, 2020; Tziarras, 2017).

Researchers have varying perspectives on whether visa restrictions are effective in curbing illegal immigration. On the one hand, a small but growing number of authors (Beine, Docquier & Schiff, 2009; Bigo & Guild, 2017; Brochmann & Hammar, 2020; Czaika & de Haas, 2017; Finotelli & Sciortino, 2013; Giuffré & Moreno-Lax, 2019; Hatton, 2011; Ortega & Peri, 2013) argue that visa restrictions have been largely effective, even if not perfect, in controlling immigration flows. On the other hand, a large body of research (Aas, 2013; Auriol & Mesnard, 2016; Barthel & Neumayer, 2015; Czaika & Hobolth, 2016; De Haas, Czaika, Flahaux, Mahendra, Natter, Vezzoli & Villares-Varela, 2019; Hatton, 2011; Paoli, 2015) argues that efforts to curb illegal immigration using visa restrictions have failed.

Those in favour of the visa restrictions, such as Brochmann and Hammar (2020), have argued that, because visa requirement policies have become sophisticated, it is now much easier for governments to detect illegal immigrants – in particular, those who overstay. Finotelli and Sciortino (2013) found that the visa restrictions introduced in the 1980s to control immigration flows by tightening border controls were effective and successful only when there was collaboration among neighbouring states. According to Czaika and de Haas (2014:8), visa restrictions “have played an increasingly important role in preventing people from certain countries entering a national territory”. Czaika and De Haas called this the ‘counterbalanced immigration-reducing effect’, which occurs when visa restrictions have decreased circular migration and, ironically, have encouraged long-term settlement. They further defined this phenomenon as the significant reduction of both immigration and emigration. In other words, increasing visa restrictiveness leads to a lower flow of migrants by promoting long-term settlement. The findings of Bigo and Guild (2017) indicated that visa restrictions controlled immigration across the EU border by profiling people by nationality, such that obligatory visas were imposed on high-risk countries’ nationals. Giuffré and Moreno-Lax (2019) asserted that visa restrictions assisted Turkey not only to fight against smuggling/trafficking and increase its border security, but also formally and informally to repatriate migrants and refugees to Afghanistan, Iraq, Pakistan, and Syria.

Arguing against visa restrictions, Czaika and Hobolth (2016) indicated that every 10% increase in visa rejections, particularly for short-stay visas, would result in an increase of irregular border entries of between 4% and 7%. Their finding suggested that the effect of visa restrictions increases immigration flows rather than reducing them. Hatton (2011) challenged the view that visa restrictions are effective in controlling immigration flows by providing evidence that there was a significant reduction in asylum applications to Western destination countries in Australasia, North America, and Europe, and that this could be attributed mainly to a decline in civil conflict and terrorism in the origin countries rather than to the effectiveness of visa restrictions. Therefore, one could say that fixing the so-called root causes in the country of origin would have a significant impact on the number of unwanted illegal immigrants, particularly in advanced economy countries. Furthermore, Barthel and Neumayer (2015) claimed that the imposition of visa restrictions by destination countries had left many migrants with no option but to rely on human smugglers, as they

“can only file an asylum application from within the target country”. This issue of dangerous clandestine smuggling networks was echoed by Aas (2013) and Auriol and Mesnard (2016).

### **2.6.2.3 Reciprocity**

A bilateral agreement is the mutual reliance between two countries on acquiring goods and services they cannot produce for themselves, which eventually results in the elimination of all trade barriers and visas (Mansfield & Pollins, 2009). Visa restrictions can also be based on the principle of reciprocity between countries. Reciprocity visas are bilateral visa agreements between two countries, such that country A can either exempt citizens of country B from needing visas or demand that they have visas, in reaction to the application of a comparable visa policy by country B (Woyo, 2017). However, it should be noted that citizens from countries outside this network body (say, Country C) would still require a visa to travel. Reciprocity visas are influenced by fluctuations in the relations between countries in respect of bilateral agreements, intergovernmental organisations, and former colonial links (Crotts, 2004; Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014; Whyte, 2008).

A case in point is the volatility of the international relations between Brazil and the US and of those between South Africa and New Zealand. According to Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014), in 2012 international relations between the US and Brazil reached their lowest ebb, resulting in a diplomatic domino effect: Brazil imposed \$150 visa fees on US citizens in retaliation for the US imposing similar visa fee conditions on Brazilian citizens. Similarly, in 2016, New Zealand revoked visa exemptions for South Africans citizens because it cited an increase in South Africans overstaying beyond the three-month limit when they visited New Zealand (South Africa Home Affairs, 2016). In 2017, South Africa reciprocated with similar visa requirement for New Zealand citizens.

Retaliatory action might be effective in the short term and not in the long term, because they might result in protectionism (visa restrictions), which can damage economic growth, particularly in respect of international tourism flows. This was echoed by Neumayer (2010), who found that visa restrictions reduced bilateral tourism flows by between 52% and 63%. He also argued that, because emerging economy countries are busy developing their own tourism industries, reciprocity is more damaging economically to them than to advanced economy countries. For example, Artal-Tur, Pallardó-López and Requena-Silvente (2016b)

found that visa restrictions in emerging economy countries decreased inbound tourism by roughly 20%, while the impact on inbound tourism to advanced economy countries was statistically insignificant.

Reciprocity visas are also influenced by the intergovernmental organisations of which a country is a member. As a sign of openness among countries, intergovernmental organisations such as the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), the Arab League, the British Commonwealth, the EU, SADC, and the Francophone nations in Africa advocate for the removal of visa restrictions among their member countries (Crotts, 2004; Whyte, 2008). An example of where visa restrictions were removed between member countries is the Schengen region in Europe. This region has adopted highly restrictive visa rules for the past two decades (Kuzey, Karaman & Akman, 2019). However, the advantage of this visa system to the citizens of the Schengen countries is that they can travel freely from one country to the next with only a valid identification card; and its advantage to tourists is that they can undertake unrestricted travel between member countries (Douglas, Lubbe & Kruger, 2012).

Reciprocity visas are also influenced by colonial links. Countries that are members of the above-mentioned intergovernmental organisations extend visa-free privileges to fellow member countries; and countries that have colonial links do not impose strict reciprocal visas on one another (Neumayer, 2010) because they share cultural affinities (Andrucki, 2010; Perks & Ferreira, 2017). For example, citizens from Commonwealth member countries experience greater visa freedom when travelling within member states; similarly with citizens from Francophone countries (Whyte, 2008).

#### **2.6.2.4 Revenue generation**

The literature contains several studies (Avdan, 2013; FaladeObalade & Dubey, 2014; Lawson & Roychoudhury, 2016; Parida, Bhardwaj & Roy Chowdhury, 2018; Vetrivel & Poddar, 2022) that found that destination countries can use visa requirement policies as an instrument to generate revenue, and specifically foreign currency. These countries do this by increasing the fees either for visa applications or for visas on arrival (VOA) (FaladeObalade & Dubey, 2014; Song *et al.*, 2012). In most cases, the revenue generated

is diverted to finance embassies, high commissions, or consulates (EHC), and visa facilitation centre operations in the tourists' country of origin (Beenstock, Felsenstein & Rubin, 2015:359). For instance, the Australian government previously charged each Chinese visitor \$135 for a three-year multiple-entry visa, but from July 2017 it increased to \$140. However, even though price hikes are inevitable, Chinese long-haul destination visitors – like any other tourists – are very sensitive to price changes, no matter how small the price hikes might be (Habibi, Rahim, Ramchandran & Chin, 2009; Pham, Nghiem & Dwyer, 2017; Schiff & Becken, 2011). Therefore, possibly through deflection effect, Australia in the long term might lose one of its largest inbound tourism markets. Czaika (2017) defined the deflection effect as tourists choosing alternative destinations because they cannot afford high visa fees. Similarly, after 2010, Egypt gave visas on arrival to tourists from Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries such as Australia, The United States, Canada, and European Union member states at a fee of \$40 (Neumayer, 2010). Forsyth and Dwyer (2002) argued that countries such as Australia and Egypt that use visa requirement policies as 'taxation cash cows' are doing it at the expense of growing their tourism industry. In other words, countries that focus more on revenue generation will literally 'kill' the tourism industry because they are failing to consider the budgetary implications for future tourism market growth (Pham, Nghiem & Dwyer, 2018:123).

#### **2.6.2.5 To address over-tourism and control-tourism flows**

Over-tourism is defined as “the situation in which the impact of tourism, at certain times and in certain locations, exceeds physical, ecological, social, economic, psychological, and/or political capacity thresholds” (Peeters, Gössling, Klijs, Milano, Novelli, Dijkmans, Eijgelaar, Hartman, Heslinga & Isaac, 2018:22). Over-tourism includes threats to culture and heritage, the overall context, damage to nature, alienated local residents, overloaded infrastructure, and a degraded tourist experience (McKinsey, 2017). The following tourism destinations have been reported to suffer from over-tourism: Rio de Janeiro, Barcelona, Amsterdam, Palma de Mallorca, Lisbon, Reykjavik, Berlin, Hong Kong, Prague, Santa Monica, Belfast, Venice, Shanghai, and Dubrovnik (Milano, 2017; Novy & Colomb, 2016). Dodds and Butler (2019a) found that the relaxed visa requirements between Thailand and China resulted in an increase in the number of Chinese visitors to Thailand of 1 032% (from 950 000 arrivals in 2006 to 9.8 million in 2017). According to Cheung and Li (2019), since over-tourism is



caused by governments that adopt an expansionary travel visa policy to boost the economy, it could also be addressed by governments imposing stringent visa requirements. Similar sentiments were expressed by Seraphin and Ivanov (2020), who established that destination countries imposed stringent visa requirements to address over-tourism.

Destination countries impose stringent visa requirement policies to control the movement of international tourist visits (Song *et al.*, 2012; Whyte, 2008). For example, because of economic disparities, particularly in income levels, between mainland China and the two Special Administrative Regions (SARs) of China (Macau and Hong Kong), Cho (2017) established that mainland Chinese require a visa to visit these two SARs. The purpose of controlling the movement of people between these regions is to sustain economic security by controlling “the number of workers, hold wages steady, and maintain services” (Song *et al.*, 2012:398).

#### **2.6.2.6 Disease control**

In times of pandemic, destination countries affected by a virus take extreme measures to stop the pandemic by imposing visa restrictions on inbound international tourists. Pandemics that have threatened human life and disrupted the global tourism and hospitality industry since the year 2000 include the 2003 severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) outbreak (Gössling, Scott & Hall, 2020), the 2013 ebola virus disease (EVD) (Rhymer & Speare, 2017), the 2015 Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS) (Gössling *et al.*, 2020), and the 2020 coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic (Worldometer, 2022). Rhymer and Speare (2017) found that, between 2013 and 2016, international inbound and outbound tourism and tourism receipts decreased in West African countries because of the imposition of visa restrictions by several nations to curb the Ebola virus pandemic. Abdulla, Nain, Karimuzzaman, Hossain and Rahman (2021) established that most of the countries among the 20 that were seriously affected introduced or brought back stringent visa requirement policies as their first preventive action plan to control the outbreak of Covid-19. Other action plans to control the outbreak of Covid-19, such as limiting public gatherings, declaring an administrative emergency, partial lockdowns, and isolation policies followed later. Nonetheless, when compared with other pandemics, Covid-19’s global presence caused more substantial disruptions to human life and economies (Anderson, Mitchell & Maples,

2021; Cruz-Cárdenas, Zabelina, Guadalupe-Lanas, Palacio-Fierro & Ramos-Galarza, 2021; Jaeger, Vidal, Ares, Chheang & Spinelli, 2021; Liu & Stern, 2021). Tourism and the hospitality industry were among those that were severely hit by Covid-19, and so they might take more time than expected to recover (Awan, Shamim & Ahn, 2020; Kumar, 2020; Thams, Zech, Rempel & Ayia-Koi, 2020; Vărzaru, Bocean & Cazacu, 2021). The impact of visa requirement policies is discussed next.

### **2.6.3 Impact of visa requirement policies on the destination country**

A number of studies have shown that restrictive visa requirement policies decrease international inbound tourism flows to destination countries (Czaika & de Haas, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2010; Ortega & Peri, 2013; Rhymer & Speare, 2017; Siskin & Wyler, 2013b). In contrast, visa requirement policies that are lenient (e.g., those that grant exemptions) increase international inbound tourism flows to destination countries (Bangwayo-Skeete & Skeete, 2016; Karaman, 2016; Li & Song, 2013; Neumayer, 2010; Neumayer, 2011). The various impacts of visa requirement policies on destination countries are discussed next.

#### **2.6.3.1 Social impact**

In relation to the social impact of visa requirement policies, Prideaux (2005) found that the quality of attractions in destination countries such as South Korea stimulated international tourist flows by allowing tourists to sample exotic cuisine, view unique flora and fauna, participate in new experiences, shop for products, and visit heritage icons and national cultural sites. However, the prevalence of visa restrictions has caused difficulties in increasing tourism flows to South Korea (Lee & Kim, 2018; Li & Song, 2013; Song *et al.*, 2017). Icons and images also stimulate international tourist flows to destination countries. Milman and Pizam (1995) found that destination countries use images to shape tourism motivations, while tourists use them as a way to gain insight into destinations that they are planning to visit. For example, Australia actively supports its tourism icons such as Aboriginal culture, the Great Barrier Reef, the Sydney Opera House, Uluru, and its beaches. However, the prevalence of visa restrictions has caused difficulties in increasing tourism flows into Australia (Sparks & Pan, 2009).

With regard to the social impact (on cultural exchange) of visa requirement policies, Yang *et al.* (2018) argued that culture is an important destination choice factor. Reisinger and Crofts (2010) found that globalisation, immigration, and numerous cross-cultural exchange events increased cultural cohesion in such a way that tourists' desires could be fulfilled without difficulty in various cultural contexts. In a similar way, Thailand's reputation as a country that has a relaxed lifestyle and an exotic culture might be a factor in boosting international tourism specifically from Westerners, while Australia's reputation is that of a friendly destination that shows hospitality to international tourists (Prideaux, 2005). However, the prevalence of visa restrictions has caused difficulties in increasing tourism flows into countries (Artal-Tur, PallardÓ-LÓPez & Requena-Silvente, 2016a; Dwyer, 2015; Esquivias, Sugiharti, Rohmawati, Setyorani & Anindito, 2021). Likewise, the UK is seen by international tourists as the global centre of arts and culture (Asquith *et al.*, 2019). There too, the prevalence of visa restrictions has caused difficulties in increasing tourism flows to the UK. For example, Asquith *et al.* (2019) found that a number of African artists intending to visit the UK for major arts and culture festivals, such as the Edinburgh Festival, were denied visas without rational reasons being given. This damaged the UK's reputation as the global centre of arts and culture, and caused a loss of income for most of its festivals.

'People-to-people links' refer to interactions between the citizens of two countries without any official guidance or interference at various levels (Selvakumar, 2020). Asquith *et al.* (2019) argued that the majority of personal contact links are created during travel, study, or involvement in church or voluntary groups, NGOs, and charities. In some cases, the links exist because of perceived cultural affinities and ancestral privileges – for example, between the UK and South Africa (Andrucki, 2010). The social impact (on people-to-people linkages) of visa restrictions is also best exemplified by events in the EU and the US. For example, the admission of Lithuania and Poland into the EU in 2004 meant the introduction of the Schengen visa regime with respect to Russia, which made it very difficult for Kaliningrad people (the ethnic composition of the Kaliningrad people includes Russians, Ukrainians, and Belarusians) residing in both countries to interact with one another (Domaniewski, 2016). Currently most Kaliningrad people are based in Russia. Similarly, following former US President Donald Trump's ban on visas for individuals from seven Muslim countries in 2017, families and friends were arrested at airports and some were stopped from entering the US (Panduranga, Patel & Price, 2017). In other words, this ban disrupted family re-unions.

Hence, discouraging the mobility of legitimate tourists can have harmful effects not only on integration with the rest of the world, but also on a country's economy (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014).

### **2.6.3.2 Economic impact**

Visa requirement policies can have negative and positive effects on international tourism demand (Li & Song, 2013). Visa exemptions generally bring positive influences by increasing awareness of tourist attractions, attracting additional tourists, and building new images. However, visa restrictions normally have an adverse effect on the economic performance of the destination country (Artal-Tur, 2016; Bangwayo-Skeete & Skeete, 2016; Li & Song, 2013; Neumayer, 2006; Neumayer, 2010; Neumayer, 2011). Put simply, visa restrictions prevent visitors who are potential spenders of money from entering the destination country. It is not surprising that the countries whose economies are dependent on trade, such as Singapore, Hong Kong (China), Malaysia, and Dubai (the United Arab Emirates), and those that depend on tourism, such as the Seychelles, Barbados, Kenya, the Maldives, and Tanzania, are less likely to impose visas on international tourists (Neumayer, 2010). For countries that depend on tourism, the removal of visa restrictions on their major source markets keeps them attractive and competitive. Advanced economy countries are less impacted because they own bigger leisure and business opportunities, to the extent that their tourism attractions can sustain the flow of tourists, even with visa restrictions in place (Artal-Tur, 2016).

Tourism is an important contributor to the economic growth of most emerging economy countries (Assaf, 2011; Ghimire, 2001; Nene, 2017; Neumayer, 2006; Saville, 2016). For instance, the findings of Nene (2017) indicated that 60% of African states depended on tourism revenues to drive their economic growth. In 2016, the total tourism revenue raised by 54 African countries amounted to US\$66.4 billion, which was 3.1% of their total GDP (WTTC, 2017). Another example is the Seychelles, which, prior to 2013, gave visa exemptions to all tourists, while Mauritius imposed visa restrictions on tourists before they arrived (Woyo, 2017). Fast-forwarding to five years later, because of the visa-free access, the volume of tourists visiting the Seychelles grew on average by 7% per annum, while Mauritius remained stagnant (Woyo, 2017).

While stringent visa requirement policies have an adverse effect on the economic performance of the destination country, this study does not propose issuing visas freely. For instance, Li and Song (2013) noted that, as a response to the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks, the US imposed visa restrictions, and that these stringent regulations resulted in a decrease in international inbound tourism, and cost US businesses \$859 billion in lost revenue and half a million potential jobs losses from 2002 to 2006. In a similar vein, two days after the ban on Muslim visitors by former President Donald Trump in January 2017, Panduranga *et al.* (2017) found that the US airline industry lost more than \$5 billion in market value because tourists were more worried about the adverse impact of the ban. Another interesting example was the introduction in 2015 of a restrictive visa policy by the South African government that required children under the age of 18 years to be in possession of an unabridged birth certificate as well as a passport and visa (Bangwayo-Skeete & Skeete, 2016) when travelling to and from the country. To obtain a biometric visa, this policy required applicants to be physically present at the time of the visa application. According to Bangwayo-Skeete and Skeete, South Africa's economy was negatively impacted where it experienced a reduction of 6.5% in tourism volumes and lost R2.6 billion in revenue from 2015 to 2016.

Another interesting example was the imposition of the most strenuous visa restriction systems by both China and the UK, which in turn resulted in legitimate visitors not attending the Beijing 2008 Olympics and the London 2012 Olympics (Li & Song, 2013; Thomas, 2012). During the 2008 Olympics, China imposed visa restrictions mainly on citizens of Western countries owing to the fear of infiltration of their population by foreign influences that might undermine the government's grip on power (Li & Song, 2013). These visa restrictions caused China to experience a drop in outbound tourism of between 7% and 16%, which cost its economy \$964 million in lost revenue. In comparison with the \$88 million that the Chinese economy lost following the 1989 Tiananmen Square incident, Li and Song found that the revenue loss owing to the 2008 Olympics visa restrictions was greater and more significant. During the London 2012 Olympics, visa restrictions were also a big concern. Since the UK was part of the EU, but had never been one of the Schengen states, it insisted on separate UK visas rather than Schengen visas for foreign tourists (Thomas, 2012). As a result, Chinese tourists, who are believed to be very high spenders, visited France instead, which issues Schengen visas and so allows access to all Schengen destination countries

apart from the UK. UK outbound tourism and tourism receipts dropped by 5% soon after the Olympics as other European countries, through Schengen visas, attracted eight times as many tourists as the UK (Li & Song, 2013).

### **2.6.3.3 Political impact**

Diplomatic relations between countries are a significant factor in visa requirement policies. The international relations between Brazil and the US were at the lowest ebb in 2012 following reciprocal visa fee increases (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014). This diplomatic crisis resulted in increased visa restrictions to such an extent that tourism flows to both countries began to decrease. From that example it is clear that restrictive visa requirement policies can discourage many legitimate tourists from visiting the destination country. Some of them are potential spenders of money who might choose alternative destinations with less restrictive visa regimes. To understand the impact of visa requirement policies on destination choice, it is necessary to understand the standard application process that tourists have to go through to obtain a visa. This process is explained in the next section.

## **2.7 FACILITATING THE VISA PROCESS**

According to the UNWTO (2015), 61% of the world's population – mainly those from emerging economy countries such as in Africa – require a visa to travel internationally, while the remaining 39% – mainly advanced economy countries – can travel visa-free. For instance, in terms of the mobility score, South Africa is ranked 105 out of 198 countries, which means that South African tourists can travel to 63 countries visa-free, can get a visa on arrival in 42 countries, and require a visa to travel to 93 countries (Passport Index, 2022). In other words, the higher the mobility score, the better the global mobility that South African passport bearers enjoy. In sum, a South African tourist requires a visa to travel to 53% of the countries in the world. Surprisingly, 51% of Africans require visas to travel to other African countries (African Development Bank, 2021). These statistics reflect poorly on African governments, given that the African Union's (AU) founding commitment 55 years ago was the abolition of visas to allow the free movement of African people (Murithi, 2012).

As mentioned in the background section of this study (1.1), depending on the destination country, embassies, high commissions, or consulates (EHC) or visa facilitation centres

(VFC) can be used to facilitate the visa application process. A VFC is an amalgam of visa specialist services (a consulting company) that facilitate the application process on behalf of the destination country's EHC. In other words, a VFC functions as a visa processing operation and not as an EHC. A VFC's main purpose is to provide the technical services related to the visa application process, such as receiving applications, processing applications, and dispatching them to the relevant country's EHC (Roberson, 2015). Dispatching involves reconciling applications received in the format and way defined by the country's EHC; collecting prospective international travellers' visa fees; and then forwarding the application to the responsible country's EHC. In addition, it involves transporting visa applications to the country's EHC; collecting the processed visas from the country's EHC; and communicating with the prospective travellers to collect their processed visas from the VFC (Roberson, 2015). It also includes maintaining and operating an online electronic tracking system that prospective international travellers can access to check their visa application status (Roberson, 2015). Furthermore, it includes addressing prospective international travellers' queries through its dedicated centralised call centre; providing prospective international travellers with information on the website in respect of the visa application requirements, the procedures, and relevant documents (Roberson, 2015).

EHC that facilitate the visa process at their premises. In general, an EHC's main purpose is to maintain bilateral relations between countries and to execute public administration such as issuing visas (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014:313; Karaman, 2016:503), issuing passports, and offering legal help in foreign countries and travel advice to its own citizens who are living abroad (Hobolth, 2011; Hobolth, 2013). Gil-Pareja *et al.* (2007) found that the presence of an EHC or VFC in the tourist's country of origin increases tourism to the destination country an average of 30%, and that, in particular, the impact is higher for emerging economy countries than for advanced economy countries.

### **2.7.1 Frontline officials (staff)**

Consular officials (staff) are government representatives of the destination country working at an EHC based in the tourist's country of origin, normally with the main mandate of upholding their country's immigration laws (Seminara, 2008). Frontline officials are employees of privately-run VFCs that are based in tourists' country of origin, with a strictly

administrative and non-judgemental visa function (Rietveld, 2014). According to Rietveld (2014), frontline officials cannot assist in respect of any immigration advisory functions or discretionary functions on the documentation that is lodged. This is where the duties of frontline VFC officials stop. If the country does not require the services of a VFC, then the consular officials will do the frontline function as well. Thus, the duties of consular EHC officials start after the frontline VFC officials have lodged the documentation for discretionary and immigration advisory functions. The general mandate of the frontline officials is to develop a trust relationship with visa applicants to boost customer satisfaction (Matthews & Mokoena, 2020).

The literature has several studies (Golunov, 2013; Jayasinghe, 2021; Özdemir & Ayata, 2018; Stojanovski, 2009; Van Elsuwege, 2013; Vendrame, 2016) that support the view that visa requirement policies have resulted in some malpractice and the unethical and inhumane treatment of visa applicants at several EHC or VFC premises. Golunov (2013) identifies the arbitrary or discretionary powers that frontline officials have as the main source of various unjust and discrimination practices. For instance, acting either on informal orders from the management or on their own initiative, frontline officials can use these arbitrary or discretionary powers to treat visa applicants unfairly, impose informal sanctions on visa applicants from a certain country for alleged wrongdoing, and punish those visa applicants who dare to criticise them publicly (Golunov, 2013). Other complaints against frontline officials that are discussed in the next sections are institutionalised racism, personal humiliation and unethical and traumatic investigation, and no right of appeal when the visa is refused.

### **2.7.1.1 Institutional racism**

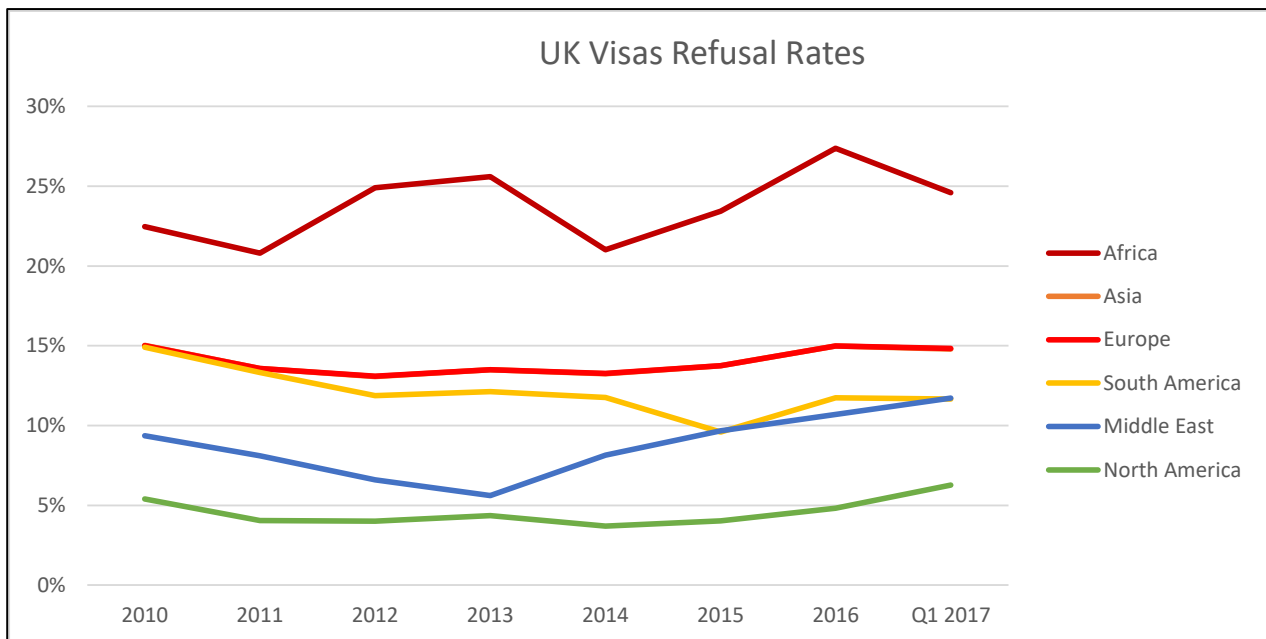
Macpherson (1999:49) defines the concept of institutional racism as:

“The collective failure of an organisation to provide an appropriate and professional service to people because of their colour, culture, or ethnic origin. It can be seen or detected in processes, attitudes and behaviour which amount to discrimination through unwitting prejudice, ignorance, thoughtlessness, and racist stereotyping which disadvantage minority ethnic people”.



Accordingly, research has shown that people who are non-Europeans, such as those from Africa, Asia, the Caribbean islands, and Arab countries, are susceptible to xenophobic reactions, islamophobia, and racial prejudice, not only from frontline officials, but also from border security officials, custom officials, tourists, and the population of the destination country (Stephenson in Torabian & Miller, 2017). Several authors emphasise that the racism that is experienced in the current visa vetting system lies in the discretionary aspects of consular officials' decision-making (Arudou, 2021; Freier De Ferrari, 2016; Golunov, 2013; Henry, Rees & Tator, 2010; Satzewich, 2014a; Scheel, 2017a). Satzewich (2014a) echoes this view: that the consular official's personal and racial biases when assessing visa applications inform some aspects of their decision-making process in granting or denying a visa. Stephenson and Hughes (in Yoon, 2014) found that, when applying for travel visas, nationals from Africa, Jamaica, Thailand, Vietnam, and Cuba often experienced deep underlying institutional racism from British consular officials because, in most cases, their visas were deliberately refused on apparently inaccurate or frivolous grounds (See also Stephenson, 2004). The statistics of immigration visa refusals in Figure 2.8 show the same trends. The graph indicates that the UK visa refusal rate is the highest among applicants from Africa compared with those from other continents.

**Figure 2.8: UK visa refusal rates**



Source: UK Home Office Data (2017)

Undeniably, the world economy and global tourism have been adversely affected by unfriendly relations between Western and Muslim nations, in particular after the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks in the US (Abdullah, 2015; Arat-Koç, 2017; Helbling, 2013; Yilmaz, 2016). Following these attacks, Muslims around the world were subjected to racial stereotyping by immigration officers and Western EHCs or VFCs (Naveed, 2015; Orfaly, 2020; Randolph, 2017). For instance, in August 2002, “the US Ambassador to Jordan announced that visa applications were no longer being approved at the American Consulate in Amman. All visa applications are sent to Washington for approval, with no time limit imposed on the response” (Cainkar, 2002:27). These hurtful effects were further amplified by the US ‘war on terrorism’, which stereotyped Muslims of Arab origin as terrorists. Similarly, in 2017, former President Donald Trump imposed a visa ban on foreigners visiting the US from seven typically Muslim countries – namely, Iran, Iraq, Libya, Somalia, Sudan, Syria, and Yemen (Panduranga *et al.*, 2017). Panduranga *et al.* (2017) argued that, after the ban, Trump’s continuous anti-Muslim rhetoric resulted in visa applicants of Muslim origin undergoing extreme vetting processes that included submitting a travel history of up to 15 years, all family information even on former spouses, an ideological vetting, and social media information. With such extra and intensive multi-agency security reviews, Patel and Levinson-Waldman (2017) claimed that it encouraged frontline officials to hate, show prejudice towards, and discriminate against Muslims in particular during the visa application process. For example, many Muslims who met all of the immigration rules were turned away by frontline officials at the EHCs or VFCs and by immigration officers at US airports, for reasons which seemed to be trivial and inaccurate (Blackwood, 2019; Klaas, 2017; Paik, 2020).

Another case in point was in 2014, when out of 813,339 Turkish nationals’ visa applications, the Schengen consulate rejected 35,971 (Özdemir & Ayata, 2018). The outcome of Özdemir and Ayata’s (2018:183) study exposed the human aspects of visa restrictions such as discrimination, injustice, and humiliation, which often go unnoticed. In their study, most Turkey nationals reported that they felt completely drained physically and emotionally because of the disrespectful treatment by frontline officials who, at times, required documents or asked frivolous questions that might have infringed individuals’ privacy and right to confidentiality.

### **2.7.1.2 Personal humiliation and traumatic investigations**

Leask (2013:131) defines personal humiliation as “a demonstrative exercise of power against one or more persons, which consistently involves a number of elements: stripping of status; rejection or exclusion; unpredictability or arbitrariness; and a personal sense of injustice matched by the lack of any remedy for the injustice suffered”. Humiliation does not only diminish and belittle visa applicants as people, but also degrades their culture and heritage. One particular case was the disrespect and humiliation of the citizens of four states in Eastern Europe – Russia, Belarus, Ukraine, and Moldova – at the hands of EU consulates. With regard to Schengen visas, the citizens of these four countries argued that they encountered bad service when queueing outside EU consulates, as there was either no roof to protect them from unbearable weather, or no seats, in particular for senior citizens (Boratynski & Szimborska, 2006). Boratynski and Szimborska (2006) add that EU consulates ignored the existence of the queues, and opted to create the applicants’ queue on unofficial lists for which people’s positions were transacted for cash and were impossible to by-pass. Furthermore, EU consulates were accused of being inconsistent in applying the visa refusal policy; for example, the refusal rates for nationals of Russia were 2%, for Ukrainians 14%, for Moldavians 10%, and for Belarusian 28% (Boratynski & Szimborska, 2006).

Another case in point was the allegations by Russian citizens that both the EU and the US were restricting their travel with senseless bureaucracy and humiliation (Baranovsky & Utkin, 2012). Russian citizens complained about US consular officials who subjected them to interviews during which they were interrogated, humiliated, and required to prove that they would not overstay. In contrast, this action by consular officials was justified, according to Mau *et al.* (2015), because the majority of illegal immigrants entered legally but overstayed their visas. Thus, scrutinising the likelihood that the visa applicants would return home through interviews and analysing sensitive personal documents could help consular official to assess the applicants thoroughly. Similarly, visa applicants in Ghana complained about the inferior and inhumane treatment and the condescension to which they were subjected by consular officials before their visa documents were processed (Mazzucato, 2008). A point in case was the Netherlands embassy in Accra, which was accused of being anti-Ghanaian because applicants endured tedious procedures that included spending too much time

queuing outside in extremely hot temperatures, and being humiliated by consular officials who postponed visa applicants' interview dates without notifying them (Ghanaweb, 2003). In addition, Stojanovski (2009) stated that, in 2005, a British embassy consular officer in Skopje in North Macedonia asked 45 members of a folkdance group to dance as proof that they were genuine in order to get visas to a festival in Wales. Unfortunately, the group was not able to perform at the festival, as not everyone was granted a visa.

### **2.7.1.3 No right of appeal**

Torpey (1998:254) argues:

At a time when substantial but unknown numbers of people become 'immigrants' simply by overstaying the legally prescribed duration of their stay, limiting ingress is the best way for states to avoid entering into a series of potentially costly obligations to non-nationals. Passport and visa controls are crucial mechanisms for this purpose, the 'first line of defense' against the entry of undesirables.

The above assertion justifies why EHC or VFC centres can refuse visa applications without providing a reason (Neumayer, 2010). In countries such as the US, the power of the consular official to grant or deny a visa without any right to administrative or judicial appeal was legally supported by the US Court of Appeals (Delgado, 2009). In fact, this law gave consular officials the freedom to reject any application that did not satisfy their requirements (Seminara, 2008). In other words, the onus was on the applicants to prove beyond reasonable doubt that they were fit to be granted a visa. Put simply, the US visa application process has no appeal process. However, an applicant is allowed to reapply again any time after the visa has been refused. Similarly, several governments have copied the US to include a 'no appeal' clause in their visa application process to prevent aggrieved applicants whose visas have been declined from appealing the decision. For example, applicants who are declined UK visas have no right of appeal. If they decide to appeal through the UK Visas and Immigration Department, the costs range between £80 and £140 (Wray & Hunter, 2014). The fee is refunded if the appeal is successful; however, appealing through the judicial process might cost the applicant more than £30,000, and could take up to 10 months (Hill, 2018). In contrast with other visas, the Schengen visa allows applicants who have their

visa refused to appeal; but each Schengen member country has its own appeal process that specifies the period during which a refused applicant can appeal (Piątek, 2019; Van Elsuwege, 2013; Williams, 2018). In summary, it might be argued that, because consular officials' decisions cannot be appealed or administratively reviewed, this allows them to ill-treat visa applicants without being held accountable.

## 2.7.2 Visa application process

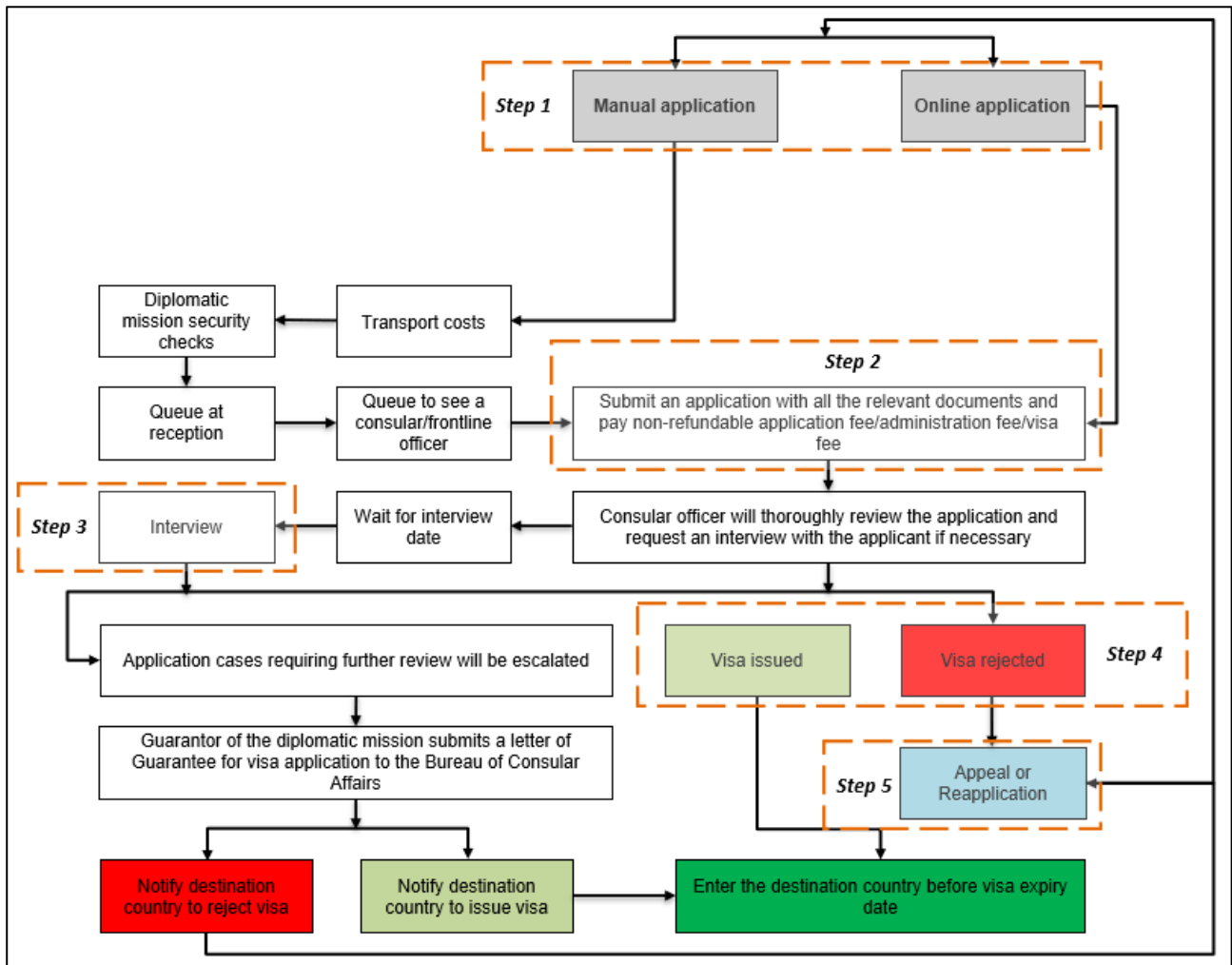
For the purpose of this study, 'visa requirement' is defined as the complete process required by the authorities of a country to obtain a visa prior to travelling to that country, in which potential tourists are obligated to submit an application and a wide range of specific supporting documents at the country's embassy, high commission, consulate, or visa facilitation centre (Attström *et al.*, 2013; Whyte, 2009). Several scholars concur that the visa application process is burdensome, with excessively obstructive requirements (Avdan, 2013; Bangwayo-Skeete & Skeete, 2016; Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014; Lan, 2012; Liu & McKercher, 2014; Woyo, 2017). People who are eligible for visas and want to apply must either get an application form physically at the EHC or VFC premises or download it from the EHC or VFC website; in some instances, they can complete it online or ask for it to be emailed. Several countries, such as the US, Australia, the UK, Japan, the United Arab Emirates, Ivory Coast, Kenya, some Schengen states, and Zimbabwe, have successfully simplified and streamlined visa application procedures by migrating to online visa processing (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014; Henderson, 2017). However, it should be noted that some countries still use offline visa procedures. In cases where the application forms cannot be downloaded from the website, the applicant has to ask the EHC or VFC via mail or email, which might take days if not weeks, for the application form to be sent.

Figure 2.9 indicates a typical tourist's visa application process. It should be noted that the process is not standard and might vary across countries. **Step 1**, as a general guide, is that before a tourist travel to any destination, they should gather enough information to check whether or not they are eligible for a visa, and to find out about the required documents and application fees. If no visa is required, then no action is needed on the part of the tourist. If a visa is required, then – depending on the targeted destination country – the tourist has two options on how to apply for a visa. If the destination country has streamlined its visa

application procedures by migrating to online visa processing, such as the countries highlighted above, the tourist will have to complete the application online and attach all the required documents, in some cases pay the non-refundable application fee/administration fee/visa fee, and then submit their application. If the destination country is still using manual visa processing, the tourists can download the application form from the website of the EHC or VHC of the destination country, and then apply in person at the EHC or VHC with all the required supporting documents. Some countries (such as Australia) require tourists to schedule an appointment time to deliver the supporting documents in person and to have their biometric information captured, even if the application was completed online.

In **step 2**, on the appointment date, the tourist has a one-on-one meeting with the consular or frontline official and submits the supporting documents (including the application form, if applicable), have their biometric data captured, and then pay the non-refundable application fee/administration fee/visa fee. For some countries, **step 2** is attached to **step 3** (highlighted in Figure 2.9 as ‘the interview’); and in **step 3** the consular or frontline official further reviews the applicant’s supporting documents and asks them for clarity, if it is needed, to help them thoroughly to assess the application on its merits. Often the consular or frontline official will require evidence from the tourist of their reason for the visit, proof of finances to cover their personal expenses, the length of their stay, and their clear intent to return to the country of origin after the trip (Shukhman, Hunt, LaPointe-Rudow, Mandelbrot, Hays, Kumar, Schaefer, Al Ammary, Henderson & Nishio-Lucar, 2020). In some countries, after submitting the supporting documents and paying the non-refundable application fee/administration fee/visa fee, as highlighted in **step 2**, the consular or frontline official then gives the tourist a future appointment date or interview date for a one-on-one meeting with the consular or frontline official, if necessary. In **step 4**, the outcome of the visa application is communicated to the tourist via email, telephone, or SMS. The outcome can be either that the visa has been issued or that it has been denied. **Step 5** is the appeal or reapplication step. Depending on the EHC, tourists might be given a chance to appeal the visa rejection. In case where the EHC does not allow an appeal, the tourist is given a chance to reapply. If the tourist reapplies, the same process starts again from step one.

**Figure 2.9: Tourist visa application process**



Source: Researcher's own construction

Several studies (Brooks, 2022; Glocker & Haxton, 2020; Janmyr, 2016; Kamel, Nordby, Haro & Swearingen, 2019) have deemed the requirements for some documents as unnecessary, such as a return ticket and accommodation reservations. They argue that buying a return ticket without the guarantee of a visa can be risky (EDC, 2015) and can represent a significant financial loss to an applicant. Accommodation reservations can also be easily booked and cancelled, and so serve no purpose. According to Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014), five elements determine the ease/difficulty of the visa application process: the visa processing time, the costs of visas, required embassy visits, the chance of denial, and the number of documents required. These elements are explained below.

### **2.7.2.1 Visa processing times**

The visa processing time is the time period from when the tourist completes and submits a visa application to when a decision is communicated to them (Johnson, 2003a). The visa processing time might include the interview period and the administrative processing time, depending on the individual circumstances. Visa processing times have been found by Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014) to be one of the main factors that give legitimate tourists a negative perception of travelling to the destination in question. During the visa processing time, consular or frontline officials check that the application form has been completed, that all the required documents have been attached, and that the visa fees have been paid. If any of the required documents are missing, the consular or frontline officials will return them (several times) to the applicants to produce additional information (Alpes & Spire, 2014); or, in other cases, the application is rejected because documents are missing (Ahrens, 2013; Hammar, 2020; Scheel, 2017b). This process can add further time delays and administrative costs.

After the completion of the initial assessment, to scrutinise the applicant further, the consular or frontline official might schedule an in-person interview at the EHC or VFC if necessary (Neiman & Swagel, 2009); this might take up to 60 days because it is mainly based on incoming workload and availability of staff. It has been highlighted that the visa process is not standard across EHCs or VFCs, and that the interview can also happen while submitting the documents.

According to the U.S Department of State (2020), there is no guarantee that a visa application can be assessed and a decision made on time, as communicated on most countries' websites. Visa applications can take a considerable time because each visa application is unique; therefore, the processing times might vary. This might be because of bureaucratic and administrative processing, which might involve is an additional security check before the visa is issued. In other cases, the delay might be owing to the incorrect documents being submitted by the applicant, the loss of the applicant's documentation by the consular or frontline office, or a seasonal backlog.

The bureaucratic and administrative processing is the period during which visa applications undergo additional reviews outside of the 'normal' visa processing times, and it involves the



thorough verification of the submitted documents. Neiman and Swagel (2009) indicate that further security checks before issuing a visa are done in conjunction with other national security government agencies such as the police, intelligence agencies, and immigration departments, and might take more than 30 days. The longer the visa processing time, the more frustrated applicants can become. If adverse information is discovered during this process, then tourists' eligibility for a visa might be impacted. This adverse information could range from criminal convictions to security risks and prior visa overstays or denials (Ng & Whalley, 2008). Table 2.4 indicates the visa processing times of different countries.

**Table 2.4: Tourist Visa application fees, official processing time, and estimated time delays**

Country by region	Visa	Fees (US\$)	Processing time in business days	Estimated delays (days)*
<b>OECD</b>				
Australia	Tourist	266	15	300
Canada	Tourist single	100	28	40
	Tourist single family	500	28	40
France	Short stay (< 90 days)	96	5	20
	Long stay	112	20	60
Germany	Short stay (< 90 days)	91	15	30
	Long stay	85	30	60
Japan	Single entry	26	2	5
UK	Single entry	137	15	60
US	General tourist	160	7	180
<b>ASIA</b>				
China	Ordinary visa	30	5	7
India	Tourists (< 12 months)	100	1	7
	Tourists (< 60 months)	200	1	7
Malaysia	Tourist (single)	45	3	14

Singapore	Single entry	30	3	5
South Korea	Single entry (< 90 days)	60	5	8
	Multiple entry (> 90 days)	90	5	8
<b>SOUTH AMERICA</b>				
Argentina	Tourist (< 90 days)	227	10	16
Brazil	Tourist (< 90 days)	290	10	15
Chile	Tourist (< 90 days)	50-150	15	20
Peru	Tourist (< 180 days)	30	5	30
Venezuela	Tourist (< 90 days)	30	2	15
<b>MIDDLE EAST</b>				
Kuwait	Tourist	10	1	3
Iran	Tourist	189	3	21
Saudi Arabia	Tourist	176	7	21
UAE	Tourist (< 30 days)	153	3	4
<b>AFRICA</b>				
Egypt	Tourist (< 90 days)	60	5	15
Kenya	Tourist	51	4	8
Mauritius	Tourist	Free	1	5
Nigeria	Tourist	156	8	15
South Africa	Tourist	102	30	60
Zimbabwe	Tourist	57.50	6	10
<b>EASTERN EUROPE</b>				
Russia	Tourist	85	7	20
Turkey	Tourist	269	15	25

Source: Extracted from home pages of various governments and travel agencies in 2022

As a result, tourists wanting to visit a destination with longer visa application processing times might instead choose alternative destinations to benefit from their shorter visa

processing times. This has been echoed by Chen, Chen and Okumus (2013), who found that the early stages of the decision-making process, such as aspects related to travel destination selection, the evaluation of alternatives, and the information search, are influenced by travel constraints such as the visa processing time.

### **2.7.2.2 Costs of visas**

One of the increasingly onerous and negative aspects of visa restrictions is the high cost to visa applicants. To understand these costs better and in detail, Ng and Whalley (2008) explained application costs in terms of the application fee, face-to-face interviews, photo requirements, and the completion of forms. Application costs include not only the visa fees indicated in Table 2.4, but also additional costs. For example, tourists visiting the EHC or VFC in person could incur high travelling costs and time costs because they might have to wait in a queue for hours. For those using professional visa services, the costs incurred would be even greater (Neumayer, 2006; Neumayer, 2010; Neumayer, 2011). To explain travelling costs further: individuals incur transport costs when they have to travel to the EHC or VFC –, which, most of the time, is not located in their city of residence – for a face-to-face interview if it is required (Hu, 2013). For example, to get a Zimbabwean visa in China, a person has to travel thousands of kilometres (such as from Guanzhong to Beijing); and similarly, to get a Zimbabwean visa in the US, a person has to travel to Washington DC (Zengeni & Zengeni, 2012).

From analysing Table 2.4, it is clear that visa fees vary from country to country, and also differ according to the time to be spent in the destination country (a short stay versus a long stay), the frequency of entries (single versus multiple), and the processing time (from 24 hours to 30 days). In comparison with the advanced economy OECD countries, with an average application fee of US\$110, emerging economy countries (Asia, Eastern Europe, the Middle East, Africa, and South America) have lower average application fees of US\$70. According to Neumayer (2006), advanced economy countries impose high non-refundable visa application fees, to be paid in foreign currency using online payment systems, as a deterrent mechanism that is aimed in particular at potential terrorists, would-be illegal immigrants, criminals, and any other *personae non gratae*. In contrast, emerging economy

countries impose low application fees because their economies rely heavily on tourism revenue (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014).

As highlighted in section 2.6.2.4 above, countries can also use visa application fees as an instrument to generate revenue, and specifically foreign currency (Czaika, 2017; Ng & Whalley, 2008; Sumption & Hooper, 2014). Hence, the higher the fee, the higher the revenue generated. Well-known examples of countries that use application fees as a revenue-generating mechanism are Egypt (Neumayer, 2010), Australia (Pham *et al.*, 2018), Russia, and Kenya (Ng & Whalley, 2008). However, Neumayer (2006) warned that this revenue-generating system should be balanced against the opportunity costs of deterring legitimate travellers and the overhead costs (processing costs).

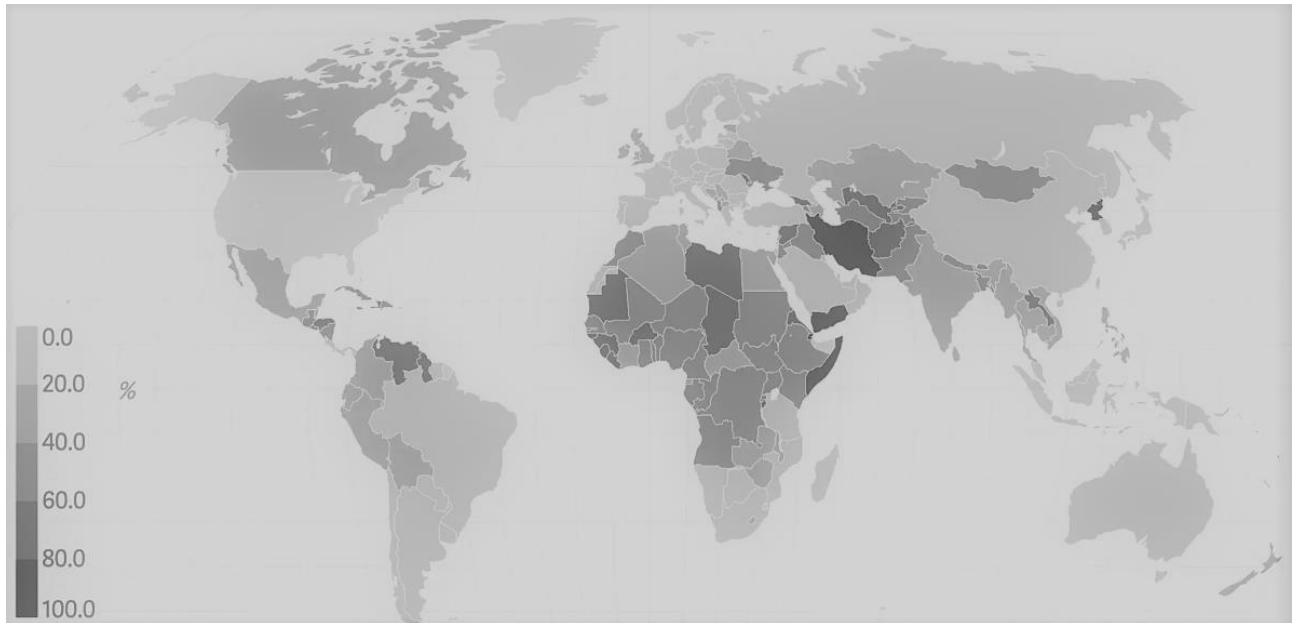
### **2.7.2.3 Chance of application denial**

It is not unusual for visas to be refused by consular officials; however, it is a very emotional experience for most applicants. The reasons for unsuccessful visa applications can range from criminal record status, fraudulent travel documents, unjustifiable purpose of trip, damaged passport, invalid passport, lack of travel itinerary, invalid reference letter, inadequate proof of funds to sustain a stay at the destination, invalid birth or marriage certificates, inadequate travel insurance, and inadequate proof of accommodation (Boratynski & Szimborska, 2006; Gaibazzi, 2014; Le´onard, 2015; Mehmeti, 2016; Seminara, 2008). In extreme cases, the issuing EHC or VFC can refuse a visa application without giving any reasons (Neumayer, 2010). More recently, Capeetc (2019) found that the refusal of visas to South African passport holders to travel to the United Kingdom, the USA, and the Schengen region respectively resulted in 6% of tourists missing their flights, 10% abandoning their entire trip, 17% losing funds, and 22% postponing their trip.

Advanced economy countries have a higher visa application refusal rate than emerging economy countries (Bigo & Guild, 2017; Brabandt & Mau, 2013; Czaika, 2017; Finotelli & Sciortino, 2013). In 2018, the US's refusal rate for travel visa applications from around 50 countries averaged 63% (Frost & Kopf, 2019). Figure 2.10 shows the 10 countries with the highest probability of visa refusal by the US. The visa applications from these countries had a higher chance of being refused than accepted when their citizens planned to travel to the US: Somalia 90.2%, Iran 87.7%, Djibouti 83%, Yemen 82.5%, Syria 77.3%, Guinea-Bissau

76.1%, Burundi 74.4%, Venezuela 74.3%, Libya 73.5%, and Afghanistan 71.4% (Frost & Kopf, 2019). It is not surprising that four of the six Muslim countries that former President Donald Trump banned from travel to the US in 2017 appear on this list. Tourists from countries with a high chance of application denial might instead choose alternative destinations where their visa applications would be more likely to be successful.

**Figure 2.10: Refusal rate for travel visas to US (2018)**



Source: Frost and Kopf (2019)

#### **2.7.2.4 Documents required**

According to Ng and Whalley (2008), visa supporting documents are not limited to passport-size photos, foreign bank drafts, certified qualifications documents, biometric and certified medical reports, proof of income, return tickets, proof of employment, proof of property ownership, and accommodation reservations. Asquith *et al.* (2019) found that, when consular officials requested additional evidence and supporting documentation that was not specified in the visa application guidelines, it could create a perception of deficiency of procedural fairness. One might argue that the unclear information from the EHC or VFC, particularly about the supporting documents to be submitted with the visa application, could be frustrating to an applicant. These requirements of supporting documents not only delay the issuing of the visa, but can also increase applicants' costs (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014).

In some countries, obtaining documentation such as bank statements or official birth and marriage certificates can present difficulties to the tourists because they are not always cheap or easily available from national authorities (Asquith *et al.*, 2019). It also takes a lot of time for a tourist to obtain these supporting documents from the authorities, such as from the South African Department of Home Affairs. As a result, tourists who are required to produce too many supporting documents might instead choose alternative destinations where fewer supporting documents would be required.

#### **2.7.2.5 Embassy (VFC) visits**

Visits to the EHC or VFC are necessary not only to attend an interview but also to submit documents. Since Cambodia and Laos do not have embassies anywhere on the African continent, and do not provide for online visa applications, even though they provide visas on arrival for tourists from some countries in Africa, tourists from other African countries who do require visas have to travel to another continent to submit their visa application forms (Opiyo, Sukontasap, Mamadkul & Brown, 2016). These scenarios imply more long-distance travel for tourists to and from the nearest EHC or VFC. This imposes significant transport and accommodation costs, as well as being an inconvenience to most tourists (Asquith *et al.*, 2019). In short, for many tourists, the process of visiting an EHC or VFC for compulsory face-to-face interviews or to submit documentation is time-consuming, expensive, and tiring. This process alone discourages not only unwanted applicants, but also many legitimate tourists who have good reasons to visit their destination choice. The sections that follow describe some of the visa requirements that are most often cited in the tourism literature.

### **2.7.3 Visa requirements**

As mentioned previously, for the purpose of this study 'visa requirements' is defined as the complete process required by the authorities of a country to obtain a visa prior to travelling to that country, in which potential tourists are obligated to submit an application and a wide range of specific supporting documents at the country's embassy, high commission, consulate, or visa facilitation centre (Attström *et al.*, 2013; Whyte, 2009). Traditional visas require the tourist to submit their passport in advance to an embassy, high commission, consulate, or visa facilitation centre of the destination country they intend to visit (Bianchi,

2006). To obtain this visa before travelling can be cumbersome, because tourists might be required to provide a comprehensive itinerary, proof of income, proof of return ticket and accommodation reservations, foreign bank drafts, certified qualifications documents, certified medical reports, criminal records, passport size photos, and fingerprints (Gilbert, 2013; Van Elsuwege, 2013; Zampagni, 2016). In 2018, 53% of people in the world had to obtain a visa before travelling for tourism purposes, 16% were allowed to apply for a visa on arrival, 10% were able to apply for an eVisa, and 21% did not require a visa when travelling (UNWTO, 2019). Furthermore, the UNWTO (2019) indicates that, in 2018, 45% of the world's population required a visa when travelling to Africa, 56% when travelling to the Americas, 41% when travelling to Asia and the Pacific, 66% when travelling to Europe, and 60% when travelling to the Middle East. In other words, 70% of the world's population required a visa when travelling to advanced economy countries, while only 49% required a visa when travelling to emerging economy countries (UNWTO, 2019). This shows that visa restrictions are predominantly imposed by advanced economy countries to keep away people from emerging economy countries (Finotelli & Sciortino, 2013; Golash-Boza, 2015; Mau *et al.*, 2015).

Enabling freedom of movement is imperative to encourage international tourism, even though it is regulated by the visa requirement policies of the destination countries (Kuzey *et al.*, 2019). Besides, a growing body of literature (Balli *et al.*, 2013; Lawson & Roychoudhury, 2015; Lee *et al.*, 2010; Neumayer, 2010; Song *et al.*, 2012) has shown that visa requirement policies are among the most important factors contributing to international tourist mobility. This is because visa requirement policies have either an encouraging or a restricting effect on the international inbound mobility of people of other nationalities (Karaman, 2016). In this regard, restrictive visa requirement policies not only impede the entrance and admittance of unwanted individuals, but might also discourage genuine tourists from participating in international tourism.

While several studies have shown the influence of visa requirement on a traveller's destination choice (Asquith *et al.*, 2019; Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014; Karl & Reintinger, 2017; Lee, 2014a; Lee *et al.*, 2010; Li & Song, 2013; Qiu *et al.*, 2018; Yang *et al.*, 2018), most of them did not distinguish between specific requirements. The only exception was the study of Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014), who identified certain elements that were inherent in the ease

of the visa application process to be good indicators of destination choice; they were the visa processing time, the cost of visas, required embassy visits, the chance of denial, and the number of documents required. From the preceding discussion it becomes clear that visa requirements include many other elements, and their influence on destination choice has not yet been studied. Table 2.5 provides a summary of the requirements that tourists have to fulfil in order to obtain a visa for their destination choice, as identified from the literature.

**Table 2.5: Visa requirements identified from the literature**

Visa requirement	Source
Processing time (time necessary to apply and receive a visa)	Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014)
Visits to the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate to apply for a visa (required visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate physical visits; visiting visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate multiple times; requirement to attend a face-to-face interview at the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate)	Asquith <i>et al.</i> (2019); Lawson and Roychoudhury (2016); Neiman and Swagel (2009); Wu, Earp, Hicok and Colin (2014); Zengeni and Zengeni (2012)
Costs of the visa application process (overall cost of the visa; additional costs incurred in locating and visiting the nearest embassy or consulate; additional costs incurred in travelling to collect visa, as some embassies/consulates do not courier)	Croce (2018); Ng and Whalley (2008); Recchi <i>et al.</i> (2021)
Visa application rejection rate (fear of visa rejection; visa rejection)	Brabandt and Mau (2013); Czaika and Hobolth (2014); Finotelli and Sciortino (2013); Gaibazzi (2014); Seminara (2008)
Visa application supporting documents (the nature and type of required documents/paperwork; proof of vaccinations; bank statements, official birth certificate, marriage certificates; medical clearance certificate; police clearance certificates; criminal record status, trip purpose justification, valid passport, travel itinerary, valid reference letter, proof of funds to sustain a stay at the destination, travel insurance, passport size photos, foreign bank drafts, certified qualifications documents, biometric information, proof of income, return ticket, proof of employment, proof of property ownership, accommodation reservations; health tests)	Boratynski and Szimborska (2006); Gilbert (2013); Mehmeti (2016); Ocean, Russian, Russian, Orthodox and Assembly (2018); Van Elsuwege (2013); Zampagni (2016).
Visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate is crowded	Jayasinghe (2021); Ramani and Rutkofsky (2021); Scheel (2017b)
Rude treatment from frontline officials	Boratynski and Szimborska (2006); Mau <i>et al.</i> (2015); Mazzucato (2008); Stojanovski (2009)
Institutionalised discrimination during visa application (discriminatory visa process for certain applicants)	Arudou (2021); Freier De Ferrari (2016); Golunov (2013); Henry <i>et al.</i> (2010); Özdemir and Ayata (2018); Patel and Levinson-Waldman (2017); Satzewich (2014a); Scheel (2017a)
Queues	Akman (2016); Mau <i>et al.</i> (2015); Mazzucato (2008)



Appeal process	Boratynski and Szimborska (2006); Piątek (2019); Van Elsuwege (2013); Williams (2018)
Infringement of privacy rights	Boratynski and Szimborska (2006); Gammeltoft-Hansen (2013); Ivankiv (2020); Jayasinghe (2021); Thomas (2021)
Treatment of visa applicant like criminal	Abrego (2015); Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014); Sarabia (2015); Satzewich (2015); Turnbull (2018)
Completion of necessary documents by visa applicant (difficulty of the application; ease of the process; application forms are not clear, so difficult to complete)	Lee <i>et al.</i> (2018a); Scheel (2017b); Song <i>et al.</i> (2017); Zengeni and Zengeni (2012),
Time taken for a visa decision (waiting for the visa application outcome; chances of visa approval)	Alpes (2013); Barnard (2015); Çakar (2015); U.S Department of State (2020)
Time taken for the passport to be released after a decision has been made (going through time-consuming process and ending up without a visa; receiving visa late)	Czaika and de Haas (2014); Golunov (2016); Infantino (2016); Panchamia and Byrappa (2017); Seminara (2008)
Time taken for a visa appointment (obligation to book an interview appointment)	Kirsanova (2014); Nadi and Mezrigue (2017); Rao (2014); Zampagni (2017)
Fairness of the visa application process	Baranovsky and Utkin (2012); Katz-Lavigne and Terretta (2019); Satzewich (2014b); Satzewich (2015)
Difficulty or ease of the visa application process (daunting document submission process; time-consuming process; tedious when assembling all the relevant documents)	Abubakar, Shneikat and Oday (2014); Asquith <i>et al.</i> (2019); Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014); Lai <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate keeps or postpones booked appointment/interview time (embassies/consulates not adhering to booked appointment time; frustration when interviews are postponed)	Bier (2021); Jayasinghe (2021); Woyo (2017)

Source: Researcher's own construction

As mentioned, the visa requirements listed in Table 2.5 were derived from the literature: however, to verify the items, and to make sure that the list of requirements was exhaustive, a qualitative research technique – focus groups – was used. During the focus groups, travellers who had previously applied for visas, and those who had never previously applied for visas, were asked to list the visa requirements that they expected to have to meet when applying for a visa. If the responses of the focus group participants revealed that additional visa requirements had not been identified in the literature review, these were added to the scale that would be used in the empirical phase to test the influence of visa requirements on destination choice. The methodology and the questionnaire items that were used in this study are discussed in chapter 4.

## 2.8 EMOTIONAL STRESS AS A RESULT OF THE VISA APPLICATION PROCESS

The visa requirements listed in Table 2.5 above could create an emotionally stressful experience for any applicant, regardless of the type of visa applied for. This was consistent with previous studies (Dirin, Laine & Alamäki, 2018; Emekli, Südaş & Kaba, 2022; Nkwam, Madukwe, Ebeh & Obinna, 2013) that found visa requirements to be the main cause of stress at the stage when tourists decided to travel. Visa applicants suffer from what Okwenje (2019) calls “emotional tax” – that is, the emotional distress and exhaustion suffered by applicants as a result of a burdensome visa application process.

Several researchers (Hanson & Chen, 2010; McEwen & Lasley, 2002; Newman, O’Connor & Conner, 2007; Segerstrom & Miller, 2004; Sturge-Apple, Davies, Cicchetti & Manning, 2012) have argued that stressful situations have negative impacts on an individual’s health, as well as behavioural outcomes such as the ‘fight or flight’ response. The subjective experience of visa stress during the visa application process can include sadness, depression, or anger (Flensted-Jensen, 2019). This does not mean that only negative emotions are triggered during the visa application process, as some tourists do experience positive emotions.

Negative emotions might be triggered in tourists when they go through a burdensome visa process that includes waiting for days, if not months, for the visa outcome. This burdensome visa application process includes a non-exhaustive list of tourists completing an overly onerous application form, paying non-refundable consular fees, spending sleepless nights preparing for the interview, incurring exorbitant transport costs to visit the EHC or VFC, answering all kinds of ambiguous personal questions about their family life and income situation in the interview, and queuing for a long time to be fingerprinted (Boratynski & Szimborska, 2006; Gilbert, 2013; Mehmeti, 2016; Ocean *et al.*, 2018; Seminara, 2008; Van Elsuwege, 2013; Zampagni, 2016). Other triggers of negative emotions are the encounter with frontline and consular officials and excessive noise and overcrowding in the EHC or VFC (Jayasinghe, 2021; Mau *et al.*, 2015; Mazzucato, 2008; Ramani & Rutkofsky, 2021; Stojanovski, 2009). Having observed these triggers, one might argue that emotional

responses arise from the visa application experience during the planning stage and at the EHC or VFC (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014).

## **2.9 CONCLUSION**

This chapter provided a review of the literature on the concepts of destination choice, visas, and international tourism. The chapter linked the concepts of visas and destination choice by explaining the influence of visas on the tourist and on their decision to visit a destination. The chapter discussed some of the well-known theories and models of human behaviour in the context of destination choice, including the general model of destination choice, a model of the leisure travel destination choice process, the value-attitude-behaviour model, the theory of reasoned action, and the theory of planned behaviour. The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) was chosen as the theoretical framework mainly because of its extensive use and its proven validity to understand and predict destination choice.

The chapter continued by discussing the most influential factors affecting destination choice – for example, safety and security, budget and time, destination attributes, socio-demographics, and accessibility. It was established that when accessibility is untenable, the tourists will be forced to abandon the desire to travel to their destination choice. Accessibility factors such as visa requirements are an important prerequisite for tourists when choosing a destination to visit. For the tourist, the visa application process includes a number of requirements, such as the visa processing/application time, the cost of visas, the number of documents required, the required embassy visits, and the chance of denial. These requirements, which are inherent in the visa application process can significantly influence a tourist's destination choice. Table 2.5 provided a summary of the visa requirements that were identified from the literature.

The chapter concluded with a discussion of the emotional stress as a result of the visa application process. Emotions might be triggered when tourists go through a burdensome visa process that includes waiting for days, if not months, for the visa outcome, completing an overly onerous application form, paying non-refundable consular fees, spending sleepless nights preparing for the interview, incurring exorbitant transport costs to visit the embassies, high commissions, or consulates (EHC) or visa facilitation centres (VFC),

answering all kinds of ambiguous personal questions about their family life and income situation in the interview, and queuing for a long time to be fingerprinted.

The next chapter examines how the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process influence a tourist's destination choice.

## **CHAPTER 3: THE ROLE OF EMOTIONS IN VISIT INTENTIONS**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter 2 discussed the influence of visa requirements on tourists' intention to visit a destination of their choice. It concluded by explaining the emotional stress that is experienced as a result of the visa application process. This chapter begins with explaining the concept of emotions in a tourism context, followed by the role of emotions in the tourism experience. The discussion focuses on pre-travel emotions as this forms the focus of the study. The difference between positive and negative emotions and their influence on a tourist's intention to travel is discussed. The chapter then discusses Mehrabian and Russell's S-O-R model. The S-O-R model is used in this study to gain a better understanding of how a tourist's expectations about visa requirements influence the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, which in turn affect their intention to visit a destination of choice. This chapter concludes with the emotional responses in tourism using different theoretical approaches. Tourists might respond to the emotional stress they experience during a burdensome visa application process by choosing alternative destinations with less restrictive visa regimes. Thus, the main purpose of Chapter 3 is to understand how the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process might influence a tourist's destination choice.

### **3.2 CONCEPT OF EMOTIONS**

Even though this research study focuses on emotions, it is important to differentiate terms such as 'mood' and 'affect' from 'emotion' because they have "important implications in operationalizing variables and interpreting research findings" (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010:515). In general, 'affect' is an umbrella term that covers particular mental processes such as emotions, moods, and feelings (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Gross, Uusberg & Uusberg, 2019; Skavronskaya, Scott, Moyle, Le, Hadinejad, Zhang, Gardiner, Coghlan & Shakeela, 2017). There is a small difference between emotions and moods in that they can both influence decisions; however, each furnished decision-makers with different information (Clarke, 2013; Rosdini, Sari, Amrania & Yulianingsih, 2020; Shea, 2013). Emotions are

naturally intentional, while moods are in general non-intentional (Berkowitz, 2014; Kret, Prochazkova, Sterck & Clay, 2020; Malone *et al.*, 2014; Parke & Seo, 2017). Moods are universal feeling states that are normally linked to any particular situation, event, or time. Therefore, emotions arise as a result of a person's appraisal of an event or situation of importance to their well-being, while moods arise for no apparent reason, as there is no intentional object that might evoke them (Biggs, Brough & Drummond, 2017; De Melo, Carnevale, Read & Gratch, 2014; Diener, Kanazawa, Suh & Oishi, 2015; Forgas, 2020; Ratcliffe, 2013; Teilegen, 2019). Another distinction is that emotions are more intense than moods; by their nature, however, emotions are just affective states with a closer association with the stimuli that evoke them (Brudzynski, 2013; Cole, Balcetis & Dunning, 2013; Rolls, 2013). Nevertheless, some studies – in particular, consumer studies – regard emotions, feelings, and affect as analogous (Bülbul & Menon, 2010; Pham, Geuens & De Pelsmacker, 2013).

Using the available sociological, philosophical, psychological, and tourism research that focuses on emotions, the next section defines the term 'emotions'. It should also be noted that the research on emotion in tourism has borrowed most of its definitions, measurement instruments, applications, and conceptual frameworks from marketing research (Volo, 2021).

### **3.3 DEFINITIONS OF EMOTION**

Emotion has been differently defined by various researchers in recent decades. Having reviewed numerous definitions of emotion, Mulligan and Scherer (2012) maintained that there was still no commonly agreed-upon standard definition of emotion, since emotions are not an easily observable phenomenon (Davidson, Smith & Bondi, 2012; Tull & Aldao, 2015). Definitions of emotion also differ significantly across disciplinary boundaries (Barrett & Westlin, 2021; Deonna, Tappolet & Teroni, 2015) such as psychology, marketing, and consumer behaviour. This multiplicity of meanings of the word has contributed to its current misuse and ambiguity (Dixon, 2012; Izard, 2010; Scarantino, 2016) as scholars use "emotion" in ways that reflect different functions and meanings. Although a variety of definitions exists, the common thread among these definitions is that emotions can affect both the physical state and the mental state of an individual (Izard, 2013; Malone *et al.*,

2014). Table 3.1 below contains a non-exhaustive list of definitions of emotion, most of them cited in the tourism literature.

**Table 3.1: Definitions of emotions**

Izard (2010:367)	“neural circuits (that are at least partially dedicated), response systems, and a feeling state/process that motivates and organizes cognition and action”
Levine (2010:6)	“a complex reaction of a person arising from appraisals of self-relevant interactions with the environment, which result in states of excitement, direction of attention, facial expressions, action tendencies, and behaviour”
Feldman (2011:328)	“Emotions are feelings that generally have both physiological and cognitive elements and that influence behaviour”
Houston, Bee and Rimm (2013:12)	“Emotions are characterized as intense, relatively uncontrollable feelings that affect our behaviour”
Lively and Heise (2014:68)	“responses to events that are linked with corporeal manifestations”
Malone <i>et al.</i> (2014:242)	“Emotions are psycho-physiological, they can affect our physical state but are also experienced as mental states, states that display immediacy and intensity”
Munezero, Montero, Sutinen and Pajunen (2014:104)	“preconscious social expressions of feelings and affect influenced by culture”
Damasio (in Koob, 2015:74)	“specific and consistent collections of physiological responses triggered by certain brain regions when the organism is presented with a specific situation”
Pestana <i>et al.</i> (2020:3)	“Emotions are the bridge between the subject and the environment: through them positive or negative meanings and tones, and greater or lesser intensity are attributed to particular situations”

Source: Researcher’s own construction

In the context of tourism, and for the purpose of this study, a more structural definition of emotion proposed by Malone *et al.* (2014) was adopted. Malone *et al.* (2014:242) define emotion as “psycho-physiological, they can affect our physical state but are also experienced as mental states, states that display immediacy and intensity”. According to Moors (2017) and Sander and Scherer (2009), a structural definition should describe the emotional response triggered by the interaction between the individual and its environment. Hence, the definition of emotion by Malone *et al.* (2014) contains an internal response that is coupled with (a) a reaction that occurs within the individual and this reaction is directed toward a specific event or object; and (b) the event or the object triggers emotions. In this study, the visa application process is the event that triggers emotions in an individual (tourists) to emotionally response. However, the responses happen after an appraisal or evaluation of the situation (Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Lazarus, 1990).

While emotion has been extensively studied in disciplines such as psychology, marketing, and consumer behaviour, emotions remain largely underexplored in tourism (Cohen *et al.*, 2014). However, this is changing, and Oren, Shani and Poria (2021) maintained that emotions were gradually being brought to centre stage in the wider tourism literature. Using existing tourism studies on emotions, the next section discusses the role of emotions in tourists' experiences.

### **3.4 EMOTIONS AND TOURISM EXPERIENCE**

Connected to personal mental associations (Volo, 2017) and shaped by past experiences, emotions are associated with individuals' biological makeup. Considering the entanglement associated with emotion, the intensity and type of emotional responses that tourists experience in a setting can fluctuate. In other words, the strength and direction of emotional responses to stimuli can differ significantly "from one tourist to another, leading to a variety of responses" (Volo, 2017:32). This assertion has been echoed by several scholars (Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Ning, 2017; Su & Hsu, 2013; Zhang, Hou & Li, 2020) who argue that, even though different people encounter the same treatment, they might experience different emotional reactions. This is because emotional responses are subjective in nature, such that an experience can be distinctly utilitarian for one person and richly emotional for another (Alba & Williams, 2013:4).

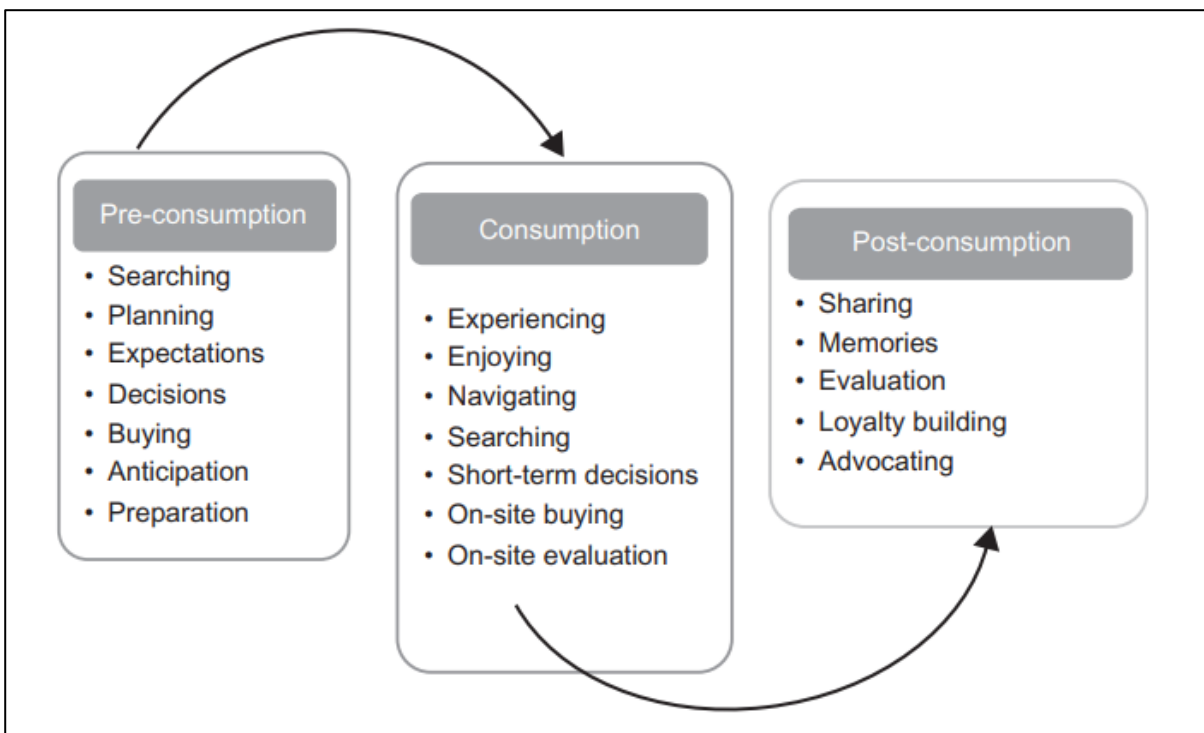
Emotions play a major role in determining tourism experiences (Bastiaansen, Lub, Mitas, Jung, Ascenção, Han, Moilanen, Smit & Strijbosch, 2019; Knobloch, Robertson & Aitken, 2017; Tussyadiah, 2014). An experience is "a mental journey that leaves the customer with memories of having performed something special, having learned something or just having fun" (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2017:19). Tourists' emotions are regarded as a core element of tourism experiences (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2015; Nawijn & Biran, 2019; Shoval, Schvimer & Tamir, 2018). In other words, emotions affect the purchasing and consumption of tourism experiences (Böcker, Dijst & Faber, 2016; Hudson, Roth, Madden & Hudson, 2015; Kang, Bagozzi & Oh, 2011). As a consequence, various studies have been conducted to investigate and measure the role of emotions in different tourism settings (Faullant, Matzler & Mooradian, 2011; Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Kim, Ritchie & McCormick, 2012a; Kim &



Fesenmaier, 2015; Mitas, Yarnal, Adams & Ram, 2012; Nawijn, Mitas, Lin & Kerstetter, 2013; Prayag, Hosany & Odeh, 2013; Wang & Lyu, 2019).

In an adapted version of their initial work, Mathieson and Wall (in Caldito, Dimanche & Ilkevich, 2015:107) depict tourist travel decision-making “as a sequential process which starts when tourists feel the desire or need for travel, and which is followed by an information quest, an evaluation of that information and finally the travel decision. Their main contribution was to note that the consumption process continues after the purchase, when tourists prepare the trip, and when they experience the tourism product until they are back home and evaluate their travel experience”. Figure 3.1 indicates that tourists make choices across the three stages and each stage contributes to the final result of their travelling experience.

**Figure 3.1: The consumption of tourism product by tourists**



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

Research into tourists travel decision-making has often explored the concept of emotions (Lee, Song, Lee & Petrick, 2018b; Song *et al.*, 2017; Walters, Sparks & Herington, 2012). Lee *et al.* (2018b:688) state that “emotions are an important factor in understanding the decision-making processes of pop culture fans”. Song *et al.* (2017) suggested that during

travel, anticipated emotions influence Chinese tourists' decision-making to travel to Korea. Walters *et al.* (2012) found that when planning a holiday, emotions influenced tourists decision-making process and the final choice of destination. Consequently, emotions are key to how "touring bodies relate to others and to places" (Buda *et al.*, 2014:112), thus offering insight into the subjective and bodily behaviour of tourists' experiences (David & Luke, 2003). Wijaya, King, Nguyen and Morrison (2013) and Hosany, Martin and Woodside (2021) established that emotions influence the pre-travel, during-travel, and post-travel stages of the tourism experience, as illustrated by Table 3.2. Since the list of emotions in each stage is non-exhaustive, Table 3.2 is used as a guiding framework to reveal the emotions of tourists in the pre-travel, during-travel, and post-travel stages, and is not complete.

**Table 3.2: Tourist emotions and the travel process**

Travel phase	Emotions	Definition
Pre-trip (pre-travel)	Fear	Dread of an impending disaster and an intense urge to defend oneself primarily by getting out of the situation (Öhman & Mineka, 2001)
	Anxiety	Apprehensive anticipation of future danger or misfortune, accompanied by a feeling of dysphoria or symptoms of tension (Lewis, 2008)
	Wonder	The state of mind that signals that the limits of our present understanding have been reached, and that our outlook might be different from the current understanding. It can generate interest in doing something (Opdal, 2001)
During-trip (during-travel)	Admiration	A feeling of pleasure, approval, and respect
	Embarrassment	Results from one's evaluation of one's actions in relation to the prevailing standards, rules, and goals in evaluating oneself (Lewis, 2008)
	Pride	Pride is the consequence of the successful evaluation of a specific action. Pride could be experienced through the feeling of joy over a positive action, thought, or feeling (Lewis, 2008)
	Anxiety	As for pre-trip anxiety
	Surprise	Elicited by unexpected events that deviate from predetermined perceptions (Schützwohl, 1998)
	Hedonic	The pursuit of pleasure or sensual self-indulgence
Trip-end (post-travel)	Joy	Experience of freedom, mastery, and social differentiation (Izard, 1992)
	Meditation	A mode of consciousness in realising some benefits, acknowledging contentment, or learning from a previous experience (Lutz, Slagter, Dunne & Davidson, 2008)

Source: Adapted from Ji, Li and Hsu (2016)

While assessing the attributes of a destination at the pre-travel stage, tourists undergo what Goossens (2000:306) called the "information processing mode". Ji *et al.* (2016) mentioned

that this mode allows tourists to perceive a new stimulus as somewhat similar to a memory to which an emotion is already attached, and then to transfer this emotion to the destination itself. Therefore, tourists are motivated to travel to that destination if their emotions are in accordance with their hedonic consumption needs; and they could refuse to travel if their emotions were associated with risk and uncertainty (Kim *et al.*, 2012b; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Song *et al.*, 2017). To maximise the positive outcomes of during-travel stage experiences, tourists regulate their positive (from happy to happier) and negative emotions (from sad to happy) using three phases of emotion regulation strategies: interpersonal (travel-group-focused strategies), situational (situation-focused strategies), and intrapersonal (self-focused strategies) (Gao & Kerstetter, 2018). Nawijn (2011) found that, even though emotions fluctuate each day, positive emotions are much more frequent than negative emotions in the during-travel stage. Similarly, Lin *et al.* (2014) found that tourists felt relatively better in the during-travel stage than in the pre-travel and the post-travel stages of the trip. Nawijn *et al.* (2013) argued that the reason behind the fluctuations in emotions was related to the length of the holiday: tourists might experience significant changes in the balance of their emotions on an eight-to-thirteen-day trip. Post-travel is the stage when tourists outline their behavioural intentions, centred on their evaluation of the trip when it is over (Wang & Davidson, 2010). Jung and Cho (2015) found that, owing to tourists' cognitive thoughts, negative emotions in the post-trip stage diminish and move towards more positive emotions. Smith, Li, Pan, Witte and Doherty (2015) posited that, unless a major negative and unpleasant incident happened during the trip, for most tourists, in the post-travel stage the positives of the trip outweigh the negatives. These findings about the post-travel stage, as mentioned above, suggest that positive emotions after the trip could motivate tourists to revisit a destination. However, tourists' pre-travel stage experience is the focus of the present research.

When planning a holiday in the pre-travel stage, tourists experience a series of emotions (either negative or positive) that are significant for the final decision-making process and destination choice (Walters *et al.*, 2012). Brunner-Sperdin, Peters and Strobl (2012:23) argued that "...when consuming tourism and leisure services, tourists do not only expect professional services but also desire satisfying emotional experiences". Thus, when planning a holiday, tourists' main desire is to satisfy their emotional experiences at the destination (Baksi, 2015), including aspects such as their interaction with travel companions,

their memories, and their previous experiences (Liu, 2016). To understand the emotions underlying tourism experiences better, the next section discusses the link between emotions and travel intentions.

### 3.5 EMOTIONS AND VISIT INTENTIONS

Positive emotions have been found to influence a tourist's intention to travel (Jang, Bai, Hu & Wu, 2009; Jang & Namkung, 2009; Su & Hsu, 2013; Yang, Gu & Cen, 2011). Positive emotions are not limited to pleasure, relief, fascination, positive surprise, or joy (Nawijn & Fricke, 2015). Jang *et al.* (2009) identified emotion as a factor in the intention to travel, such that positive emotions lead to a positive travel intention. Positive travel intentions consist of the intention to recommend travel to others, to encourage friends and family to travel, and to travel again (Agyeiwaah, Pratt, Iaquinto & Suntikul, 2020; Al-Saad, Ababneh & Alazaizeh, 2019; Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Park, Lee, Kim & Kim, 2019). For instance, Su and Hsu (2013) found that the future intentions of Chinese heritage tourists were significantly influenced by their positive emotions. Yang *et al.* (2011) showed that the possibility of commenting positively on a festival, returning to the festival, and recommending it to friends, family, and others in the future was significantly affected by the tourists' emotions. While Jang and Namkung (2009) revealed that the intention of senior tourists to undertake future trips was significantly influenced by their positive emotions, Su and Hsu (2013) demonstrated that the positive emotions of Chinese heritage tourists considerably influenced their intentions to revisit a destination.

However, tourism experiences are not completely without negative emotions (Hosany & Prayag, 2013). Negative emotions are not limited to sadness, anger, being scared, negative surprise, or shock (Nawijn & Fricke, 2015). Negative emotions have also been found to influence the intention to travel (Kim, Guo & Wang, 2022; Lehto, Douglas & Park, 2008; Nawijn & Fricke, 2015; Weng, Wu, Han, Liu & Cui, 2022). In the context of destination attributes, Kim *et al.* (2022) found that the negative emotions of tourists significantly influenced their future behavioural intentions, such as their revisit intention and their negative WOM intention. In the context of natural disasters and travel intention, Lehto *et al.* (2008) established that tourists' intention to visit a destination of choice was significantly influenced by negative emotions such as anxiety. While Nawijn and Fricke (2015)

demonstrated that, under certain conditions – such as visiting a concentration camp, a site associated with death and suffering – tourists' negative emotions influence their intentions to visit other such memorials. Weng *et al.* (2022) showed that negative emotions arising from Covid-19, such as fear and travel anxiety, influence tourists' intentions to travel.

According to Nawijn and Fricke (2015), negative emotions can also have positive outcomes. Nonetheless, when tourists experience negative emotions, they might choose to focus on trying to control their emotions by mentally or physically distancing themselves from the unpleasant incident (Ashworth & Isaac, 2015; Malone, McKechnie & Tynan, 2018; Sigala, 2020). Such avoidance behaviour, according to Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis and Gruen (1986), brings the individual emotional relief through their physical or mental detachment from a distressing or harmful situation. Tourism studies (Czaika, 2017; Salleh, Othman, Noor & Hasim, 2010; Salman & Hasim, 2012; Xiang, 2013) point to the existence of avoidance strategies in a visa application context. For instance, Salleh *et al.* (2010); Salman and Hasim (2012) found that tourists from Islamic countries look for alternative tourism destinations to avoid the strict visa requirement particularly of developed countries such as US and UK.

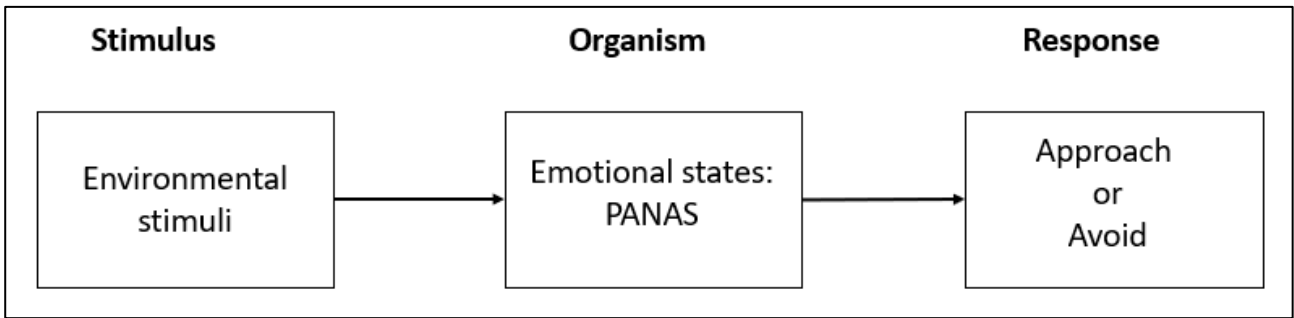
Similarly, Czaika (2017) found that strict visa requirements lead to the diversion of travel, trade, and capital flows to alternative destination countries with no or fewer visa requirements. Therefore, tourists are likely to avoid destinations with strict visa requirements because they anticipate experiencing negative emotions because of them. This confirms the earlier conclusions (Han, Back & Barrett, 2009; Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Jang & Namkung, 2009) that negative emotions, feelings, or states diminish tourists' chance to visit or recommend. Han *et al.* (2009) investigated the influence of emotions and switching barriers on restaurant customers' revisit intention. Their findings showed that consumption emotions, in particular negative emotions, are powerful predictors of customer (dis)satisfaction in the restaurant industry. Hosany and Prayag (2013) examined the influence of tourists' emotions on their intentions to recommend. Their findings indicated that emotional responses in particular negative emotions are powerful indicators of intention to recommend/not to recommend. In tourism-related studies, several settings have been used as stimuli. In a restaurant context, Jang and Namkung (2009) used atmospherics, service quality, and product quality as stimuli. Atmospherics and service quality were found to increase positive

emotions, while product attributes mitigated the negative emotions. To understand further the relationship between tourists' emotions that are triggered by the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination of their choice, the next section discusses the application of the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model of Mehrabian and Russell (1974).

### **3.6 MEHRABIAN AND RUSSELL'S STIMULUS-ORGANISM-RESPONSE (S-O-R) MODEL**

Several theories explain how individuals experience emotions, such as the James-Lange theory, the Cannon-Bard theory, the Schachter-Singer theory, and the cognitive appraisal theories – in particular, the Lazarus cognitive-mediational theory. These theories summarise emotion as a mixture of “physiological arousal, psychological appraisal, cognitive process, subjective experience, and expressive behaviour” (Hamid & Mohamad, 2016:199). It is important to understand not only emotions, but also what triggers them, and how individuals respond to them. To this end, this study applied the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), which states that the external social and physical environment (stimuli) has an effect on the emotional responses (organism), which in turn generate individuals' behavioural responses (the desire to approach or avoid) to the environment (Essawy, 2019; Floh & Madlberger, 2013; Jang & Namkung, 2009; Wu & Lai, 2022; Yang, Zhang, Liu, Li & Liang, 2022), as shown in Figure 3.2. In other words, negative emotions lead to avoidance behaviour, while positive emotions generate approach behaviour. One could argue that, when a person is exposed to a social and physical environment (stimulus), they generate internal states or experience emotions (organism), which then trigger their behavioural desire either to approach or to avoid (responses). Therefore, the S-O-R model was used in this study to gain a better understanding of how a tourist's expectations about visa requirements influence the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, which in turn affect their intention to visit a destination of choice. In this case, it should be noted that the stimuli directly and indirectly influence the response.

**Figure 3.2: The S-O-R model**



Source: Mehrabian and Russell (1974)

The significance of the S-O-R model has been shown in the literature, as it has been widely applied and conceptualised in different settings such as psychology, marketing, the retail and services domains, testing several stimuli, including unpleasant odours, chemical pollutants, crowding, and noise (Lee, 2014b). The application of the S-O-R model has recently been extended to the tourism context (Brunner-Sperdin *et al.*, 2012; Campbell & DiPietro, 2014; Hung, Peng & Chen, 2019; Jang & Namkung, 2009; Kim & Park, 2019; Li *et al.*, 2015; Ong & Khong, 2011; Su & Hsu, 2013). Table 3.3 shows some tourism-related studies that have applied the S-O-R model.

**Table 3.3: Tourism studies applying S-O-R model**

Scholars	Settings	Stimulus	Organism	Response	Results/Outcomes
Jang and Namkung (2009)	Restaurants	Atmospherics Service quality Product quality	Negative emotion Positive emotion	Behavioural intention	Atmospherics service were found to increase positive emotions, while product attributes mitigated the negative emotions
Forrest (2015)	Historical museum, Australia	Information rate Design appearance Spatiality	Emotional reaction	Behavioural engagement (museum visitor experience)	Vibrancy was found to be the strongest predictor of affective, cognitive, and behavioural engagement, while spatiality was found to be a predictor of a sense of relaxation in the exhibition environment
Tan (2017)	Thailand, Rai Chiang	Tour guide roles	Attitude and satisfaction	Revisit intention	Tour guides' role was found to play a significant role in tourist satisfaction and re-visit intention
Su and Swanson (2017)	China, visitors to Yuelu mountain	Perceived social responsibility	Negative emotion Positive emotion	Environmentally responsible behaviour	Perceived destination, social responsibility, and environmentally responsible behaviour were mediated by destination identification and positive/negative emotion.
Radic, Lück, Al-Ansi, Chua, Seeler and Han (2021)	The influence of the Covid-19 on cruise shipping by female cruise tourists	Perceived crowdedness, dining atmospherics, and interaction with other guests	Emotions	Approach behaviour	Female tourists had positive emotional responses owing to their perception of the cruise ship's dining environment, which led to their approach behaviour
Liu, Cui, Wu, Cao and Ye (2021)	Tourism service delivery	Tourism resource uniqueness and service quality	Positive and negative emotions	Tourist citizenship behaviour	Tourism resource uniqueness and service quality negatively influenced tourists' negative emotions and positively affected tourists' positive emotions. Furthermore, tourists' negative and positive emotions mediated the relationship between uniqueness and service quality, and tourists' citizenship behaviour
Xiong, Huang, Okumus, Chen and Fan (2022)	Chinese travel intentions	Tourist-generated content	Emotions (joviality, relative deprivation, and travel envy)	Travel intention	Positive emotion of the organism enhanced the effect of tourist-generated content and travel intention

Source: Researcher's own construction



Various behaviours are determined by mental states, which at times are affected by how individuals relate to a particular stimulus (Su & Swanson, 2017). In the context of this study, the expectations about visa requirements were seen as the chosen environmental stimulus. It is proposed that the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and the tourist's intention to visit a destination of choice is mediated by emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process (both positive and negative). In the S-O-R model, individuals' emotions play a prominent part in driving decisions and behaviour (Eroglu *et al.*, 2001; Ladhari, 2007; Machleit & Eroglu, 2000). In the context of this study, negative or positive anticipated emotional responses were presumed to predict the intention to visit a destination of choice. The term 'response' is the final component of the S-O-R model, and has been defined by Xiao and Benbasat (2011) as individuals' reaction to stimuli and an organism. Hence, the intention to visit a destination of choice is directly and indirectly determined by the expectations about visa requirements. In other words, tourists' emotional responses can influence their final behavioural intentions (Lu *et al.*, 2017). The next section provides an overview of the S-O-R core concepts used in the research.

### 3.6.1 Stimulus

The term 'stimulus' is the first component of the S-O-R model. It is generally defined as those visual and non-visual external factors that can lead to changes in the emotional state of an individual (Hsiao & Tang, 2021). Mehrabian and Russell (1974) mentioned that the stimuli are determined by their complexity, novelty, and information load. In other words, the more complex and novel the stimuli, the higher their impact on the organism (emotional states) than simple and common stimuli (Damminga, 2011). Jang and Namkung (2009) suggested that, in the service experience situation context, the S-O-R model could be extended to any industry-specific stimuli. In tourism-related studies, several settings have been used as stimuli. In a restaurant context, Jang and Namkung (2009) used atmospherics, service quality, and product quality as stimuli. Atmospherics and service quality were found to increase positive emotions, while product attributes mitigated the negative emotions. Forrest (2015), in a historical museum context, used information rate, design appearance, and spatiality as stimuli. In his study, Tan (2017) found that the role of a tour guide (used as the stimulus) generated positive outcomes. Liu *et al.* (2021) found two stimuli in the context of tourism service delivery: tourism resource uniqueness and service quality, and that both

negatively influenced tourists' negative emotions and positively affected their positive emotions. Similarly, in a Chinese travel setting, Xiong *et al.* (2022) established tourist-generated content as the stimulus. This stimulus consists of two variables: perceived enjoyment and perceived conspicuousness. In this study, expectations about visa requirements were used as the stimulus and included a non-exhaustive list of elements such as visa processing time, the costs of visas, the required embassy visits, the visa application time, the chance of denial, and the number of documents required. (Please see Table 2.5 for a list of visa requirements.) Various studies (Forrest, 2015; Hsiao & Tang, 2021; Liu *et al.*, 2021; Su & Swanson, 2017; Wu & Lai, 2022; Yang *et al.*, 2022) indicated that external stimuli trigger emotional responses that lead to particular outcomes and behavioural intentions.

### 3.6.2 Organism

The term 'organism' is the second component of the model. Different researchers have defined organism over the years. In a marketing context, Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer (1999:184) defined organism as "mental states of readiness that arise from appraisals of events or one's own thoughts". Eroglu *et al.* (2001:181) defined organism as "mental processes and states, and includes attitudes, beliefs, attention, comprehension, memory, and knowledge". In this study, organism is defined as "the internal experiences of an individual's affective cognition" (Hsiao & Tang, 2021:3), including the process of thoughts based on information processing and the experience of emotion or feeling (Benlian, 2015; Zheng, Men, Yang & Gong, 2019). Furthermore, emotions (organisms) can mediate the relationship between stimuli and the eventual response; thus, there is an indirect relationship (Essawy, 2019; Jang & Namkung, 2009; Machleit & Eroglu, 2000; Robert & John, 1982).

The literature review identified several studies (Forrest, 2015; Jang & Namkung, 2009; Liu *et al.*, 2021; Radic *et al.*, 2021; Su & Swanson, 2017; Xiong *et al.*, 2022) that used the S-O-R model and that measured the organism using different scales. For example, to measure the organism (positive and negative emotions), Jang and Namkung (2009) used Izard (1977) differential emotions scale (DES). Forrest (2015) used two scales – partly pleasure-arousal-dominance (PAD) and partly Plutchik (1980) psycho-evolutionary theory of emotion (PTE) – to measure the organism (emotional reaction). To measure their organism (positive and negative emotions), Su and Swanson (2017) applied Izard (1977) differential emotion scale

(DES); Radic *et al.* (2021) used the PAD scale to measure the organism (emotions); Liu *et al.* (2021) partly applied DES, partly positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS), partly Plutchik (1980) PTE, and partly Cai and Lin (2011) valence-arousal emotional space to measure the organism (positive and negative emotions); while Xiong *et al.* (2022) organism, which was composed of joviality, relative deprivation, and travel envy, was partly measured by the PANAS scale.

### 3.6.2.1 Measuring emotions (organism) in tourism

Measures of emotion from the psychology literature are used heavily in travel and tourism studies (Hosany *et al.*, 2021). Self-report and psycho-physiological measures are the two main methods used to measure the emotions produced by tourism experiences (Volo, 2017). The self-report method asks respondents to rate their emotional state on a set of affective items, or use open-ended questions to elicit their emotional reactions (Coghlan & Pearce, 2010; Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Lee & Kyle, 2012; Walters *et al.*, 2012). Psychophysiology is a method that “assesses the variations in the activity of physiological systems evoked by internal autonomic responses” (Li *et al.*, 2015:806). Table 3.4 below shows some recent contributions to the study of tourism emotions using these two methods. Despite the possible distortion of emotions as a result of the delay in collecting the data, self-reports remain the most popular method in tourism studies to capture emotional experiences (Li *et al.*, 2015). This study adopted the self-report method to measure tourists’ emotions.

**Table 3.4: Some recent contributions to the study of tourism emotions**

Methodology	Focus	Modalities	Advantages	Authors
Tourists’ self-report measures	Subjective interpretation of emotions	Questionnaires, interviews, diaries	Unobtrusive, straightforward, and simple	Hosany and Gilbert (2010); Hosany and Prayag (2013); Lin <i>et al.</i> (2014)
Psycho-physiological responses	Automatic body reactions	Electrodermal activity, heart rate	Can detect short-term changes; cannot be easily faked	Kim and Fesenmaier (2015)

Source: Adapted from Mauss and Robinson (2009); Volo (2017)

According to Sharma and Nayak Jogendra (2019) and Li *et al.* (2015), there are two key approaches to research on emotions in psychology and in the tourism and marketing literature: categorical (also known as ‘basic emotion’), and dimensional. Izard (1977)

established that emotions are operationalised in a categorical approach as an idiosyncratic affective state – for example, joy and surprise. On the other hand, Russell (1980) recognised that emotions are operationalised in a dimensional approach as a continuous underlying dimension – for example, arousal and pleasantness. To measure emotions in tourism, researchers adapt scales from psychology. Four adapted scales from these approaches are commonly used in tourism studies, as shown in Table 3.5 – namely, Izard (1977) differential emotions scale (DES), Plutchik (1980) wheel of emotion (WOE) eight primary emotions, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) pleasure-arousal-dominance (PAD) scale, and Watson *et al.* (1988) positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS). These approaches are explained in detail in the sections that follow.

**Table 3.5: Specific techniques used to measure emotion in tourism studies**

Approach	Emotion constructs	Developed by	Applied in	Major findings
Categorical	Surprise, guilt, shame, fear, sadness, contempt, disgust, anger, joy, and interest	Izard (1977): differential emotions scale (DES)	Hosany and Prayag (2013)  Hosany, Prayag, Deesilatham, Caušević and Odeh (2015)	Passionate, delighted, mixed, negatives, and unemotional were five types of emotion in tourists  DES was found to be a robust measurement scale to capture tourists' emotional experiences across different types of destination
	Surprise, joy, expectancy, disgust, fear, acceptance, sadness, and anger	Plutchik (1980): wheel of emotion (WOE)	Wang, Tang and Kim (2019b)	Six out of Plutchik's eight emotional dimensions (that is, all except for anticipation and surprise) were found to have a significant impact on review helpfulness
	Anger, discontent, worry, sadness, fear, shame, loneliness, envy, romantic love, love, peaceful, optimism, contentment	Richins (1997): consumption emotion scale (CES)	Coghlan and Pearce (2010)  Lee and Kyle (2012)	It was found that travel emotions, motivations, activities, and satisfaction were all connected  In a festival setting, the consumption emotion was found to be inconsistent over time
Dimensional	Pleasure, arousal, and dominance	Mehrabian and Russell (1974)	White and Scandale (2006)  De Rojas and Camarero (2008)	Emotions were found to be the strongest predictor of visitation intention  The relationship between emotion and perceived quality was significant in relation to cultural tourism
	Alert, enthusiastic, interested, active, strong, proud, excited, determined, attentive, inspired, anger, nervous, afraid, upset, jittery, guilty, ashamed, irritable, distressed, and hostile	Watson <i>et al.</i> (1988)	Jang and Wu (2006)  San Martín and Del Bosque (2008)	Positive and negative affects significantly contributed to the travel motivations of Taiwanese seniors  It was found that emotions influenced satisfaction and quality in respect of the perceived image of a tourist destination

Source: Researcher's own construction

### 3.6.2.1.1 Categorical approach

This approach attempts to cluster emotions according to their similarities, and does not determine the causes of emotions (Watson & Spence, 2007). For example, happiness, sadness, and anger are emotions that are assumed to be present from birth (Li *et al.*, 2015). To order the universe of emotions, researchers such as Izard (1977) and Plutchik (1980) took a biological perspective by categorising a collection of basic emotions (Richins, 1997).

#### Differential Emotion Scale (DES)

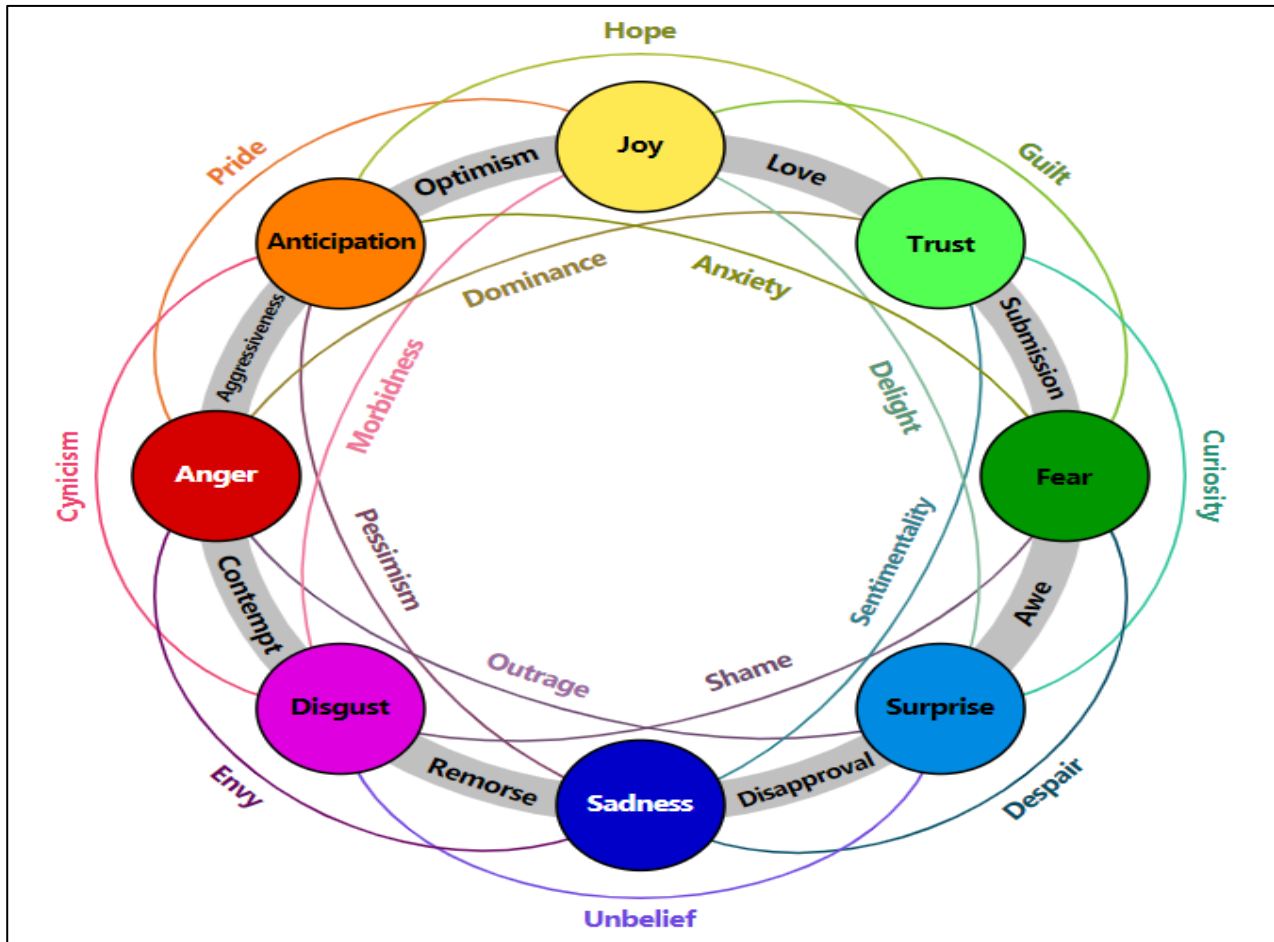
Izard (1977) differential emotion scale (DES) identifies ten primary emotions: fear, disgust, contempt, anger, distress, surprise, guilt, shame, interest, and joy (Tsaur *et al.*, 2007). Machleit and Eroglu (2000) found that, in Izard's scale, interest and joy were oriented towards the positive affect dimension, while fear, disgust, contempt, anger, distress, guilt, and shame were oriented towards the negative affect dimension, with surprise oriented in both dimensions. Izard's DES scale has been criticised by several scholars because it over-represents negative emotions and it uses a narrow range of emotions (Laverie, Robert & Kleine, 1993; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1992).

#### Wheel Of Emotions (WOE)

Plutchik (1980) psycho-evolutionary theory of emotions (PTE) proposes a briefer framework that is based on eight categories of emotions: joy, trust, fear, surprise, sadness, disgust, anger, and anticipation (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). Plutchik (1980) argued that one of the emotions (say, fear) defines which other emotions should be clustered in that grouping (Watson & Spence, 2007). Plutchik (1980) also asserted that his eight primary emotions are the starting point of all human emotional responses (Machleit & Eroglu, 2000). Resembling a wheel, these eight emotions are ordered in a spherical pattern, as shown in Figure 3.3 below. Plutchik (1980) also argued that it is possible to combine two emotions to create another emotion. For example, anxiety is made up of anticipation and fear; outrage is a combination of anger and surprise. Scholars such as Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005); Machleit and Eroglu (2000); Richins (1997) have applied this approach when measuring emotions in the tourism context. However, several scholars (Ortony & Turner, 1990; Prayag,

Hosany, Muskat & Del Chiappa, 2017; Watson *et al.*, 1988) have criticised Plutchik's WOE over its reliability and validity as a measure.

**Figure 3.3: Plutchik's wheel of emotions**



Source: Plutchik (1980)

### 3.6.2.1.2 Dimensional approach

According to Mano (1990), the dimensional approach attempts to categorise a collection of typical affect dimensions that can be used to separate particular emotions from one another. Borrowed from the field of psychology, the dimensional approach has been commonly applied in tourism research (Hamid & Mohamad, 2016). In fact, Hosany and Prayag (2013) found that the measurement of emotions using a dimensional approach is more highly favoured in tourism studies because it provides a more accurate account of emotional experiences (Lazarus, 1991), and typically influences behavioural intentions (Del Bosque &

San Martín, 2008; Grappi & Montanari, 2011). The pleasure, arousal and dominance (PAD) model of emotion (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) and the positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS) (Watson *et al.*, 1988) are the two main dimensional approaches.

### Pleasure, Arousal, And Dominance (PAD)

Mehrabian and Russell (1974) researched the effect of environmental stimuli on human beings' emotions and behaviour. Based on their research, they posited that an individual's emotional response to any social and physical environment could be defined in terms of three basic emotional states: pleasure (P), arousal (A), and dominance (D). Pleasure denotes the extent to which a tourist feels good, happy, satisfied, or delighted about the environment and situation; arousal refers to the level to which a tourist is excited, alert, or stimulated by the environment and situation; while dominance is the degree to which a tourist's senses are in control of the environment and situation (Lee & Kyle, 2013). Semantic differential scales, as shown Table 3.6, are used when measuring PAD, such that "each scale [is] intended to vary one of the dimensions while keeping the other two relatively constant" (Forrest, 2013:207). PAD is a commonly used framework in tourism studies (Eusébio & João Carneiro, 2015; Lehto *et al.*, 2008; Loureiro, 2015; Miniero, Rurale & Addis, 2014; Wang, Sirakaya-Turk & Aydin, 2019a; Zheng, Wei, Line & Zhang, 2021) to demonstrate emotional experience arising from the environment. For example, Loureiro (2015) applied the PAD model to examine the effect of website stimuli on positive attitude and intentions to visit and recommend. The findings indicated that website quality attitude and intentions were mediated by emotions, and that the formation of a positive attitude was more a result of arousal and dominance than of pleasure.

In another study, Lehto *et al.* (2008) investigated the influence of tourists' natural disaster perception on travel intentions, based on the PAD model. The pleasure and arousal dimensions were found to exert more impact on the visitors' future visit intentions than the dominance dimension. More recently, Wang *et al.* (2019a) employed the PAD model after catastrophic floods in South Carolina, USA, and found that pleasure, grouped into positive emotions, had a significant influence on the intention to recommend. Miniero *et al.* (2014) adopted the PAD model and found that arousal was a more dominant emotion than pleasure. In yet another, Eusébio and João Carneiro (2015) applied the PAD model to



investigate young people’s likelihood of exploring new destinations. The findings showed that they experienced more pleasure emotions than dominance emotions.

**Table 3.6: Russell and Mehrabian’s semantic differential scale**

<b>Pleasure</b>	<b>Arousal</b>	<b>Dominance</b>
Happy–Unhappy	Stimulated–Relaxed	Controlling–Controlled
Pleased–Annoyed	Excited–Calm	Influential–Influenced
Satisfied–Unsatisfied	Frenzied–Sluggish	In control–Cared for
Contented–Melancholic	Jittery–Dull	Important–Awed
Hopeful–Despairing	Wide awake–Sleepy	Dominant–Submissive
Amused–Bored	Aroused–Unaroused	Autonomous–Guided

Source: Mehrabian and Russell (1974)

Despite the extensive contribution of Mehrabian and Russell’s PAD model, Richins (1997) criticised it because, first, it ignored emotions such as feelings of love, which are central to individuals’ lives, and second, the semantic differential items measured were confusing to the respondents. Furthermore, several researchers such as Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn and Nesdale (1994); Sherman, Mathur and Smith (1997); Walsh, Shiu, Hassan, Michaelidou and Beatty (2011) criticised PAD for the failure of its dominance dimension to display predictive validity in conceptualising emotional response and its framework’s failure to capture discrete emotions.

To measure the organism component in the S-O-R model, this study used PANAS instead of PAD. The reasons for not applying Mehrabian and Russell (1974) PAD was that it “offers a bipolar framework for emotional responses to environmental stimuli” (Jang & Namkung, 2009:452). Bipolar responses are emotional responses such as “pleasantness–unpleasantness”. The limitation of using a bipolar framework such as the PAD scale is that it allows (a) joint occurrence – for example, “pleasantness–unpleasantness” states; (b) indifference; and (c) the occurrence of neither pleasantness nor unpleasantness (Westbrook, 1987:260). Building on Westbrook (1987) findings, Babin, Darden and Babin (1998:284) found that, when capturing consumer emotions, the bipolar view (the PAD scale in this case) was inadequate, indicating that “feeling a negative emotion does not preclude the occurrence of a positive emotion”.

## Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)

Watson et al. (1988) addressed the validity and reliability concerns of the PAD scale by developing PANAS, a 20-item semantic differential scale of positive and negative emotions. According to Crawford and Henry (2004), this scale of positive and negative emotions is further categorised into activation levels of high and low. Positive affect (PA) echoes the degree to which an individual feels inspired, alert, and strong, while negative affect (NA) reflects the extent to which an individual is distressed, ashamed, and guilty (Watson *et al.*, 1988). Therefore, a high PA is indicative of full concentration, pleasurable engagement, and high energy, while a high NA is a state of lethargy and sadness (Watson & Clark, 1984). The PANAS scale measures are shown in Table 3.7.

**Table 3.7: Watson, Clark and Tellegen’s scale measures**

Positive affective	Negative affective
Alert, enthusiastic, interested, active, strong, proud, determined, attentive, excited, and inspired	angry, nervous, afraid, upset, jittery, guilty, ashamed, irritable, distressed, and hostile

Source: Watson *et al.* (1988)

The PANAS scale has been widely used to measure emotions in travel and tourism contexts (Chua, Al-Ansi, Lee & Han, 2021; Jang *et al.*, 2009; Pelegrín-Borondo, Olarte-Pascual & Oruezabala, 2020; Torres, Ridderstaat & Wei, 2021a; Torres, Wei & Ridderstaat, 2021b; Weng *et al.*, 2022) because of the belief that it provides “independent measures of PA and NA” (Crawford & Henry, 2004:246).

For instance, Jang *et al.* (2009) applied the PANAS model to examine the effect of affective states (both positive and negative) and motivation on the travel intention of Taiwanese seniors aged 65 or older. The findings indicated that both positive and negative affective states were significant variables in influencing the travel motivations of seniors; however, only positive affect was found to contribute significantly in explaining future travel intention.

More recently, Weng *et al.* (2022) applied the PANAS model in the context of Covid-19 to investigate the relationships among potential tourists’ emotional states, psychological resilience, and travel intention in relation to a national forest park. The findings indicated that the positive emotion of the potential tourists had a significant and positive effect on their psychological resilience and travel intention, while their negative emotion had a significant

and negative effect on their psychological resilience and travel intention. Furthermore, the relationship between emotional state and travel intention was partially mediated by psychological resilience, which implied that the potential tourists' positive emotion and negative emotion affected their travel intention directly and indirectly through psychological resilience.

Torres *et al.* (2021a) adopted the PANAS model to investigate how the hospitality and tourism service consumption by US consumers changed during the Covid-19 pandemic. However, a modified version of PANAS was used in this study. Their findings identified the influence of negative customer affectivity on their decisions to purchase hospitality and tourism services. In particular, the intensity, timing, and duration of emotion, as well as demographics such as gender, age, and income influenced consumers' willingness to purchase hospitality and tourism services. In a different study, Torres *et al.* (2021b) examined the influence of risk-taking attitude, consumer affect, and sensation-seeking on tourists' willingness to purchase travel-related activities amid the Covid-19 pandemic, based on the PANAS model. However, again a modified version of PANAS was used in this study. Their findings showed that tourists who identified themselves as risk-takers, with lower negative affectivity and higher sensation-seeking levels, were more willing to participate in several travel and hospitality activities.

Similarly, Chua *et al.* (2021) investigated the influence of negative affect, perceived uncertainty, mental wellbeing, and perceived health risk on US tourists' forming travel attitudes and temporal avoidance behaviour to global destinations that were seriously hit by the Covid-19 pandemic. Likewise, a modified version of PANAS was used in this study. The results indicated that, as a result of Covid-19, negative affect significantly influenced perceived health risk, which in turn influenced perceived uncertainty and mental wellbeing. PANAS is regarded as a reliable and popular instrument for measuring positive and negative emotions (Harmon-Jones, Harmon-Jones, Abramson & Peterson, 2009; Tuccitto, Giacobbi Jr & Leite, 2010). PANAS provides a reliable and independent measure of positive affect and negative affect, and these components can be assessed separately (Watson *et al.*, 1988). Contrary to polar instruments of emotions, which suppose that the existence of any emotion – for example, sadness – negates the existence of the opposite emotion – for example, happiness – PANAS has the ability to consider the possibility that tourists might

simultaneously have both positive and negative feelings (Lim, Yu, Kim & Kim, 2010). PANAS has demonstrated exceptional psychometric properties in different populations, and has been validated in several languages. Table 3.8 shows some studies in a tourism context that have applied the PANAS scale in the S-O-R model.

**Table 3.8: Tourism studies applying PANAS and S-O-R model**

Scale	Model	Applied in	Context
PANAS	S-O-R	Loureiro, Stylos and Bellou (2021)	Destination choice (Greece and Portugal)
PANAS	S-O-R	Weng <i>et al.</i> (2022)	Travel intention to a national forest park in the context of Covid-19
PANAS	S-O-R	Medai and Wu (2022)	Factors influencing tourists' intention to participate in online tours in the context of Covid-19
Partial PANAS	S-O-R	Xiong <i>et al.</i> (2022)	Travel intention
Partial PANAS	S-O-R	Radic <i>et al.</i> (2021)	The influence of the Covid-19 pandemic on cruise shipping environment for female cruise tourists
PANAS	S-O-R	Namasivayam and Mattila (2007)	The effects of the servicescape on tourists

Source: Researcher's own construction

This study therefore used the PANAS scale to measure tourists' emotional responses (organism) to the visa application process, and how these emotional responses influenced a tourist's intention to visit a destination (response).

### 3.6.3 Response

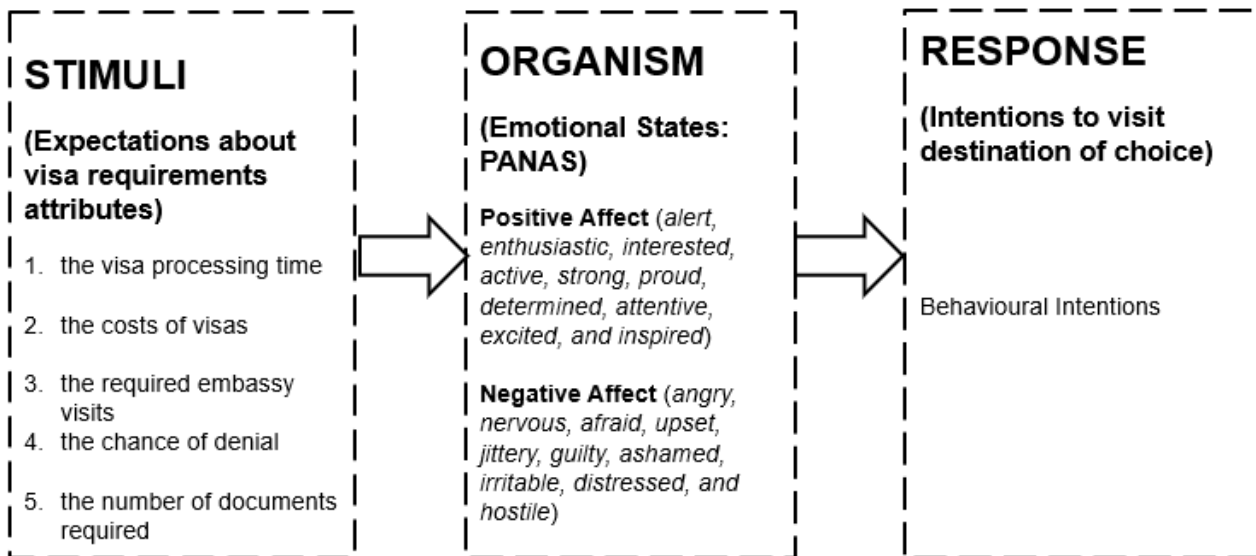
The term 'response' is the last component of the S-O-R model. Xiao and Benbasat (2011) defined response as the reaction to stimuli and organism by individuals. For example, after being exposed to stimuli and organism, an individual reacts to the environment with positive behaviour (approach) or negative behaviour (avoid) (Kawaf & Tagg, 2012). In other words, tourists' emotional responses can influence their final behavioural intentions (Lu *et al.*, 2017). Warshaw and Davis (1985:214) defined behavioural intention as "the degree to which a person has formulated conscious plans to perform or not perform some specified future behaviour". In the context of this study, behavioural intention refers to tourists' intent to visit a destination of choice.

Mehrabian and Russell (1974:30) established that “an individual’s preference for an environment is closely related to his or her preferred arousal level, and no matter what level of pleasure he/she starts with, he/she is likely to prefer situations where pleasure is enhanced”. Robert and John (1982) found that individuals increased their avoidance behaviours in unpleasant environments and increased their approach behaviours in pleasant environments. In a tourism context, this might mean that tourists tend to avoid destination countries with cumbersome visa requirement or tedious visa application processes, and to visit (approach) countries with lenient visa requirements.

Existing studies (Forrest, 2015; Jang & Namkung, 2009; Liu *et al.*, 2021; Radic *et al.*, 2021; Su & Swanson, 2017; Xiong *et al.*, 2022) have shown that, in the S-O-R model, the responses (approach or avoid) are triggered when a tourist is exposed to stimuli that generate internal states or emotions. For example, Jang and Namkung (2009) found that atmospherics and service quality increased positive emotions and that product attributes mitigated the negative emotions, which in turn increased the tourists’ behavioural intention (response) to visit a restaurant. Applying a S-O-R model in the museum environment, Forrest (2015) found that visitor responses (behavioural outcome) to the museum exhibition environment was mostly predicted by vibrancy, while spatiality was found to be a predictor of a sense of relaxation in the exhibition environment.

Figure 3.4 summarises a conceptual framework that applies the S-O-R model in the context of this study. The model illustrates the relationships between the expectations about visa requirements (stimuli), tourists’ emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process (organism), and visit intentions (response). It should be noted that the list of the stimuli is not exhaustive.

**Figure 3.4: A conceptual framework of the S-O-R model**



Source: Researcher's own construction

### 3.7 CONCLUSION

The chapter started with a discussion of the term 'emotion', which has been differently defined by various researchers in recent decades, with no agreement so far. However, this study adopted the comprehensive definition of emotion proposed by Malone *et al.* (2014). Since emotions have not been measured in the context of visa applications before; the main purpose of this chapter was to understand tourists' emotions resulting from the visa application process, as well as how these emotional responses influence their visit intention. In other words, the literature about whether tourists display emotional responses towards the visa application process was reviewed.

When planning a holiday in the pre-travel stage, tourists experience a series of emotions (either negative or positive) that are significant in their decision-making process and destination choice. The positive emotions are not limited to pleasure, relief, fascination, positive surprise, and joy. The negative emotions are not limited to sadness, anger, feeling scared, negative surprise, and shock. When tourists experience negative emotions, they might choose to focus on trying to control their emotions by mentally or physically distancing themselves from the unpleasant incident. In other words, tourists might avoid destinations

with strict visa requirements because they anticipate experiencing negative emotions because of stringent visa requirements.

The S-O-R model posits that the social and physical environment (stimulus) has an effect on the emotional experiences (organism), which in turn generate individuals' behavioural responses (desire to approach or avoid) to the environment. In other words, environmental stimuli (S) evoke individuals' emotional reactions (O), which in turn influence them either to approach or to avoid behavioural responses. As a result, the S-O-R model of Mehrabian and Russell (1974) was adopted for this study mainly because it can account for both the psychological and the physiological aspects of emotions, and has been recently extended to the tourism context.

This chapter concluded with an overview of four generally adapted scales in tourism to measure emotions, and adopted the positive and negative affect schedule scale (PANAS), developed by Watson *et al.* (1988). PANAS hypothesises 20 primary emotions split into positive emotions (alert, enthusiastic, interested, active, strong, proud, determined, attentive, excited, and inspired) and negative emotions (angry, nervous, afraid, upset, jittery, guilty, ashamed, irritable, distressed, and hostile). PANAS was chosen for its comprehensiveness and flexibility and for providing independent measures of positive affect and negative affect.

In order to realise the research objectives of this study, the next chapter develops the conceptual by integrating the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) and the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model.

# CHAPTER 4: CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 discussed the influence of visa requirements and the emotions of tourists that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on their intention to visit a destination of their choice. A visa application process that is perceived as being too cumbersome might evoke negative emotions that might result in tourists either losing interest in visiting their desired destination choice or choosing an alternative destination with less restrictive visa requirements. This chapter begins with a discussion of the application of the TPB in a tourism context, followed by an exposition of each construct. This chapter also summarises the literature chapters by developing a conceptual model that combines the constructs from the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model and the theory of planned behaviour (TPB). The model aims to measure whether the expectations that tourists have about the visa application process for their destination of choice influence their emotions. Furthermore, the model measures whether the emotional responses that are triggered as a result of the visa application process influence a tourist's intention to visit his/her destination of choice. More specifically, the model investigates the moderating effect of expectations about visa requirements on the relationship between TPB-based predictor variables and the intention to visit a destination of choice, and the mediating effect of emotional responses on the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and the intention to visit a destination of choice.

It is evident, as demonstrated in Chapter 2, that the TPB has been extensively applied in several contexts. What is more, several tourism-related studies, as shown in Table 4.1, have also applied the TPB to predict the tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice (Al Ziadat, 2015; Duarte Alonso, Sakellarios & Pritchard, 2015; Jordan *et al.*, 2018; Park *et al.*, 2017; Quintal, Thomas & Phau, 2015).



**Table 4.1: Previous studies using the theory of planned behaviour to predict intention to visit destination of choice**

Scholars	Behavioural Intention	Outcome
Hsu, Kang and Lam (2006)	Intention to visit Hong Kong	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all influence intention to visit Hong Kong
Jalilvand and Samiei (2012)	Tourists' intention to visit Iran	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, as well as eWOM, influence intention to visit Iran
Al Ziadat (2015)	Tourists' re-visit intention towards Jordan	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control influence tourists' re-visit intention
Quintal <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Behavioural intention towards visiting a winery	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all influence behavioural intention to visit a winery
Duarte Alonso <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Behavioural intention to visit heritage buildings in UK	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all influence tourists' intention to visit heritage buildings in the UK
Meng and Choi (2016)	Intention to participate in slow tourism	Attitude, subjective norms, perceived behaviour control, and authentic perception are significant in tourists' intention to participate in slow tourism, while environmental concerns are not significant
Park <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Chinese college students' Intention to travel to Japan	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all influence intention to travel to Japan; however, attitude has the greatest impact
Seow, Choong, Moorthy and Chan (2017)	Intention to visit Malaysia for medical tourism	Attitude and subjective norms influence tourists' intention to visit Malaysia for medical tourism, while perceived behavioural control is not significant
Han, Meng and Kim (2017)	Intention to travel by bike	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, as well as personal norm and past behaviour, influence tourists' intentions towards bicycle touring
Jordan <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Intention to travel to Cuba	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all influence US tourists' intention to travel to Cuba
Clark, Mulgrew, Kannis-Dymand, Schaffer and Hoberg (2019)	Intentions towards sustainable environmental behaviours	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, as well as moral norms and environmental identity, influence tourists' intentions to engage in sustainable environmental behaviours
Olya, Bagheri and Tümer (2019)	Intention to visit and recommend green hotels in Cyprus	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all influence intention to visit and recommend green hotels in Cyprus
Han, Al-Ansi, Chua, Tariq, Radic and Park (2020)	US international tourists' post-pandemic travel intentions	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, as well as perceived knowledge of Covid-19 and psychological risk, influence US international tourists' post-pandemic travel intentions

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Ibrahim, Borhan and Rahmat (2020)	Intention to use the bus-based park-and-ride (P&R) facilities in Putrajaya, Malaysia.	Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all influence users' intention to use P&R facilities in Malaysia, while trust is found to be not significant
Soliman (2021)	Tourists' intention to revisit Egypt	Besides the core TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control), the added variables (travel motivation, eWOM, destination image, and destination familiarity) exert a significant influence on tourists' revisit intention

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Source: Researcher's own construction

## 4.2 USING THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR TO PREDICT VISIT INTENTION

Section 2.4.5.2 explained the theory of planned behaviour and its constructs. From this discussion it was clear that the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) sees human beings as rational (Japutra, Loureiro, Molinillo & Ekinci, 2019). The key principle of the TPB is that intentions govern individuals' behaviour, which in turn is defined by attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 2002; Lam & Hsu, 2004). However, these three focal constructs (attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) are subject to individual differences (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).

It should be noted that the studies listed in Table 4.1 only used the three 'original' TPB constructs to predict the intention to visit the destination of choice. For instance, Al Ziadat (2015) found that international tourists' intention to revisit Jordan was influenced more by their attitudes and subjective norms than by their perceived behavioural control. Jordan *et al.* (2018) found that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all influenced US tourists' intention to travel to Cuba. Park *et al.* (2017) found that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all influenced the intention to travel to Japan; however, attitude had the greatest impact. Quintal *et al.* (2015) found that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control all influenced the behavioural intention to visit a winery. Similarly, Pritchard (2015) examined tourists' behavioural intention to visit heritage buildings in the UK. Attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control were all found to influence tourists' intention to visit.

Several scholars (Abbasi, Kumaravelu, Goh & Singh, 2021; Ajzen, 1991; Clark *et al.*, 2019; Han *et al.*, 2020; Han *et al.*, 2017; Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012; Lu *et al.*, 2017; Meng & Choi, 2016; Meng & Cui, 2020; Soliman, 2021; Wang, Wang, Wang, Li & Zhao, 2018) supported the addition of new constructs to the TPB to increase its predictive power relating to intention or behaviour once the core variables of the TPB (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) have been considered. Hsieh *et al.* (2016); Zailani, Iranmanesh, Masron and Chan (2016) established that the addition of a new construct in TPB would be done mainly to capture enough of the variance in intended behaviour (Zailani *et al.*, 2016; Hsieh *et al.*, 2016). Meng and Choi (2016) argued that a variable needs to conform to three

principles before being introduced into the original model (TPB): it should be (a) vitally important factor(s) that influence an individual's decision-making process; it should be theoretically independent from existing factors in the theory; and it should be hypothetically suitable for a specific behaviour (Meng & Choi, 2016).

Several examples exist of additional variables improving the predictive power of the TPB. For instance, Jalilvand and Samiei (2012) examined whether Iran as a tourist's destination choice was influenced by electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM). They found that the extended TPB model (with the additional construct of eWOM) was more robust than the original TPB model. It should be noted that the additional construct (eWOM) improved the predictive power of the model. Soliman (2021) investigated tourists' intention to revisit Egypt, and found that, besides the core TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control), the added variables (travel motivation, eWOM, destination image, and destination familiarity) did indeed exert a significant influence on tourists' revisit intention, as those extra variables improved its predictive power. Meng and Cui (2020) investigated how revisit intentions to home-based accommodations were formed, and found that the extended TPB model (with the additional constructs of experience-scape, perceived value, and memorability) was more robust than the original TPB model. Wang *et al.* (2018) extended the TPB in the context of understanding consumers' intention to visit green hotels in China. They established that the extended TPB model (with the additional constructs of perceived consumer effectiveness and environmental concern) had a better predictive power than the original TPB model.

The present study extended the TPB model to improve our understanding of tourists' intention to visit a destination. In particular, this model includes the original TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) and adds another construct, 'expectations about visa requirements', to the model to predict a tourist's visit intention. This study also examined whether expectations about visa requirements moderated the relationships between attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control and a tourist's intention to visit a destination of choice.

Even though a few studies have measured the influence of visa requirements on destination choice (Asquith *et al.*, 2019; Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014; Karl & Reintinger, 2017; Lee, 2014a; Lee *et al.*, 2010; Li & Song, 2013; Qiu *et al.*, 2018; Yang *et al.*, 2018), it has not been done

in the context of the TPB. To date, only Han *et al.* (2011) has extended the TPB model by incorporating the expectation of a tourist visa exemption to predict Chinese tourists' intention to visit South Korea. The results indicated that the addition of the new construct, 'expectation of tourist visa exemption' significantly improved the prediction of tourists' intentions to visit South Korea. This finding provided empirical evidence to support the notion that adding another construct to the TPB would assist researchers to understand tourists' behaviours better. Similarly, in this study, a new construct (expectations about visa requirements) was added to the TPB model, based on a thorough literature review.

Even though the TPB has established robust empirical support in clarifying related behaviours, its main criticisms remain that it has neglected the role played by non-cognitive factors of behaviour such as emotions (Klößner, 2013; Russell & Fielding, 2010). Therefore, in this study, the TPB and the S-O-R model were integrated to account for emotions.

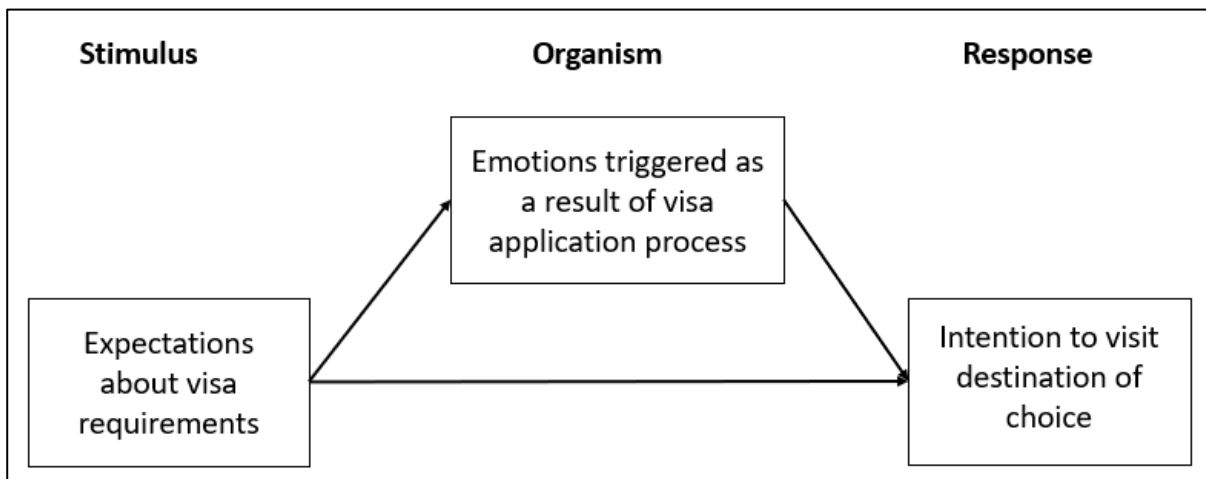
### **4.3 THE APPLICATION OF THE STIMULUS-ORGANISM-RESPONSE MODEL TO PREDICT VISIT INTENTION**

In section 3.6, Mehrabian and Russell's S-O-R model was explained in detail. The discussion showed that, in the S-O-R model, emotional states (organisms) mediate the relationship between the environment (stimulus) and the individual's response (response) (Nurmalina, Najib & Megawati Simanjuntak, 2019). The individual's responses to the environment (stimulus) can be regarded as either approach or avoidance behaviours (Essawy, 2019; Jang & Namkung, 2009; Liu *et al.*, 2021; Radic *et al.*, 2021). The advantages of applying the S-O-R model to any research context, according to Jacoby (2002), include its flexibility and its ability to examine stimuli (tangible and intangible, and internal and external); its ability to examine organisms (experiential and non-experiential, such as emotion, attitude, judgement, belief, perception/feeling, thinking, and motivation); and its ability to examine response factors (such as intention, behaviour, and avoidance).

As shown in Table 3.3 in Chapter 3, the S-O-R model has been widely employed in several tourism-related contexts. From that table it is also evident that the variables used to measure stimulus, organism, or response can change according to the study's objectives and focus. Nonetheless, most of the results in Table 3.3 revealed that travellers' emotions influenced

their behavioural responses. Several studies have pointed to the influence of the visa application process on tourists' emotions, but not in the context of the S-O-R model. Therefore, in this study the S-O-R model as depicted Figure 4.1 was used to understand the emotions of tourists that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, and how these emotions can influence a tourist's intention to visit a destination of choice. The stimulus in this study is tourists' expectations about the visa requirements of the destination that they intend to visit, as listed in Table 2.5 in Chapter 2. 'Organism' in this study refers to tourists' emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process. (According to the S-O-R, organisms mediate the relationship between stimulus and response.) 'Response' in this study refers to tourists' intention to visit their destination of choice.

**Figure 4.1: Application of S-O-R**



Source: Researcher's own construction

#### 4.4 INTEGRATION OF TPB AND S-O-R

A number of studies (Mansori & Chin, 2019; Nunthiphatprueksa, 2017; Nurmalina *et al.*, 2019; Sadom, Quoquab & Mohammad, 2021; Tan, 2017; Tan, Damnoen, Toprayoon, Dabjan & Damkam, 2022) in a tourism context have integrated the TPB and the S-O-R. For example, Nunthiphatprueksa (2017) investigated the relationships between social media, Thailand's destination image, and behavioural intentions, based on the TPB and the S-O-R. The S-O-R was used to examine the interaction between the stimulus of social media,

consumers (the perceived destination image), and response (the behavioural intention), while the TPB was used to provide better insight by including the cognitive dimension regarding the attitude of tourists towards a destination (Nunthiphatprueksa, 2017). Mansori and Chin (2019) examined the factors that influence tourists' satisfaction during their shopping experiences by integrating the S-O-R model and the TPB.

Nurmalina *et al.* (2019) investigated the contributing factors of online vegetables/fruits repurchase intention established on the S-O-R model and the TPB. The S-O-R was used to examine the stimulus (an agribusiness e-commerce environment) that influenced the organism (consumers' emotional responses), which in turn affected the final response (repurchase intention), while the TPB was used to predict the tourists' intention towards online vegetables/fruits repurchase. In the context of the Malaysian hotel industry, Sodom *et al.* (2021) examined the impact of environmental advertising and green attitude on frugality, based on the S-O-R model and the TPB. The S-O-R was used to examine the stimulus (green marketing strategy) that influenced the organism (green attitude), which in turn affected the final response (frugality), while the TPB was used to predict the tourists' intention towards consumption of physical resources and financial resources while staying in the green hotel. Tan *et al.* (2022) investigated the revisit intention of tourists towards spiritual and pilgrimage tours, based on the S-O-R model and the TPB. The S-O-R was used to examine the stimulus (spiritual experience) that influenced the organism (inner states of perception, cognition, and affection), which in turn affected the final response (revisit intention). The TPB was used to predict the tourists' revisit intention towards the spiritual and pilgrimage tours.

This study integrated the TPB and the S-O-R model to test the moderating effect of expectations about visa requirements on the relationships between the TPB-based predictor variables and the intention to visit a destination of choice, and the mediating effect of emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and the intention to visit a destination of choice. In other words, this study integrated the TPB and the S-O-R model to predict tourists' behaviour (the intention to visit a destination of choice). The S-O-R model was used to depict how expectations about visa requirements function as a stimulus of the organism (emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process), which in turn generates tourists'

behavioural responses (the intention to visit a destination of choice). At the same time, the TPB was used to explain how attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control influenced a tourist's intention to visit a destination, and how the relationships between attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control and visit intention were moderated by the tourist's expectations about visa requirements.

The proposed TPB and S-O-R integrated model is presented in Figure 4.2 (in section 4.5). It shows the relationships among attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination of choice. The inclusion of expectations about visa requirements and of the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process provided a better understanding of tourists' intention to visit a destination of choice, which were not reflected in the original constructs of the TPB. The constructs measured in this study (based on the TPB and the S-O-R) are explained below.

#### **4.4.1 Attitude**

'Attitude' is one of the most popular and most complex variables used in the field of social psychology, as well as in the field of consumer behaviour, to try to predict the behavioural choices of people (Ajzen, 2008). Researchers have defined attitude differently over the years. Even though many definitions have been proposed, most scholars agree that an individual's attitude signifies their evaluation of the object in question. Drawing on the TPB, attitude is defined as the "the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question" (Ajzen, 1991:188), and does not refer to any feeling or to any object associated with it; it "refers solely to the attitude towards the behaviour" (Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016:136). Individuals' attitudes are grounded in their existing beliefs about the object in question. These key belief attributes, also known as behavioural beliefs, are defined as one's biased view that carrying out a behaviour would result in a certain outcome (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977:895). Eagly and Chaiken (1993) called this particular outcome an outcome evaluation. According to Abbasi *et al.* (2021); Meng and Choi (2019), attitude is measured as a function of salient beliefs. Arising from these beliefs, individuals form negative or positive attitudes towards the outcomes of a behaviour. With regard to destination choice, attitude concentrates more on the tourist's feeling about a particular destination country and its services (Lam & Hsu, 2006). Therefore, the key belief



attributes of the destination determine the tourist's attitudes towards travelling to that destination, and thus will influence their intentions to visit it (Sparks & Pan, 2009). Table 4.2 provides a selection of the items used to measure a tourist's attitude towards visiting a destination of choice in previous studies.

**Table 4.2: Items used in previous studies to measure a tourist's attitude towards visiting a destination of choice**

Source	Items used to measure attitude
Jordan <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Traveling to Cuba would be ... enjoyable; pleasant; worthwhile; satisfying; fascinating; rewarding; authentic; convenient
Soliman (2021)	For me, revisiting Egypt for travel is ... extremely unenjoyable/ extremely enjoyable; extremely unpleasant/extremely pleasant; extremely unsatisfactory/extremely satisfactory; extremely unfavourable/extremely favourable; extremely boring/extremely fun
Park <i>et al.</i> (2017)	For me, traveling in Japan is ... good; valuable; pleasant; beneficial; interesting
Jalilvand and Samiei (2012)	For me, Iran as a tourism destination is ... very bad/very good; very worthless/very valuable; very unpleasant/very pleasant
Quintal <i>et al.</i> (2015)	My attitude toward this winery is ... bad/good; dissatisfied/ satisfied; unenjoyable/enjoyable
Han <i>et al.</i> (2011)	All things considered; I think visiting Korea would be ... enjoyable; valuable; interesting; desirable; pleasant; unforgettable

Source: Researcher's own construction

The measurement scale used in this study to measure a tourist's attitude towards visiting a destination of choice was a seven-point Likert scale sourced from Han *et al.* (2011) and Soliman (2021). The attitude measurement scale consisted of one question with seven items, of which six were adapted from Han *et al.* (2011) while one item ('fun') was adapted from Soliman (2021:548).

#### 4.4.2 Subjective norms

When a tourist decides on a destination to visit, their decision might be influenced by subjective norms – that is, “the opinions of the people important to him/her and ... perceived social pressure to behave in a particular way” (Lam & Hsu, 2006:591). Therefore, subjective norms are defined as “the person's perceptions of what others think of a particular behaviour” (Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016:137). In short, subjective norms is the influence of important people such as relatives, family, and friends on the tourist's decision-making

process that might alter their behaviour (Bae & Chang, 2021; Meng & Choi, 2016; Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016).

The literature on destination choice (Clark *et al.*, 2019; Han *et al.*, 2020; Ibrahim *et al.*, 2020; Jordan *et al.*, 2019; Olya *et al.*, 2019; Seow *et al.*, 2017; Soliman, 2021) proved that the views or opinions of people who are important to the tourist, such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors, can influence their intention to visit a specific destination choice. Without sufficient information about a destination they have not formerly visited, most tourists find it difficult to know the conditions of the country they intend to visit (Hakala, Lemmetyinen & Kantola, 2013). They depend on the opinions of people who are important to them, such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors. Bambauer-Sachse and Mangold (2011) established that potential tourists tend to search specifically for negative information or reviews because it is regarded as being more informative and diagnostic than neutral or positive information. Nazlan, Tanford and Montgomery (2018:450) found that “individuals place more weight on negative information than positive information”.

Perry and Hamm (1969) argued that the degree of individuals’ influence increases as the purchasing decision risk becomes larger. This means that, when planning to visit a destination, word-of-mouth, especially from relatives, family, and friends, is potential tourists’ most commonly pursued source of information (Bansal & Voyer, 2000; Bieger & Laesser, 2004; Dodd, 1998; Gitelson & Crompton, 1983; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Table 4.3 provides a selection of the items used to measure a tourist’s subjective norms about visiting a destination of choice in previous studies.

**Table 4.3: Items used in previous studies to measure a tourist’s subjective norms about visiting a destination of choice**

Source	Items used to measure subjective norms
Soliman (2021)	In the near future ... most people important to me think that I should revisit Egypt; most people who are important to me would want me to revisit Egypt; people whose opinions are valued by me would prefer that I should revisit Egypt
Jordan <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Most people who are important to me would ... approve of me traveling to Cuba; expect me to travel to Cuba; think that I should travel to Cuba; visit Cuba themselves; support me traveling to Cuba
Chen and Tung (2014)	Most people who are important to me think I should stay at a green hotel when traveling; Most people who are important to me would want me to stay at a green hotel when traveling; People whose opinions I value would prefer that I stay at a green hotel when traveling
Park <i>et al.</i> (2017)	I will travel to Japan because it is popular among my friends/ family; I will travel to Japan because my friends/family have talked a lot about it; I will travel to Japan because it has been recommended by friends/family

Jalilvand and Samiei (2012)	Important people in my life say I ought to visit Iran; Most people who are important to me would want me to visit Iran; People whose opinions I value would prefer me to visit Iran
Han <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Most people who are important to me such as family think I should visit Korea; Most people who are important to me such as friends would want me to visit Korea; People whose opinion I value such as relatives would prefer that I visit Korea; Most people who are important to me such as colleagues are likely to expect me to visit Korea; People whose opinion I value such as neighbours would approve my decision to visit Korea

Source: Researcher's own construction

The measurement scale used in this study to measure tourists' subjective norms about visiting a destination of choice was a seven-point Likert scale sourced from Jordan *et al.* (2018), Park *et al.* (2017) and Han *et al.* (2011). The subjective norms measurement scale consisted of one question with five items, of which the first two were adapted from Jordan *et al.* (2018). The second two items were adapted from Park *et al.* (2017). The last item was adapted from Han *et al.* (2011).

#### 4.4.3 Perceived behavioural control

Ajzen (1991:183) defined 'perceived behavioural control' as "people's perception of the ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour of interest". It is comparable to the self-efficacy construct found in Bandura and Adams (1977) self-efficacy theory, and is grounded in a tourist's perception of their ability and capacity to perform the behaviour, assuming that they want to do so (Bleakley, Ellithorpe, Hennessy, Khurana, Jamieson & Weitz, 2017). Perceived behavioural control is a significant predictor of behavioural intention, and refers to a tourist's beliefs about the factors or elements that could either promote or inhibit their intention to visit a destination of choice (Montano & Kasprzyk, 2015).

According to Ajzen (1991), control beliefs about the resources, along with perceived power, should be viewed as determinants of perceived behavioural control. Control beliefs are the tourist's awareness of either the absence or presence of the necessary resources to act on a particular behaviour, and perceived power is the tourist's capacity to plan effectively how those resources would influence either the inhibiting or the facilitation of the behaviour (Ajzen, 1985; Clavé *et al.*, 2015; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Therefore, if a tourist presumed that they had the resources to visit a destination, they would have a greater perceived control over that behaviour. In contrast, if a tourist did not feel that they had the necessary resources to visit a destination, they would have a lower perceived

control over that behaviour. Several studies of destination choice (Clark *et al.*, 2019; Han *et al.*, 2020; Ibrahim *et al.*, 2020; Jordan *et al.*, 2019; Olya *et al.*, 2019; Seow *et al.*, 2017; Soliman, 2021) demonstrated that the tourist's resources, time, and abilities were significant in predicting their intentions to visit a destination of choice. Table 4.4 provides a selection of the items used to measure a tourist's perceived behavioural control over visiting a destination of choice in previous studies.

**Table 4.4: Items used in previous studies to measure a tourist's perceived behavioural control over visiting a destination of choice**

Source	Items used to measure perceived behavioural control
Soliman (2021)	In the near future ... Whether or not I revisit Egypt is completely up to me; I am confident that I can revisit Egypt; I have money to revisit Egypt; I have time to revisit Egypt; I have opportunities to visit Egypt
Jordan <i>et al.</i> (2018)	I have complete control over visiting Cuba in the near future; If I wanted to, I could visit Cuba in the near future; Whether or not to visit Cuba in the near future is completely up to me; If I wanted to travel to Cuba in the near future, I could; It is mostly up to me whether or not I travel to Cuba in the near future
Chen and Tung (2014); Han <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Whether or not I visit Korea is completely; I am confident that if I want, I can visit Korea; I have resources, time and opportunities to visit Korea up to me
Park <i>et al.</i> (2017)	I feel nothing will prevent me from traveling to Japan if I want; I have enough money to travel to Japan; I have enough time to travel to Japan
Jalilvand and Samiei (2012)	I would be able to visit Iran; I have the resources and the knowledge and the ability to visit Iran; If I want to visit Iran, it would be easy
Song <i>et al.</i> (2017)	I am confident that if I want to, I can travel to Korea; I am capable of traveling to Korea; I have enough financial resources to travel to Korea; I have enough time to travel to Korea

Source: Researcher's own construction

The measurement scale used in this study to measure a tourist's perceived behavioural control over visiting a destination of choice was a seven-point Likert scale sourced from Han *et al.* (2011) and Soliman (2021). The perceived behavioural control measurement scale consisted of one question with four items, of which the first two were adapted from Han *et al.* (2011). The last two items were taken from Soliman (2021).

#### 4.4.4 Expectations about visa requirements

For the purpose of this study, 'visa requirements' is defined as the complete process required by the authorities of a country to obtain a visa prior to travelling to that country, in which potential tourists are obligated to submit an application and a wide range of specific supporting documents at the country's embassy, high commission, consulate, or visa

facilitation centre (Attström *et al.*, 2013; Whyte, 2009). A thorough review of the literature on visa requirements was done in section 2.6 and section 2.7; it identified several requirements – for example, the costs of visas, processing times, documents required, and visits to the embassies, high commissions, or consulates (EHC) or visa facilitation centres (VFC). Visa requirements play a dominant role in international travel, as they can determine whether tourists can visit their desired destination country or not (Rahim & Daud, 2012). Table 2.5 provided a list of visa requirements identified from the literature.

Liu and McKercher (2016) revealed that the relaxation of visa requirements would certainly increase tourist numbers. Likewise, Lawson and Roychoudhury (2016) showed that, at the bilateral level, travel visa requirements were associated with an inbound travel reduction of 70% from the destination country, while at the aggregate level, visa requirements were associated with an inbound travel reduction of 30%. Woyo (2017) showed that visa requirements policies affect tourism development by deterring tourists from visiting their destination of choice. As alluded to by Li, McCabe and Song (2017) above, tourists regard visa requirements as a barrier to international travel.

#### **4.4.5 Emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process**

According to the S-O-R model, an individual's exposure to environmental stimuli results in emotions or feelings (Kawaf & Tagg, 2012). Cohen (2005:5) defines emotions as the “low-level mental processes that are engaged by stimuli (or memories) with evaluative significance (different for each type of emotion) and elicit strong and stereotyped behavioural responses”. In other words, emotion is “a complex reaction of a person arising from appraisals of self-relevant interactions with the environment, which result in states of excitement, direction of attention, facial expressions, action tendencies, and behaviour” (Levine, 2010). Even though emotions are short-lived, they can be positive, negative, or mixed (Andrade & Ariely, 2009).

According to Mano and Oliver (1993), hedonic consumption experiences (such as tourism) activate cognitive and emotional reactions. For example, a positive and pleasant experience is equivalent to happiness, while the reverse is also true (Pine, Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Gardner (1985); Jang and Namkung (2009) discovered that a service provider's

environments (EHC or VFC, in this case), procedures, communication, or personnel evoke emotional responses from customers (tourists). Seminara (2008) recognised that “being refused a visa is a very emotional experience for many visa applicants” (Seminara, 2008:7). Neumayer (2010) established that, even before tourists embark on their holiday, they might already be emotionally dissatisfied with the visa requirements application process as a result of the queuing, the costs involved, and the processing time at the respective country’s embassy, high commission, or visa facilitation centre. Özdemir and Ayata (2018) found that many nationals from Turkey whose visa applications had been refused perceived Schengen tourist visa requirements as emotionally damaging, difficult, discriminatory, and unjust. Hence, one could argue that, upon learning whether they require a visa to visit their destination choice during the planning process in the pre-trip stage, tourists might experience emotional responses ranging from joy, excitement, satisfaction, frustration, and sadness to anger. Section 3.4.2.3 provided a discussion of the measurement of emotions in previous tourism studies, and provided a justification for using Watson *et al.*’s PANAS scale in this study. This scale measures 10 positive emotions: alert, enthusiastic, interested, active, strong, proud, determined, attentive, excited, and inspired; and 10 negative emotions: angry, nervous, afraid, upset, jittery, guilty, ashamed, irritable, distressed, and hostile.

#### **4.4.6 Intention to visit a destination of choice**

Ajzen (1991:181) defines ‘behavioural intention’ as an indication of how vigorously people “...are willing to try, of how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform the behaviour”. In other words, it “is a person’s motivation to perform the behaviour” (Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016:137). The TPB envisages that behavioural intention is the strongest factor affecting behaviour, as it influences the actual behaviour (Eom & Han, 2019; Han *et al.*, 2020). A tourist’s intention towards a specific behaviour will lead them to perform the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; McCabe *et al.*, 2016). Hence, the TPB suggests a positive correlation between the tourist’s intention and their actual behaviour. The TPB assumes that tourists’ attitudes towards a destination, their subjective norms about a destination, and their perceived behavioural control over visiting a destination collectively determine their visit intention and, as a result, their actual visiting behaviour (Ajzen, 2002).

In a tourism context, behavioural intentions could also refer to a tourist's commitment or intention to visit a destination of choice (Jeong & Shin, 2020). Jalilvand and Samiei (2012) found that attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and electronic word-of-mouth influenced tourists' intentions. Phau *et al.* (2014) found that conditional and social values significantly influenced young Australian tourists' intention to visit Mauritius as a tourism destination choice, while Al Ziadat (2015) found that international tourists' intention to revisit Jordan was directly influenced by their attitudes and subjective norms. Chan, Lee and Wong (2018) found that celebrity endorsement positively influenced the visit intention of Generation Y to travel to their destination of choice. Prentice and Kadan (2019) revealed that airport service quality significantly influenced a tourist's intention to revisit their Australia destination choice. Table 4.5 provides a selection of the items used to measure a tourist's visit intention in previous studies.

**Table 4.5: Items used in previous studies to measure a tourist's visit intention**

Source	Items used to measure attitude
Chen and Tung (2014)	I am willing to stay at a green hotel when traveling; I plan to stay at a green hotel when traveling; I will make an effort to stay at a green hotel when traveling
Al Ziadat (2015)	I would like to stay in Jordan again if I have another chance in the future; I intend to revisit Jordan again in the future; I am willing to pay more for vacationing in Jordan in the future; I am willing to visit Jordan more frequently
Jalilvand and Samiei (2012); Park <i>et al.</i> (2017)	I will save time and money within 24 months for the purpose of traveling in Japan; I will travel to Japan with friends/family within 24 months; Japan is my first choice for traveling overseas in the future
Olya <i>et al.</i> (2019)	I am willing to stay at a green hotel when traveling in the future; I plan to stay at a green hotel, instead of a conventional hotel, when traveling in the future; I will expend effort to stay at a green hotel, instead of a conventional hotel, when traveling in the future
Quintal <i>et al.</i> (2015)	My intention to revisit this winery in the next 12 months is ... likely/unlikely; impossible/possible; certain/uncertain
Han <i>et al.</i> (2011)	I plan to visit Korea in the near future; I am willing to visit Korea in the near future; I intend to visit Korea in the near future

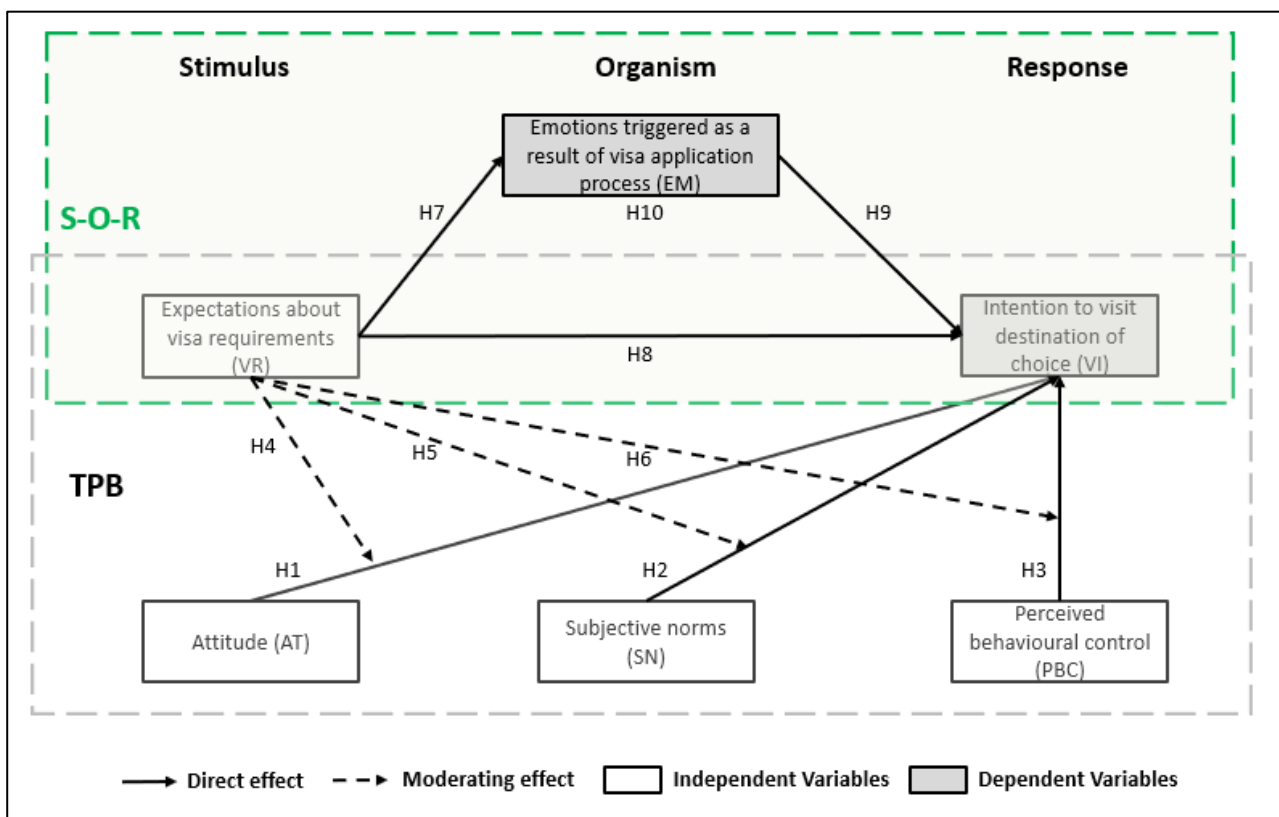
Source: Researcher's own construction

The measurement scale used in this study to measure tourist's visit intention was a seven-point Likert scale sourced from Han *et al.* (2011) and Park *et al.* (2017). The visit intention measurement scale consisted of one question with four items, of which three were adapted from Han *et al.* (2011), while the last item was adapted from Park *et al.* (2017).

## 4.5 CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR THE STUDY

Using the integrated TPB and S-O-R as the theoretical framework, the conceptual model was developed to understand the influence of expectations about visa requirements (stimulus) on tourists' emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process (organism) during the decision-making process, and in what way these emotional responses might influence tourists' intention (response) to visit a destination of choice. At the same time, the TPB was used to explain how expectations about visa requirements moderated the relationships between the original three predictor variables (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) and tourists' intention to visit a destination of choice. Accordingly, a total of ten research hypotheses were proposed to investigate the relationships among six constructs: attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, expectations about visa requirements, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and intention to visit a destination of choice. Figure 4.2 depicts the conceptual model used in this study.

**Figure 4.2: Conceptual model for the study**



Source: Researcher's own construction



Table 4.6 shows the constructs in the conceptual model and their definitions.

**Table 4.6: Conceptual model constructs and definitions**

Variable	Definition
Attitude towards behaviour	The tourist's favourable or unfavourable inclination towards visiting a destination of choice (Ajzen, 1991; Bianchi, Milberg & Cúneo, 2017; Han <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
Subjective norms	Tourists' perception of social pressure from people who are important to them, such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors, either to visit or not to visit a destination of choice (Bianchi <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Han <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016)
Perceived behavioural control	Tourists' perception or belief about the absence or presence of resources such as time, money, and opportunities to visit a destination of choice (Han <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Song, Lee, Park, Hwang & Reisinger, 2015; Sparks & Pan, 2009)
Emotions triggered as a result of visa application process	Tourists' positive and negative emotions that are evoked as a result of a compulsory visa application process (Han <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Okwenje, 2019; Song <i>et al.</i> , 2017)
Expectations about visa requirements	The complete process required by the authorities of a country to obtain a visa prior to travelling to that country, in which potential tourists are obligated to submit an application and a wide range of specific supporting documents at the country's embassy, high commission, consulate, or visa facilitation centre (Attström <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Whyte, 2009)
Intention to visit destination of choice	A tourist's decision, keenness, commitment, preference, intention, conscious plan, motivation, or willingness to visit the destination of choice in the near future (Han <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Jeong & Shin, 2020; Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Song <i>et al.</i> , 2017)

Source: Researcher's own construction

## 4.6 DEVELOPING THE HYPOTHESES

This section provides an overview of the literature supporting each of the hypothesised relationships.

### 4.6.1 The relationship between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and intention to visit a destination of choice

Several studies (Ajzen, 1991; Awan, Siddiquei & Haider, 2015; Cheng *et al.*, 2006; Song *et al.*, 2017; Sreen, Purbey & Sadarangani, 2018; Yeo, Goh & Rezaei, 2017) have demonstrated that attitude has a positive effect on an individual's intention to carry out a behaviour. In other words, a tourist's positive attitude concerning a particular behaviour reinforces their intention to carry out that behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, if the tourist's likelihood of carrying out a specific behaviour is favourably evaluated, then they will likely carry out that behaviour. In contrast, if the tourists' likelihood of carrying out a specific

behaviour is unfavourably evaluated, then they are unlikely to carry out that behaviour. Hence, tourists' intention to visit a destination is typically a result of their positive attitude towards that destination.

Several tourism research studies (Hu, Zhang, Chu, Yang & Yu, 2018; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Mohaidin, Wei & Murshid, 2017; Phillips, Asperin & Wolfe, 2013; Wu, 2015) found attitude to be an important factor that affected tourists' intention to visit a destination of choice. Huang and Hsu (2009) investigated Beijing tourists' intention to revisit Hong Kong, and found that the positive attitudes of the Beijing tourists influenced their intention to revisit or to choose Hong Kong. Phillips *et al.* (2013) examined US diners' intentions to visit Korea and consume Korean food, and concluded that the positive attitudes of the US diners towards Korean food influenced them to visit Korea. Wu (2015) investigated tourists' intentions in visiting leisure farms. The findings of that research revealed that attitude to agriculture products was one of the main drivers of the intention to visit leisure farms. Mohaidin *et al.* (2017) examined the factors influencing a tourist's intention to visit a sustainable tourism destination, and found that their environmental attitude significantly influenced the tourists' intention to visit a sustainable tourism destination. Hu *et al.* (2018) studied the factors influencing tourists' intention to visit mountainous tourism areas in China, and concluded that attitude significantly influenced their intention to visit such areas. It could thus be hypothesised that:

**Hypothesis 1:** There is a relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

A number of studies (Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Conner & Armitage, 1998) have confirmed that tourists' behaviours are significantly influenced by the opinions of important people. In this context, a tourist's intention to visit is expected to happen when the opinions of people who are important to them (such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors) recommend travelling to the intended destination. Several tourism research studies (Ashraf, Hou, Kim, Ahmad & Ashraf, 2020; Ramadhani, Kurniawati & Nata, 2020; Seow *et al.*, 2017; Wang, Fu, Wong & Zhang, 2021) found subjective norms to be an important factor that affected tourists' intentions to visit a destination of choice. Seow *et al.* (2017) concluded that subjective norms influenced foreign tourists' intention to visit Malaysia to obtain medical treatment. Ashraf *et al.* (2020) found that subjective norms positively influenced tourists' intentions to visit eco-

friendly destinations. Ramadhani *et al.* (2020) revealed that subjective norms significantly influenced tourists' intention to visit halal destinations on Lombok Island. Wang *et al.* (2021) concluded that subjective norms positively influenced the visit intention towards space-launch tourism. Hence, the following hypothesis was proposed:

**Hypothesis 2:** There is a relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.

Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) showed that tourists' intention to visit a destination of choice could be strengthened if opportunities and resources existed to perform such a behaviour. In other words, a tourist's intention to visit a destination of choice might be heightened by their beliefs about the obstacles and resources, such as time, money, and opportunity, that would either enable or impede their ability to visit a destination. Several studies (Karl, 2018; Karl *et al.*, 2015; Liu & McKercher, 2014; Montano & Kasprzyk, 2015; Park & Jang, 2013; Song *et al.*, 2017) have indicated that tourists' intentions are favourably influenced by their ability to act on the behaviour. This implies that, when a tourist has limited control over performing a particular behaviour owing to the unavailability of the necessary resources such as time and money, the tourist's intention to perform the behaviour will be reduced.

Several tourism research studies (Bianchi *et al.*, 2017; Chen & Tung, 2014; Park *et al.*, 2017) found perceived behavioural control to be an important factor that affected tourists' intention to visit a destination of choice. Chen and Tung (2014) found that perceived behavioural control influenced tourists' intention to visit green hotels. Bianchi *et al.* (2017) concluded that perceived behavioural control was a significant predictor of tourists' intentions to visit Chile. Park *et al.* (2017) found that perceived behavioural control significantly influenced Chinese students' intention to visit Japan. Based on these discussions, this study hypothesised:

**Hypothesis 3:** There is a relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.

#### **4.6.2 Expectations about visa requirements as a moderator between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination of choice**

According to Rahim and Daud (2012), visa requirements are the most unpleasant part of planning international travel because they can determine whether or not a tourist can visit their desired destination country. This view was echoed by Whyte (2008), who argued that visa requirements play an important role in international tourism, as they control the tourist's behaviour of travelling to desired destinations. On the one hand, the thought of having to obtain a visa, particularly during the planning stage, might lead to dissatisfaction about the destination even before they embark on their holiday (Neumayer, 2010). On the other hand, "one's expectation of visa-free entry to a certain country possibly stimulates a favourable attitude towards visiting the country and increases the likelihood of a decision to travel to the country" (Han *et al.*, 2011:54).

The concept of expectation is defined by Oliver (2014) as the subconscious anticipation of future behavioural consequences that might be influenced by other sources of information or different circumstances. Therefore, one could argue that the tourist's expectation of lenient visa requirements could stimulate their desire to visit a destination, while the expectation of strict visa requirements could discourage their intention to visit the destination of choice. For example, Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014) found that visa requirements gave tourists a negative perception of the destination. The study of Han *et al.* (2011) revealed that Chinese tourists formed a favourable attitude to, and the intention to visit, South Korea owing to their anticipation of lenient visa requirements. Tourists who expect stricter visa requirements might form a less favourable attitude and so be unwilling to visit the desired destination. Therefore, one could argue that the moderating effect of visa requirements changes the magnitude of the relationship between attitude and the intention to visit a destination of choice. Based on these discussions, this study hypothesised:

**Hypothesis 4:** Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

When planning to visit a holiday destination, the opinions of people who are important to the tourist, such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors, are the most commonly pursued

source of information (Bansal & Voyer, 2000; Bieger & Laesser, 2004; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Therefore, if a destination succeeded in increasing visitors' favourable experiences, it could encourage them to spread positive word-of-mouth about the destination and to discourage any negative word-of-mouth, which in turn could lead to an enhancement of subjective norms, because such visitors could be significant referents to potential visitors (Han *et al.*, 2011).

In line with this notion, this could be also true in the context of visa requirements. In other words, if a destination succeeded in increasing visitors' favourable experiences of the visa application process, it could encourage them to spread positive word-of-mouth about the destination and its visa requirements. This could in turn lead to an enhancement of subjective norms, because such visitors could be significant referents to potential tourists. The opposite is also true: if visitors have a negative visa application experience, it might make them spread negative word-of-mouth about the destination to potential travellers. In line with this view, if important people in the lives of prospective travellers have experienced a negative visa application process, it might influence them not to recommend visiting the destination. Therefore, it could be presumed that, if the tourist trusted the opinions of people such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors who perceived visiting a specific destination (with its visa requirements) as a recommendable behaviour, the tourist's intention to visit that destination would be likely to increase; and the opposite is also true. Based on these discussions, this study hypothesised:

**Hypothesis 5:** Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.

When planning to visit a holiday destination, the availability or unavailability of necessary resources such as time and finances influences the tourist's intention to visit a destination (Karl, 2018; Karl *et al.*, 2015; Montano & Kasprzyk, 2015; Song *et al.*, 2017). Perceived behavioural control, which consists of control beliefs, is the tourist's perception of how difficult or easy it is to perform a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, perceived behavioural control in this study could be understood as tourists' power of control of resources such as time and money, as well as their power of decision-making about a visit to a destination.

Several studies (Chen, Loverio & Shen, 2021b; Czaika & Hobolth, 2014; Lawson & Roychoudhury, 2016; Liu & McKercher, 2014; Tse, 2015) have found that visa requirements act as a barrier to visiting a destination and make it more difficult for a tourist to visit it. For instance, Lawson and Roychoudhury (2015) found that visa requirements deterred people from travelling to such an extent that, if they were eliminated, the travel flows between countries would more than triple. Similarly, Liu and McKercher (2014) established that visa requirements were the market access barriers that, when eased, had the potential to increase the number of tourist arrivals. Hobolth (in Czaika & Hobolth, 2014) showed that visa requirements were a considerable barrier to travel, in particular when an application became expensive and difficult for a tourist to obtain. Chen *et al.* (2021b) found that visa requirements were a barrier to travel, as obtaining the visa was not only difficult because of the high rates of visa rejections from countries such as the USA, the UK, and the Schengen states, but also expensive. Tse (2015) established that visa requirements were the main obstacle to entering the UK owing to the difficulty and the high costs of obtaining a visa.

It could also be argued that the visa application process, and the subsequent decision by the destination country to issue a visa or not, is outside of the control of the tourist, and so the decision to visit the destination does not lie within the control of the tourist. Therefore, visa requirements strengthen the relationship between perceived behavioural control and the intention to visit a destination of choice, since they act as an additional barrier, make it difficult to perform the behaviour (visit the destination), and also take away from the tourist some of their control in the form of decision-making. Based on these discussions, this study hypothesised:

**Hypothesis 6:** Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.

#### **4.6.3 The relationship between expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit a destination of choice**

The link between expectations about visa requirements and the intention to visit a destination of choice could be described as the first link between the stimulus and response components in the S-O-R model. Expectations about visa requirements can lead to negative

behaviour among tourists if they are perceived as strict or cumbersome; likewise, they can lead to positive behaviour among tourists if they are perceived as lenient or relaxed (Eroglu *et al.*, 2001; Ladhari, 2007; Machleit & Eroglu, 2000). Some studies have shown that stricter visa requirements lower a tourist's intention to visit a destination (Artal-Tur, 2016; Asquith *et al.*, 2019:36; Bangwayo-Skeete & Skeete, 2016; Li & Song, 2013; Neumayer, 2006; Neumayer, 2010; Neumayer, 2011). Others have indicated that lenient visa requirements increase a tourist's intention to visit the destination of choice (Balli *et al.*, 2013; Neiman & Swagel, 2009; Timothy & Kim, 2015). It could thus be hypothesised that:

**Hypothesis 8:** There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination.

#### **4.6.4 The relationships between expectations about visa requirements, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and the intention to visit a destination choice**

The second link in the S-O-R model connects the environmental stimuli to the organism construct. In this study, it relates to expectations about visa requirements and the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process. Bagozzi and Pieters (1998) pointed out that, before performing the actual behaviour, tourists develop emotions that are constructed on the anticipated consequences of a certain behaviour.

In the context of this study, tourists' emotions are triggered as a result of the visa application process. Seminara (2008) recognised that "being refused a visa is a very emotional experience for many visa applicants" (Seminara, 2008:7). In addition, Özdemir and Ayata (2018) found that many nationals from Turkey whose visa applications had been refused perceived the Schengen tourist visa requirements as emotionally damaging, difficult, discriminatory, and unjust. Hence, one could argue that, upon learning whether they require a visa to visit their destination of choice during the planning process in the pre-trip stage, tourists might experience emotional responses. This indicates that the visa application process is an emotional experience for many tourists. Based on this finding, the following hypothesis could be formulated:

**Hypothesis 7:** There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.

The third link in the S-O-R model connects the organism construct to the response component. In this study, it relates to the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and to the intention to visit a destination of choice. Existing studies across tourist attractions and destination settings (Bigné & Andreu, 2004; Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Kwortnik & Ross, 2007; Tsaur *et al.*, 2007) discovered that positive emotional experiences influenced tourists' decision-making, satisfaction, behavioural intentions, and destination choice, particularly when they were planning a leisure holiday. However, Sharma and Nayak Jogendra (2019) argued that even negative emotions might lead to positive outcomes in tourist behaviour, since both negative and positive tourism experiences can elicit negative and positive emotional states. Positive emotions lead to tourists' approaching the behaviour, and negative emotions lead to tourists' avoiding the behaviour. In other words, tourists increase their avoidance behaviours in unpleasant environments and increase their approach behaviours in pleasant environments (Robert & John, 1982).

In the context of this study, tourists tend to avoid destination countries with cumbersome visa requirements or tedious visa application processes and to visit (approach) those countries with lenient visa requirements. Therefore, on the one hand one could argue that the tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice would increase when positive emotions were triggered as a result of the visa application process; while on the other hand, the tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice would decrease when negative emotions were triggered as a result of the visa application process. Based on this finding, the following hypothesis could be formulated:

**Hypothesis 9:** There is a relationship between the emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

Based on the S-O-R model, the environmental stimuli could arouse individuals, thus affecting the internal organismic states that mediate their approach or avoidance responses (Essawy, 2019; Floh & Madlberger, 2013; Jang & Namkung, 2009; Wu & Lai, 2022; Yang *et al.*, 2022). In the context of this study, the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process (organism) mediated the relationship between expectations about visa



requirements (stimuli) and the intention to visit a destination of choice (response). It has been suggested in the literature that emotions can mediate the relationships between tourists' intentions and their antecedents. For example, Lee, Lee and Choi (2011) applied emotions as a mediating construct between visitors' quality dimensions and their behavioural intentions. Grappi and Montanari (2011) applied emotions (positive and negative) as a mediating construct between festival environmental cues and attendees' behavioural intention.

Other than exerting a direct impact on tourists' intention to visit a destination, the expectations about visa requirements indirectly influence visit intentions through the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process. Therefore, one could argue that the expectation of lenient visa requirements might trigger more positive emotions and thus an intention to visit the desired destination. At the same time, the expectation of stricter visa requirements might trigger more negative emotions and an unwillingness to visit the desired destination. Accordingly, the following hypotheses pertaining to the mediating role of emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process were established:

**Hypothesis 10:** A tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination.

## 4.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter began with a discussion of the application of the TPB in tourism. The TPB predicts that a tourist's intention to visit a destination is a function of their attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. The TPB was chosen as a theoretical foundation mainly because of its extensive use by a great number of scholars such as Al Ziadat (2015), Hsu *et al.* (2006) and Jalilvand and Samiei (2012) in a tourism context. In addition to attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, several studies have added predictor variables to the theory of planned behaviour. In this study, a tourist's expectations about the visa requirements for a specific country was added to the TPB as a moderator to explain visit intention. In addition, the study adopted the S-O-R model to depict the way expectations about visa requirements function as a stimulus to the organism (emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process), which in turn generate tourists' behavioural responses

(intention to visit a destination of choice). Guided by the TPB and the S-O-R model, a conceptual model was developed to understand the relationships between expectations about visa requirements, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and visit intention. This chapter concluded with a total of ten research hypotheses.

The next chapter discusses the research methodology used to empirically test the conceptual model.

## CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters presented a literature review and, from that literature review, the development of a conceptual model. This chapter begins by discussing the philosophical assumptions and the paradigmatic and epistemological perspectives underpinning the study. To meet the research objectives and to test the hypotheses, this study used a mixed-methods sequential exploratory design. The first phase was qualitative in nature, and the second phase was quantitative. The chapter concludes with a discussion highlighting the research ethics applied in conducting the study.

### 5.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The term 'paradigm' has been defined differently over the years. Guba and Lincoln (1994:107) define a paradigm as "...a set of basic beliefs that deals with ultimate or first principles which represent a worldview that defines, for its holder, the nature of the world, the individual's place in it and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts". Creswell (1998:74) defines it as a "basic set of beliefs or assumptions". However, for the purpose of this research, a paradigm is simply defined as the researcher's "worldview" (Rocco *et al.*, 2003:20). In other words, a paradigm is the set of assumptions, values, academic ideas, and beliefs that the community of scholars has in common when conducting research studies.

Having a general idea of philosophical viewpoints prior to deciding on the appropriate methodological choices for this study was imperative because (a) it assisted in outlining the approach that the researchers used to conduct the study; (b) it influenced the data collection process; and (c) it helped with the data analysis and interpreting the results. Creswell (1996) and Mason (2002) established that the basic beliefs of a paradigm are grounded on ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions. Guba and Lincoln (1994:108) use the following three fundamental questions to define ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions:

- Ontological question: “What is the form and the nature of reality and, therefore, what is there that can be known about it?”
- Epistemological question: “What is the nature of the relationship between the knower, or the would-be knower, and what can be known?”
- Methodological question: “How can the inquirer (the would-be knower) go about finding out whatever he/she believes can be known? It focuses on how we obtain knowledge about the world and indicates which research techniques are considered appropriate for collecting valid empirical evidence.”

The above questions imply that every researcher will approach their own study with different standpoints and philosophical assumptions. The combination of these fundamental questions will influence the paradigm that the researcher will use in framing the strategy for a specific research topic. There are five different paradigms that organise and structure social science research: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory, interpretivism (social constructivism), and pragmatism (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005; Ponterotto, 2005; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016). The associated strategies, methods, and approaches of the five paradigms, and the differences between them, are presented in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1: Five paradigms**

<b>Item</b>	<b>Positivism</b>	<b>Post-positivism</b>	<b>Critical theory</b>	<b>Interpretivism</b>	<b>Pragmatism</b>
Ontology	<i>Naïve realism</i> – One true reality that is realised, identifiable, and measurable	<i>Critical realism</i> – One true reality, but only realised and imperfectly measurable	<i>Historical realism</i> – Reality is what is socially constructed through the media	<i>Relativism</i> – Multiple constructed realities exist	<i>Relativism/realism</i> – Reality is what is practical, useful, and that works
Epistemology	<i>Dualism/objectivism</i> – The researcher and the object under study are assumed not to be dependent on each other	<i>Modified dualism/objectivism</i> – Reality can still be approximate; however, it is never fully known	<i>Transactional/subjectivist</i> – Knowledge is constructed through the media	<i>Transactional/subjectivist</i> – Reality can be expressed in language systems and a range of symbols	<i>Objectivist/Subjectivist</i> – Reality is known through using many tools of research that reflect both objective (deductive) evidence and subjective

					(inductive) evidence
Methodology	<i>Experimental and manipulative</i> – Hypotheses or research questions are subjected to empirical test to validate them; the study should be under controlled conditions to prevent findings from being manipulated	<i>Modified experimental and manipulative</i> – The research procedure involves falsifying hypotheses, and qualitative methods.	<i>Dialogic and dialectical</i> – The inquiry, which is transactional in nature, requires communication between the subjects and the researcher	<i>Hermeneutical and dialectical</i> – The research procedure involves eliciting individual constructions with the aim of generating social constructions	<i>Hermeneutical and modified experimental</i> – The research procedure involves both quantitative and qualitative approaches for data collection and analysis
Inquiry aim	Explanation; prediction and control		Critique; transformation; restitution and emancipation	Understanding; reconstruction	To address the meaning of inclusion
Nature of knowledge	Verified hypotheses established as laws or facts	Non-falsified hypotheses that are probable laws or facts	Structural and historical insights	Individual reconstructions coalescing around consensus	Individual values
Goodness or quality criteria	Conventional benchmarks of 'rigor'; reliability; internal and external validity; and objectivity		Historical situation and erosion of ignorance action stimulus	Trustworthiness, authenticity, and misapprehensions	Conventional benchmarks of objectivity and subjectivity

Source: Adapted from Guba and Lincoln (1994)

### 5.2.1 Post-positivist paradigm

This study adopted a post-positivist paradigm, which is found between the positivist and interpretivist paradigm. Guba and Lincoln (1994) argue that the post-positivist paradigm leans toward examining cause and effect among predominantly false hypotheses. It is well-known that there is no single correct method in social science; nevertheless, the post-positivist paradigm is characterised by multiple methods (Hirschheim & Klein, 1992). According to Lincoln and Guba (2000:107), the major difference between positivist and post-positivist paradigms is that the latter emphasises 'theory falsification', while the former emphasises 'theory verification'. However, post-positivist paradigm research tends to be grounded on deductive theorising, in which hypotheses and prepositions are empirically tested and then validated (Babbie, 2005; Mouton & Babbie, 2001). Post-positivism has been

criticised for causing intellectual incoherence because it “does not offer us any clear criteria for choosing among the multiple and competing explanations it produces” (Biersteker, 1989:265). Table 5.2 illustrates the main characteristics of the post-positivist approach.

**Table 5.2: Post-positivism’s main characteristics**

Definition	It is a scientific approach that involves description and systematic observation of the phenomena conceived within the theory.
Ontology (refers to the nature of reality)	It is a belief that there is a single true reality that is detectable and imperfectly measurable.
Epistemology (refers to the relationship between subjects and the researcher)	The assumption of independence between the researcher and the subject is objective but subject to a certain level of research bias.
Methodology (refers to the procedures of the research)	Researchers follow strict scientific approaches in which processes are carefully manipulated or controlled to remove bias.
Role of the researcher	The researcher remains distant, neutral, and objective.

Source: Adapted from Kahlert (2017)

### 5.2.2 Motivation for using post-positivist paradigm

In line with the view of Bhattacharjee (2012) that the world is a single true reality, detectable and imperfectly measurable, post-positivism was adopted as the research paradigm to guide this study. In other words, reality can only be measured and never be completely captured. The study was therefore approached from the ontological view which assumes that there is a single true reality that is detectable and imperfectly measurable (Kahlert, 2017). To accomplish this, post-positivist studies typically start with a theoretical foundation to develop the hypotheses and conceptual model. Then data is collected to test and confirm the hypotheses so to develop the existing theory further. In line with this view, the study tested hypotheses that were derived from the literature review (chapters 2 to 4) and by consulting established theories. The theory of planned behaviour and the stimulus-organism-response model were employed to understand the relationships between visa requirements, the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, and a tourist’s intention to visit their destination of choice. The analysis was conducted using the constructs of the model developed in this study. The researcher then opted to use valid, reliable, and standard scientific research methods. Deductive conclusions were drawn from the quantitative analysis of the data obtained using a representative sample of South African tourists planning to travel internationally in the next three years for holiday purposes. In addition, the adopted methodological choice of this research, a mixed-methods sequential

exploratory design, was argued to fall within the post-positivist paradigm (El Said, 2006). Even though the results could not be generalised owing to the sampling approach that was used, the researcher's aim was to remain objective. The sections below outline the broad research design.

### 5.3 BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design can be seen as a master plan or logic that indicates how research is supposed to be done. Mouton (1996:175) explains the purpose of a research design as being to "plan, structure and execute" to make the most of the "...validity of the findings". In this respect, Yin (2003:19) argues that "colloquially a research design is an action plan for getting from here to there, where 'here' may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered and 'there' is some set of (conclusions) answers". Based on Cooper and Schindler (1998), there are eight key issues to be considered when planning the research process; the research design of the study is summarised in Table 5.3.

**Table 5.3: Research design**

Category	Option	Motivation
Degree of crystallisation	Formal study	The study was conducted as a formal study, because it followed precise procedures and data source specifications. The goal of the formal study was also to test hypotheses or answer the research questions posed (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).
Data collection method	Communication/interrogation	The researcher questioned respondents and collected their responses by impersonal (focus group and questionnaire) means (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).
Researcher's manipulation of variables	Ex post facto	The researcher only reported on what happened during the study. He remained distant, neutral, and objective, and had no control over the variables.
The study's purpose	Exploratory design	The study explained the relationships between expectations about visa requirements, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and visit intention by finding out the "who, what, where, when, or why" (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:132).
The time dimension	Cross-sectional	The focus group interviews, and self-administered questionnaires were carried out once and were not to be repeated.
The topical scope	Qualitative study and statistical study	The study was designed to capture depth and breadth. To capture the population's characteristics, inferences were made about the sample's characteristics, and an interpretation of that information was done. The emphasis when it came to the qualitative study was on valuable details for strategy, evaluation, and problem-solving (Cooper & Schindler, 1998).

Research environment	Field conditions	The research was conducted under natural (actual) conditions (Cooper & Schindler, 1998).
Subjects' perception of the research	Actual routine	During the data collection process, the researcher attempted to create conducive conditions for the respondents such that there was little deviation from their everyday routine (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:132).

Source: Researcher's own construction

This study adopted a mixed-methods sequential exploratory design under a post-positivist paradigm. Qualitative research and quantitative research were combined to form the mixed-methods sequential exploratory design.

### 5.3.1 Qualitative research design

Qualitative research is aimed at understanding social problems and formulating theory from multiple perspectives (Denzin, Lincoln & Giardina, 2006). Domegan and Fleming (2007:24) assert that "qualitative research aims to explore and to discover issues about the problem on hand, because very little is known about the problem. There is usually uncertainty about [the] dimensions and characteristics of the problem. It uses 'soft' data and gets 'rich' data". The collection of qualitative data is non-standardised; it uses various analytical procedures, non-probability sampling, and data collection techniques such as case study research, ethnography, narrative research, document analysis, unstructured interviews, focus groups, direct observation, and participant observation (Cavana, Delahaye & Sekaran, 2001; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). The role of a researcher in qualitative research is to interact with the respondents; in extreme cases, the researcher might turn out to be an instrument of data generation because of their personal involvement. Questions and procedures might change or arise as the researcher and participants take part in a natural and interactive setting during the data collection process. Rather than gaining only physical access to participants, the success of the researcher's role is determined by building rapport and demonstrating sensitivity to gain access to participants' information (Neuman & Robson, 2014; Saunders *et al.*, 2012). According to Saunders *et al.* (2012), qualitative research can also be used to develop research instruments.

In the literature review, tourists' expectations about visa requirements were summarised. It was unclear, however, whether the list of requirements (given in Table 2.5 in section 2.7.3) was exhaustive. Therefore, qualitative research was undertaken to ascertain whether there



were additional requirements that the literature had not covered. In addition, since the emotional impact of the visa application process has not been measured before, it was necessary to ascertain whether the PANAS scale, which measures emotions, could adequately capture the emotions of tourists applying for a visa. Therefore, in the qualitative phase of this study, participants were questioned about their expectations about the visa requirements and about the emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process. Data collected through focus groups was used (together with the literature review) to develop the visa requirements expectations scale to be used in the quantitative phase, and to verify the applicability of the PANAS scale in the context of visa applications.

To elicit information from the participants, three structured focus groups were used to collect their responses to open-ended questions. The first and second focus groups consisted of participants who had applied for a visa before for holiday purposes. The third focus group consisted of participants who had never applied for a visa before for holiday purposes. Open-ended questions were put to the participants about their expectations about the visa requirements. They also shared their (anticipated) emotions that would be triggered as a result of the visa application process, and discussed how visas in general influenced their destination decision-making process. The process that was followed to elicit and analyse the data from the participants who had applied for a visa before and from those who had never applied for a visa before is discussed in detail in section 5.4.

### **5.3.2 Quantitative research design**

In contrast to qualitative research, quantitative research is a research methodology that is interested in theory testing, numerical data, and hypothetical relationships between constructs, and that predicts outcomes (Mahoney & Goertz, 2006). Mouton and Babbie (2001:646) define quantitative research as the “numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect”. The quantitative part is there to explain and predict the relationships among variables that might be representative of the population (Mahoney & Goertz, 2006:245). To make inferences about a population, the data collection techniques or data analysis procedures of quantitative research designs use or generate numerical data such as frequency counts, percentages, or other sophisticated statistical indices.

In this study, the quantitative data was collected by distributing an online self-administered questionnaire with closed-ended questions among the target population – namely, South African citizens living in South Africa who were aged eighteen years or older and who were planning to travel internationally in the next three years for holiday purposes. Respondents provided data relating to their international travel history and answered demographic questions. Some information from open-ended questions about the respondents' age and the destination country that they expected to visit within the next three years for holiday purposes was also elicited. More importantly, respondents provided data about their attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination of choice, as well as their expectations about visa requirements and the emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process. The process followed to elicit and analyse the data from the respondents is discussed in detail in section 5.5. To understand the core differences between the quantitative and qualitative research approaches, they are summarised in Table 5.4 (Neill, 2007).

**Table 5.4: Differences between quantitative and qualitative research**

Quantitative research	Qualitative research
The aim is to classify features, count them, and construct statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed	The aim is to complete a detailed description
The researcher knows clearly in advance what he/she is looking for	The researcher might only roughly know in advance what he/she is looking for
Recommended during latter phases of research projects	Recommended during earlier phases of research projects
All aspects of the study are carefully designed before data is collected	The design emerges as the study unfolds
The researcher uses tools such as questionnaires or equipment to collect numerical data	The researcher uses tools such as interview schedules, focus group guides, observation sheets to collect qualitative data
Data is in the form of numbers and statistics	Data is in the form of words, pictures, or objects
Objective – seeks precise measurement and analysis of target concepts; for example, uses questionnaires	Subjective – individuals' interpretation of events is important; for example, uses participant observation and in-depth interviews
Quantitative data is more efficient, able to test hypotheses, but may miss contextual detail	Qualitative data is richer, time-consuming, and less able to be generalised
The researcher tends to remain objectively separated from the subject matter	The researcher tends to become subjectively immersed in the subject matter

Source: Adapted from Neill (2007)

### 5.3.3 Mixed-methods sequential exploratory design

According to Yin (1989:28), a mixed methods approach is defined as “...the logical sequence that connects empirical data to a study’s initial research questions and, ultimately, to its conclusions”. Kemper, Stringfield and Teddlie (2003) define it as a concurrent method in which qualitative and quantitative data is collected and analysed in parallel form. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:17) broadly define mixed methods “as the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study”. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007:123) define a mixed methods design as “...the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration”.

Several scholars (Creswell, Fetters & Ivankova, 2004; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006; Sale, Lohfeld & Brazil, 2002) posited that qualitative and quantitative research approaches can cohabitate and can be combined. Sale *et al.* (2002:46) give thorough reasons why qualitative and quantitative research can be combined, such as that “they share the goal of understanding the world in which we live. They share a unified logic, and the same rules of inference apply to both. A combination of both approaches provides a variety of perspectives from which a particular phenomenon can be studied, and they share a common commitment to understanding and improving the human condition, a common goal of disseminating knowledge for practical use. Both approaches provide cross-validation or triangulation – combining two or more theories or sources of data to study the same phenomenon to gain a more complete understanding of that phenomenon (interdependence of research methods) and they also provide for the achievement of complementary results by using the strengths of one method to enhance the other (independence of research methods)”. Echoing the assertion of Sale *et al.* (2002), Collins, Onwuegbuzie and Sutton (2006); Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) recognise the following rationales for combining quantitative and qualitative research approaches:

- Participant enrichment: This is when the quantitative and qualitative techniques are mixed for the purpose of optimising the research sample by increasing the number of

participants (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). In line with this rationale, three focus groups with a total of nineteen participants were conducted, and a sample of 444 respondents from all the provinces of South Africa completed the questionnaire.

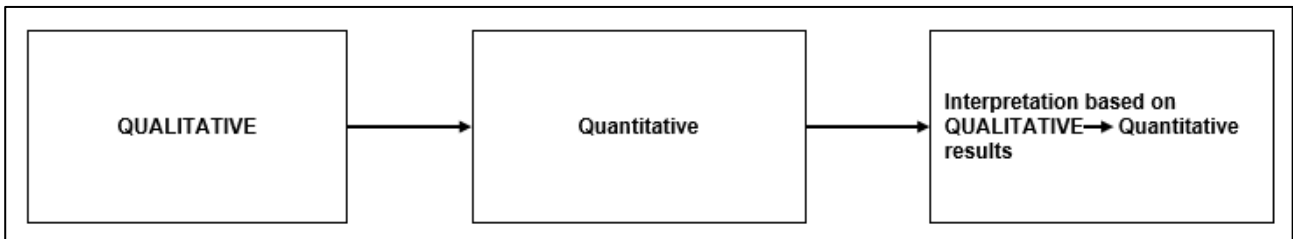
- Instrument fidelity: Without any dynamic error, this is the extent to which the appropriateness of quantitative or qualitative measurement instruments used in the study is optimised – for example, through a pre-testing study (Gresham, MacMillan, Beebe-Frankenberger & Bocian, 2000; Onwuegbuzie, 2000). In this study, focus groups and online questionnaires were used. Focus groups enabled the researcher to solicit qualitative data such as the perceptions, thoughts, emotions, feelings, and opinions of purposively selected potential participants; the online questionnaire collected information about the respondents' attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, expectations about visa requirements, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application, and intention to visit a destination of choice that requires visas.
- Treatment integrity: This is the extent to which the quantitative and qualitative techniques are mixed for the purpose of evaluating the fidelity of the programmes, treatments, and interventions that are implemented.
- Significance enhancement: This is when the quantitative and qualitative techniques are mixed for the purpose of maximising the researcher's data interpretation (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007).

As discussed in section 5.2, the post-positivism paradigm underpins this research study and is appropriate when conducting mixed methods studies. Therefore, this study adopted a mixed methods sequential exploratory design to present a comprehensive understanding of the visa application process, with a specific focus on the emotional experience. The choice of this design is supported by previous studies on visa requirements (Emami & Ranjbarian, 2019; Freier & Holloway, 2019; Jarvis & Peel, 2013; Ji *et al.*, 2021; Rittichainuwat & Rattanaphinanchai, 2015) that also used the mixed methods design to understand visa requirements. To solve the research problem satisfactorily, it is not only necessary to have an in-depth exploration and probing of some of the responses, but also to quantify the responses. As a result, these two methods (quantitative and qualitative) were used to provide a comprehensive picture of how the expectations that a tourist had about the visa requirements for their destination of choice influenced their emotions, as well as whether the

emotional responses that were triggered as a result of the visa application process influenced their intention to visit a destination of choice.

The mixed-methods sequential exploratory design consisted of two distinct phases: qualitative followed by quantitative (Creswell, 2007) as shown in Figure 5.1 below.

**Figure 5.1: Mixed-methods sequential exploratory design**



Source: Adapted from Creswell (2007)

In this study the researcher first qualitatively explored the research topic with a few participants. The qualitative findings then guided the development of items and scales for a quantitative survey instrument. In the second data collection phase, the researcher implemented and validated the instrument quantitatively. The rationale for this approach is that the qualitative data and subsequent analysis identify important variables to study quantitatively when the variables are unknown or when a researcher needs to develop and test an instrument because one is not available (Creswell & Clark, 2017; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010). The focus group findings in Phase 1 were used to develop the visa requirements expectations scale in the self-administered questionnaire used in Phase 2.

## 5.4 QUALITATIVE PHASE

The purpose of conducting the qualitative phase was twofold. The first was to ensure that the list of visa requirements that were identified in the literature review and that would be tested in the quantitative questionnaire was exhaustive; and the second purpose was to verify the applicability of the positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS) scale (developed by Watson *et al.*, 1988) in the questionnaire, since it had not previously been tested in the context of visa applications.

### 5.4.1 Target population

The target population for the qualitative phase was South African citizens living in South Africa and aged eighteen years or older, who either had applied for visas before or had never applied for visas before for holiday purposes.

Three focus groups were conducted. The first and second focus groups consisted of participants who had applied for a visa before. The third focus group consisted of participants who had never applied for a visa before. The reason for conducting three focus groups with different participants was that participants who had never applied for visas before would have had no experience of the process, and therefore the expectations that they had and the emotions that they expected to be triggered by the visa application process might have been different from those who had applied for a visa before. In addition, the visa process might have prevented some participants from visiting a specific destination (even though they had the discretionary time and money). Therefore, if only participants who had applied for a visa before had participated, it would not have been possible to collect responses from those who had not gone through with the process.

### 5.4.2 Sampling method

Probability and non-probability sampling are the two broad kinds of sampling technique. 'Non-probability' refers to sampling methods in which the researcher does not choose samples from the population through random selection but rather through subjective judgement (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). Purposive sampling, convenience sampling, and quota sampling are examples of non-probability sampling.

Purposive sampling, a non-probability sampling method, was employed for this phase. Since the potential target population shared a set of similar characteristics – such as either having applied for a visa before to travel internationally for holiday purposes or not having applied for a visa before – it was decided to adopt a homogeneous purposive sampling approach (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016). Purposive sampling is defined by Parahoo (1997:232) as “a method of sampling where the researcher deliberately chooses who to include in the study based on their ability to provide necessary data”. According to Mastaglia, Toye and Kristjanson (2003), purposive sampling is an approach that is frequently used as a method

of extending knowledge by deliberately selecting sample participants who are known to be rich sources of data. The main benefit derived from using purposive sampling is that it permits the researcher to use their judgement in choosing potential participants (Patton, 2002; Saunders *et al.*, 2012). The researcher used his personal network (family, friends, and colleagues) to invite individuals via email or WhatsApp to participate in the focus groups. Individuals who have applied for visas before, and those who have not applied for visas before were approached to take part in the study, enabling the researcher to solicit qualitative data such as the perceptions, thoughts, emotions, feelings, and opinions from both groups. In total, nineteen participants were purposively selected by the researcher to participate in the focus groups.

Technically, there is no specific rule about the ideal focus group number and size (the composition of each group). With respect to group numbers, Krueger, Casey, Donner, Kirsch and Maack (2001) suggest four focus groups at most, because theoretical saturation sets in after three or four groups. Strauss and Corbin (1998:143) define 'theoretical saturation' as "the point in category development at which no new properties, dimensions, or relationships emerge during analysis". In other words, theoretical saturation is the point where the collection of additional data adds nothing new such as insights or themes to a study. The average number of focus groups required to reach 80% saturation, according to Guest *et al.* (2017), ranges from two to three focus groups, while to reach 90% saturation ranges from three to six focus groups. Similarly, Hennink *et al.* (2019) found that three focus groups were enough to identify 80% of the themes across the data, and that from three to six focus groups were enough to capture 90% of the themes. In this study, saturation was reached after conducting three focus groups.

With respect to the focus group size, there is still disagreement in the literature about the ideal size. Different scholars have noted ranges in size from five to twelve participants (De Ruyter, 1996; Morgan, 1988; Prince & Davies, 2001) and from six to ten participants (Greenbaum, 2003; Leitão & Vergueiro, 2000). Although there is no agreed law among the scholars concerning the size of the group, it is generally accepted that a focus group should range from six to twelve participants (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006; Denscombe, 2008; Lewis, Ritchie, Ormston & Morrell, 2003).

In contrast, some scholars such as Fern (2001); Krueger and Casey (2001); Morgan (1996) argue in favour of the idea of using very small focus groups (also known as mini-focus groups) with two to five participants. According to Dilshad and Latif (2013), the mini-focus group is justifiable for use in situations where the subject matter needs to be explored in greater depth or when the participants have substantial experience to share with other participants. Given this argument, the use in this research of focus group sizes of two to four participants was justifiable: the topic under discussion needed to be explored in greater depth by identifying the list of expectations about visa requirements and exploring the emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, in order to verify the applicability of the PANAS scale in the context of visa applications.

In this study, three focus groups were carried out. Table 5.5 indicates the participants in the focus groups who had applied for a visa before, Table 5.6 shows participants in the focus group who had never applied for a visa before. A participant code was assigned to each participant to allow for identification when direct quotes were provided to illustrate findings. The participants' comments were provided verbatim and in quotation marks. The participants were labelled randomly, making use of numbers ranging from 1 to 13, with an added acronym to highlight whether the participants had gone through a visa application process (VAPA and VAPB) or not (NON-VAP). These tables further state the gender (male or female), population group (black, coloured, white, or Indian) and location of the participants. The VAPA focus group consisted of 13 participants, the VAPB focus group had two participants, and the NON-VAP focus group consisted of four participants. It should be noted that some participants had to leave the focus group discussion before it had concluded (VAPA-7, VAPA-1, and VAPA-2) while others (VAPA-13 and NON-VAP-4) joined the focus group 15 minutes after it had started.

**Table 5.5: Participants who had gone through a visa application process**

Participant code	Gender	Race	Location
VAPA-1	Male	Black	Johannesburg
VAPA-2	Female	Black	Pretoria
VAPA-3	Female	Coloured	Pretoria
VAPA-4	Female	Black	Johannesburg
VAPA-5	Female	Black	Pretoria
VAPA-6	Male	Black	Johannesburg



Participant code	Gender	Race	Location
VAPA-7	Male	Black	Pretoria
VAPA-8	Female	Black	Pretoria
VAPA-9	Female	Black	Johannesburg
VAPA-10	Female	White	Pretoria
VAPA-11	Male	Black	Johannesburg
VAPA-12	Female	Black	Pretoria
VAPA-13	Female	Black	Johannesburg
VAPB-1	Female	Black	Johannesburg
VAPB-2	Male	Black	Pretoria

Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 5.6: Participants who had never gone through a visa application process**

Participant code	Gender	Race	Location
NON-VAP-1	Female	Black	Pretoria
NON-VAP-2	Male	Black	Pretoria
NON-VAP-3	Male	Black	Johannesburg
NON-VAP-4	Female	Black	Pretoria

Source: Researcher's own construction

### 5.4.3 Data collection method – focus groups

According to Krueger and Casey (2000:5), a focus group is a "...carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions in a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment". Likewise, Powell and Single (1996:499) define focus groups as "...a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research". Stalmeijer, McNaughton and Van Mook (2014) noted that these definitions have common features such as small group sizes, certain topics are focused on, the engagement is stimulated by the facilitator, and there is high group interaction.

A fundamental feature of focus groups is the interaction among group members. Kitzinger (1994) found that interaction encourages participants to focus on their beliefs, values, and views of the world, to re-evaluate their own understanding, and to ask questions to each other. Stewart and Shamdasani (1992:16) argue that the interaction "...may result in production of data or ideas that might not have been uncovered in individual interviews".

In this study, the researcher assumed the role of moderator, with the main responsibility of keeping the discussions focused on the topic at hand. To promote the debate and elicit reactions, the moderator used a semi-structured focus group guide, asked open-ended questions (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Krueger & Casey, 2000), and probed participants when a deeper understanding was needed (Boddy, 2005). By definition, semi-structured guides are those “where the respondents have to answer pre-set open-ended questions” (Jamshed, 2014:87). Kajornboon (2005) defines a focus group guide as a list of key themes, issues, topics, and questions that the researcher wants to go through in a focus group discussion. Semi-structured focus group permit moderators “to get a wider range of experience but, because of the public nature of the process, prevents delving as deeply into the individual” (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006:315).

Focus groups have many benefits (Parahoo (2014:321):

- A focus group is a quicker and cheaper way of collecting valuable data;
- Potential tourists are more at ease in voicing their thoughts, opinions, and feelings in a group setup than on their own with the moderator;
- Focus groups give an opportunity to interrogate the opinions of participants;
- Vibrant communication among participants motivates their feelings and thoughts about the research topic in question; and
- It produces more information than individual interviews because everyone, including the moderator, has a chance to ask questions.

In this study, virtual focus groups were used rather than traditional focus groups. This was mainly because of the outbreak of the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic around the world; the use of virtual focus groups supported social distancing measures, as they eliminated physical contact between participants. The benefits of using virtual focus groups are exactly the same as those of using traditional focus groups, except that the virtual focus groups enabled the researcher to involve participants who were geographically separated in interrelating without having to meet face-to-face (Turney & Pocknee, 2005). It is also assumed that virtual focus groups make it easier for most potential participants to speak openly on issues that are personally sensitive in a way that would be more difficult to attain in a face-to-face meeting. The virtual focus groups were conducted using Microsoft Teams, since it is cheap, easy, and readily available on all smart devices powered by Microsoft

Windows. Turney and Pocknee (2005) found that the role of the moderator in virtual focus groups is not very different from the role of the moderator in traditional focus groups.

In contrast, Holloway and Wheeler (2002) found that focus groups are faced with some challenges:

- Difficulty for the moderator in controlling and managing the debate process;
- A high likelihood of bias, as the more extrovert participants might dominate and influence the discussion;
- It is associated with a daunting data analysis process; and
- The replication of the focus group is not feasible, which creates difficulties in ascertaining the findings' validity and reliability.

However, in order to prevent particular participants from dominating the discussion, the moderator articulated ground rules at the start of each focus group and reassured the participants that everyone's ideas and opinions were valued. To simplify the data analysis, the researcher cleaned up the transcripts by removing nonessential words.

Some additional risks in using focus groups are discussed below.

'Situational contaminants' are environmental factors that might impede the participant's response during the discussion, such as temperature, noise, and lighting. In this study, the situational contaminants were limited because the focus group was conducted virtually, which made it easy for most participants because they were in the comfort of their homes.

'Response set bias' relates to participants' personal characteristics that might influence them when responding to questions in the focus group discussion, such as answering misleadingly or untruthfully. In this study, response set bias was minimised, as the moderator oriented the participants to what to anticipate during the focus group session through the informed consent forms. This form contained information such as the purpose and implications of the study, an assurance that participants' names would be anonymised and that the data obtained would be treated as confidential, the expected completion time of the discussion, and the contact details of the researcher and the supervisor.

'Administrative variations' relate to the problems that might influence the researcher during a focus group session, such as recording the discussions and providing refreshments. Since

this focus group was conducted virtually, the administrative variations problems were excluded: there was no need for refreshments, and the researcher used Microsoft Teams, which has a recording function.

Each of the three focus group discussions was recorded, and the recordings were transcribed verbatim after each focus group. This was done to reduce the possibility of the researcher's memory bias. To ensure correct representation, the researcher cross-checked the transcriptions against the audio recordings for each of the focus groups.

- The first focus group was conducted on 04 February 2021. This focus group consisted of 13 participants who had applied for a visa before, and it lasted one hour and 22 minutes.
- The second focus group was conducted on 08 February 2021. This focus group had four participants who had never applied for a visa before, and it lasted for one hour and 19 minutes.
- The third focus group was conducted on 12 February 2021. This focus group had two participants who had applied for a visa before, and it lasted for 49 minutes.

#### **5.4.4 Data collection instrument (Appendices A and B)**

A semi-structured focus group approach was adopted, in which a focus group guide with several open-ended questions facilitated the discussion and encouraged interaction among the participants, including the moderator, by highlighting the topics that needed to be covered (Kitzinger, 1994; Schurink, Crafford & Schurink, 2011). Kajornboon (2005) defines a focus group guide as a list of key themes, issues, topics, and questions that the researcher wants to go through in a focus group discussion. Therefore, a focus group guide was used to seek clarification and insight, and to ensure that broad themes were covered in a comprehensive and systematic way. To accomplish this, the researcher applied the principles set out by De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delpont (2002) for formulating questions that are clear, understandable, in a single dimension, and are asked in everyday conversational style. Particularly in this research, the focus group guide was used to elicit the perceptions and expectations of the visa application process from two groups of participants residing in South Africa. Of particular interest was to assess tourists' expectations about the visa requirements; the possible emotions triggered as a result of the

visa application process; and how their expectations about the visa requirements influence participants' destination decision-making process. Therefore, the focus group guides were developed to focus the discussions and to make sure that there was a consistency of approach across the two kinds of group. The first focus group guide was used to elicit information from participants who had applied for a visa before for holiday purposes, while the second focus group guide was used to elicit information from the participants who had never applied for a visa before for holiday purposes.

Appendix A provides the focus group guide for the groups that had applied for a visa before, and Appendix B provides the focus group guide for the group that has not applied for a visa before. In both focus group guides, Section A, developed from the sources listed in section 2.6 and 2.7 of the literature review, covered expectations about visa requirements; Section B, developed from the sources listed in section 3.4, 3.5 and 3.6 of the literature review, covered the possible emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process; and Section C, developed from sources listed in section 4.6 of the literature review, covered the influence of visas on participants' decision-making processes.

#### **5.4.5 Pre-testing**

A sound research practice, according to Naoum (2012), is to conduct a pre-testing prior to performing the actual research. Holloway and Wheeler (2002) established that pre-test studies are not commonly used in qualitative studies' however, they are important for the researcher to get used to the type of data that is generated. In other words, the main reason for conducting a pre-testing is to provide the researcher with insights into the phenomenon and to orientate them to the study. Pre-testing also improves the focus group guide "...by identifying and eliminating potential problems" (Malhotra & Dash, 2016:354).

The pre-testing was conducted with four selected individuals from the study population to assess the guide and to make final recommendations and comments to ensure the appropriateness of its content and language. Two of the four selected individuals had applied for visas before, and the other two had never applied for visas to travel internationally for holiday purposes. These four individuals were not allowed to participate in the actual focus group discussions. One of the participants noted that they found the tenses used in the questions confusing, and did not know whether they should respond with past

experiences or hypothetical future responses. Using their feedback, the researcher implemented their comments by making relevant changes to ensure that the concepts and questions in the guide would be understood well. There has always been a debate in academia about whether judging the face validity should be done by experts (such as researchers) or by laypeople (such as potential participants). Those who are for experts argue that they have a deep understanding of research methods and tests of validity (Laitinen, 2006; Stallard & Rayner, 2005), while others argue that laypeople can provide valuable insights on the applicability of the research findings based on their experiences (Gaber & Gaber, 2010; Judd & Randolph, 2006; Laurian & Shaw, 2009). This study used potential participants to assess face validity based on the premise that we did not want to miss any valuable insights they might provide.

#### **5.4.6 Assessing quality**

Traditionally, validity and reliability have been identified with quantitative studies; more recently, however, they have also been applied to assess qualitative research (Anderson, 2010; Beck, 2009). Maxwell (2010:280) defines validity as the “correctness or credibility of a description, conclusion, explanation, interpretation, or other sort of account”, while Noble and Smith (2015:34) define reliability as the “application and appropriateness of the methods undertaken and the integrity of the final conclusions”.

##### **5.4.6.1 Validity**

Given that no procedure or method can guarantee validity, this study used various tools to assist in increasing the trustworthiness of the outcomes achieved while reducing threats to their validity (Coleman, 2022:2042). These tools included mechanical recording (Gray, 2021), verbatim transcripts of the interview data, and quasi-statistics (Maxwell, 2010), neutrality (Arksey & Knight, 1999), and triangulation (Torrance, 2012).

##### **5.4.6.1.1 Mechanical recording and verbatim transcripts of interview data**

Arguably, rather than using hand-written notes to capture interviews, the use of audio or video recording devices allows the raw data to be analysed properly (Gray, 2021). In this

study, Microsoft Teams, a free recording application on a laptop or smartphone, was used to capture the data from the virtual focus groups. Instead of selective interviewer notes, the construction of verbatim interview transcripts presents a greater and more telling picture (Coleman, 2022; Maxwell, 2010). In this study, the transcription of the recordings in full was outsourced to an independent professional transcription service.

#### **5.4.6.1.2 Quasi-statistics**

The use of quasi-statistics, or simple descriptive numerical data, “present[s] a valuable supplementary form of evidence to promote validity in a predominantly qualitative investigation” (Coleman, 2022:2043). This assertion is supported by Maxwell (2010:285), who argues that “many of the conclusions of qualitative studies have an implicit quantitative component”. In this study, frequencies were captured by indicating the number of times a specific visa requirement (section 6.2.2) and emotion triggered as a result of the visa application process (section 6.2.3) were mentioned.

#### **5.4.6.1.3 Neutrality**

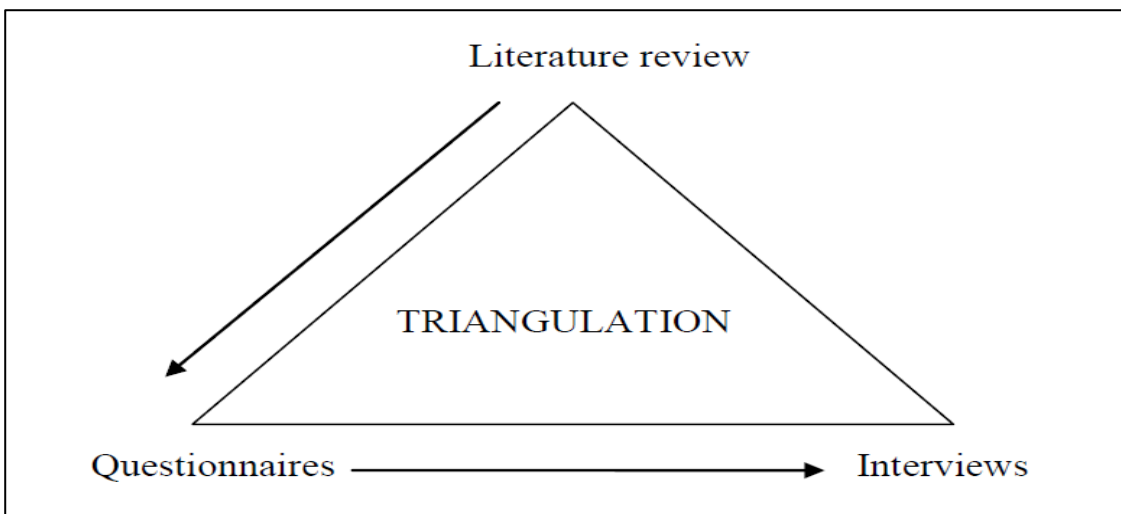
To demonstrate rigour, several studies (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012; Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2013; Noble & Smith, 2015) argue that most scholars ought to strive for neutrality by adopting such thinking explicitly in their studies, even though definitive neutrality might often be seen as an impossible goal to achieve (Diebel, 2008). Arksey and Knight (1999:55), for example, describe neutrality as “a requirement that the researcher considers their own role in the research” and the intention “is not to try to standardize researchers, but to have them reflect on the ways in which their background (class, gender, race, special concerns), personality (which is critical to achieving rapport and trust), mind set (assumptions and preconceptions), and actions have contributed to their account”. In other words, neutrality is the term that demonstrates that the study “provides an objective and unbiased view of the object under study” (Diebel, 2008:555). In this study, the researcher made a deliberate decision to express his thinking processes and reflections in a way that was free of bias by separating his conditioning circumstances, background, position, or perspectives from the study. Perhaps because this research adopted a post-positivist paradigm, one might argue that the results would be minimally affected by the scholar’s relationship with the

participants, as the post-positivist approach uses a consistent set of questionnaire-like questions in interviews (Diebel, 2008).

#### 5.4.6.1.4 Triangulation

To create a better understanding of the data, to acquire credibility, and to ensure its completeness, triangulation was employed. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:112) state that “exclusive reliance on one method of data collection may bias or distort the researcher's view of the particular slice of reality she or he is investigating”. In other words, the use of multiple methods, such as in this study where quantitative and qualitative tactics were employed, could offer an added opportunity to determine completeness (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012). In this study, triangulation is reflected in the use of three data sources: questionnaire respondents, focus group participants, and a review of previous studies in the literature (see Figure 5.2).

**Figure 5.2: Triangulation of data sources**



Source: Researcher's own construction

#### 5.4.6.2 Reliability

Reliability is seen differently in qualitative studies from how it is viewed in quantitative studies (Given, 2008). In contrast to quantitative studies, in qualitative research there are no available statistical tests that demonstrate reliability (Sutton & Austin, 2015). Nevertheless, three common tools are used to support reliability in qualitative studies: detail and



transparency (Fitzgerald & Dopson, 2009), multiple coding (Vaismoradi, Turunen & Bondas, 2013), and replicability (Bisman, 2010).

#### **5.4.6.2.1 Detail and transparency**

The first common tool to support reliability in qualitative studies is the use of detail and transparency (Fitzgerald & Dopson, 2009). The main aspect of reliability in such studies, according to Arksey and Knight (1999:54), is that “the researcher shows how the research has been done and decisions have been made, so that the reader could conduct an ‘audit trail’, examining the good sense and plausibility of the researcher's thought and actions”. With interviews, Coleman (2022) established that reliability could be augmented by imposing a structure on the interview process so that there might be better control of and uniformity within it. In this study, a focus group guide was used to ask for clarification and insights, as well as to ensure that broad themes were covered in a comprehensive and systematic way.

#### **5.4.6.2.2 Multiple coding**

The second common tool to support reliability in qualitative studies is the use of multiple coding (also known as intercoder reliability, consistency checks, or peer reviews) (Gray, 2021; Smith & Noble, 2014; Vaismoradi *et al.*, 2013). According to Burnard, Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick (2008:431), multiple coding “can make the analysis more rigorous and reduce the element of bias”. Coleman (2022) recommended that, when using multiple coding, preliminary themes should be scrutinised by an impartial party with particular knowledge of the field of practice or topic of interest. Furthermore, amendments ought to be done to the research outcomes on the basis of the feedback from a second disinterested party, and such changes be recorded within the study. In this study, one of the selected individuals from the study population who assessed the guide and made the final recommendations and comments to ensure the appropriateness of content and language, also examined the codes and preliminary categories from the transcribed data, and found no problems with them.

#### 5.4.6.2.3 Replicability

The third common tool to support reliability in qualitative studies is the use of replicability (Bisman, 2010). Replicability is defined as “procedural trustworthiness”; in other words, it “concerns whether the observations are repeatable (after allowing for contextual differences) and whether the investigator’s report conveys what you would have seen if you had been observing” (Stiles, 1993:602). Given that focus group interviews were used as a data collection technique in this study, Coleman (2022:2044) argues that digital “audio recordings and full transcriptions offer considerable opportunity to establish procedural trustworthiness”. This is an additional reason for the application of such methods to augment reliability in this research.

#### 5.4.7 Data analysis

Two popular techniques to analyse qualitative data are thematic and content analysis. Broadly, thematic analysis has been defined as “a way of seeing” and “making sense out of seemingly unrelated material” (Boyatzis, 1998:4). While similarities exist in the data collection processes of content analysis and thematic analysis, there are differences in the processes of analysis. This study followed the post-positivist paradigm, with mainly quantitative techniques being used; and content analysis is recommended with such a paradigm. Thematic analysis mainly follows a realist/essentialist and constructivist paradigm (Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012; Neuendorf, 2002; Smith, 2000). Content analysis provides a representation of what was said in answer to a prompt, while thematic analysis provides an interpretation of the broader meaning embedded in participants’ responses (Crowe, Inder & Porter, 2015). Content analysis is used to test hypothetical problems to improve the understanding of the data (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992; Krippendorff, 2018). Mainly for the above-mentioned reasons, content analysis was used for this study instead of thematic analysis.

Content analysis is defined by Cole (1988:57) as a technique of analysing visual, verbal, or written communication messages. In other words, content analysis is the “... systematic, objective, quantitative analysis of message characteristics” (Neuendorf, 2017:1). This definition implies that ‘objective’, ‘systematic’, and ‘quantitative’ are the key marks of content analysis. Objective implies the replicability of the researcher’s system in the study. In other

words, different people would get similar results to the researcher if they used the researcher's system adopted in the study. Systematic implies either the exclusion or the inclusion of content according to some consistently applied rules, so that the possibility of including only materials that support the researcher's ideas is eliminated. Quantitative suggests that written, spoken, or visualised messages of communication can be granulated into significantly fewer mathematical 'numbers' or content categories for analysis (Broom & Dozier, 1990; Struwig & Stead, 2001).

Content analysis was used to measure the occurrence of identifiable elements in the transcriptions. The objective was to investigate tourists' visa application experiences, with a specific focus on the emotional experience of the tourists as well as the requirements they had to meet for their application. To ensure compliance with the requirements of being objective, systematic, and quantitative, the data analysis followed the steps in Table 5.7, as suggested by Erlingsson and Brysiewicz (2017).

**Table 5.7: Steps followed when using content analysis**

Steps	Method description
1	Read the responses to each question to get an understanding of what the main ideas or points are that participants are trying to make.
2	Divide the participants' statements into smaller parts (concepts) while at the same time making sure that the core meaning of that concept is preserved.
3	Assign an alphabetical code to each concept in the participants' statements.
4	Group similar concepts together into categories.
5	Count the number of times a concept and category appears.

Source: Researcher's own construction

To give an example of how these steps were applied, the question, "How do you expect to be treated?", as posed to participants who had never applied for visas before, will be used.

*Step 1:* Read the responses to each question to get an understanding of what the main ideas or points are that participants are trying to make.

- From my side I am just a bit pessimistic, but I honestly expect to be treated negatively. I think not just coming from a lower income country, for example, if I have to go to the American Embassy, will I be viewed with suspicion because aside from me being from an African country but also looking at the fact that I am black and all of those

situations. Because at the end of the day, all of these processes play to fight crime, but the purpose is primarily to reduce the influx of immigrants, refugees to an extent in those countries. Fitting most of the criteria, my visa application would be reviewed more strictly than for example my Caucasian counterparts and so on.

*Step 2:* Divide the participant statements into smaller parts while at the same time making sure that the core meaning of that statement is preserved

- From my side I am just a bit pessimistic, but I honestly expect to be treated negatively (*I expect to be treated negatively*).
- I think not just coming from a lower income country, for example, if I have to go to the American Embassy, will I be viewed with suspicion because aside from me being from an African country but also looking at the fact that I am black and all of those situations (*I will be viewed with suspicion because of my origin and race*).
- Because at the end of the day, all of these processes play to fight crime, but the purpose is primarily to reduce the influx of immigrants, refugees to an extent in those countries (*The primary purpose of visas is not only to fight crime but to reduce the influx of migrants*).
- Fitting most of the criteria, my visa application would be reviewed more strictly than for example my Caucasian counterparts and so on (*My visa application will be reviewed more strictly because of my race*)

*Step 3:* Assign a numerical code to each concept in the participants' statements.

<b><u>Meaning of units' condensations</u></b>	<b><u>Codes</u></b>
I expect to be treated negatively	1= Treated negatively
I will be viewed with suspicion because of my origin and race	2= Suspicion because of origin and race
The primary purpose of visas is not only to fight crime but to reduce the influx of immigrants	3= Visas used to reduce mobility
My visa application will be reviewed more strictly because of my race	4= Application viewed more strictly because of race

Source: Researcher's own construction

*Step 4:* Group similar concepts together into categories

<b><u>Meaning of units' condensations</u></b>	<b><u>Codes</u></b>	<b><u>Category</u></b>
I expect to be treated negatively	1= Treated negatively	A=Negative treatment
I will be viewed with suspicion because of my origin and race	2= Suspicion because of origin and race	B=Discrimination
The primary purpose of visas is not only to fight crime but to reduce the influx of immigrants	3= Visas used to reduce mobility	C=Purpose of visas
My visa application will be reviewed more strictly because of my race	4= Application viewed more strictly because of race	D=Discrimination

Source: Researcher's own construction

*Step 5:* Count the number of times a concept and category appears

Manual content analysis occurs where the researchers study the text and make useful references to produce relevant insights (Cheng & Edwards, 2019). In this study, a manual content analysis was used rather than a comparative automated content analysis (ACA) approach, which uses software such as Leximancer (Cheng & Edwards, 2019). ACA is needed to process a large dataset, which was not the case in this study; therefore, manual content analysis was more suitable. To permit the researchers to be immersed in the text in order to identify concepts and categories better, manual content analysis was required (Boo & Busser, 2018).

## **5.5 QUANTITATIVE PHASE**

The qualitative phase was used to make sure that the list of visa requirements identified from the literature was exhaustive, and to explore the emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process in order to verify the applicability of the PANAS scale in a visa application context. The second phase was quantitative in nature, in which the relationships among the constructs were tested.

### **5.5.1 Target population**

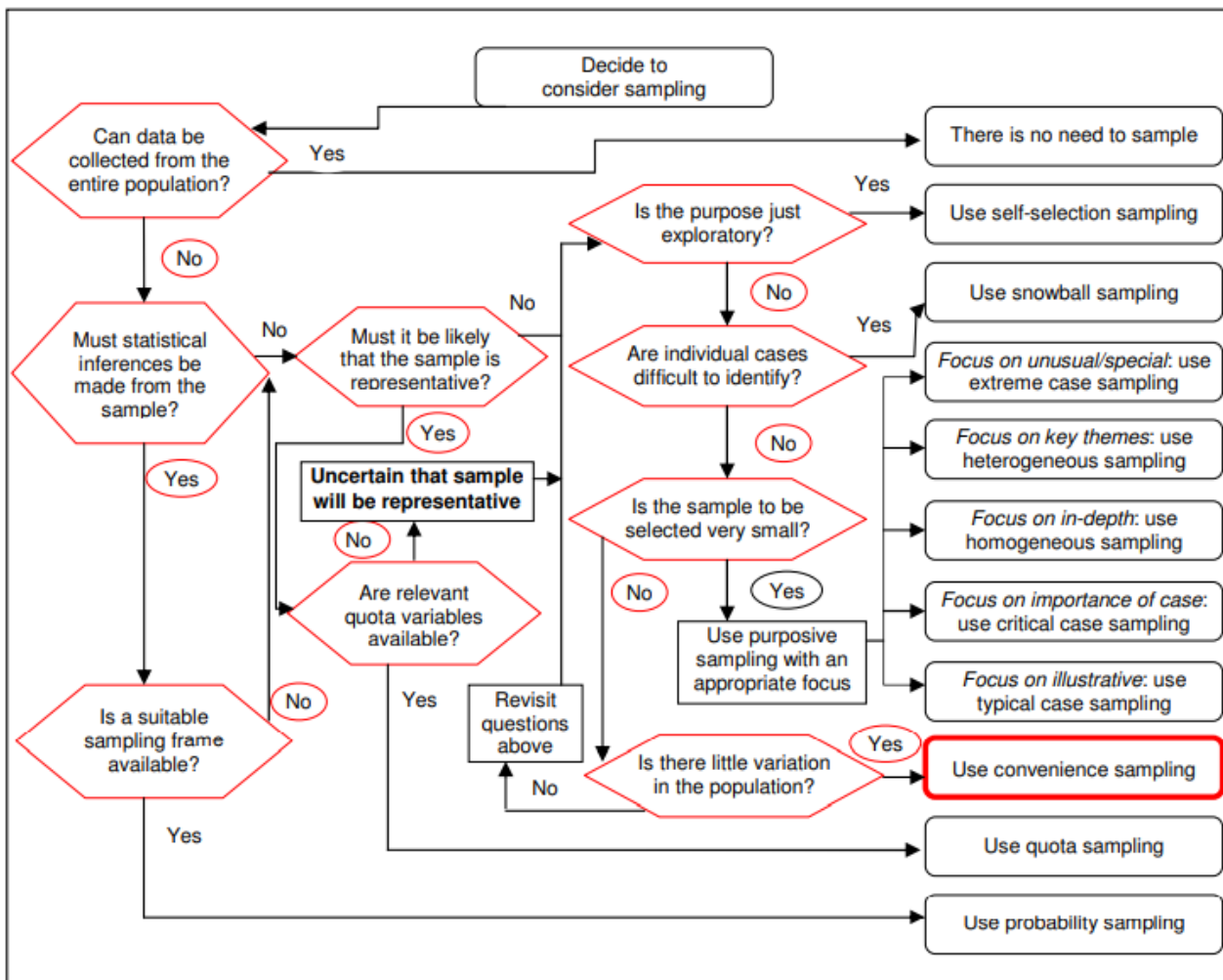
The target population for the quantitative phase was South African citizens living in South Africa, aged eighteen years or older, and who were planning to travel internationally in the

next three years for holiday purposes. Again, two groups were included: those who had applied for visas before, and those who had not applied for visas before.

### **5.5.2 Sampling method**

The type of sampling method that is selected is influenced by the research objectives, the research problem being examined, and the availability of resources such as time and finances (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2010:165; Gate & McDaniel, 2004). Probability and non-probability sampling are the two broad kinds of sampling technique. It is commonly agreed that probability sampling has more technical advantages than non-probability sampling; however, besides being less costly and less time-consuming, non-probability sampling has other practical reasons for its use. In cases where the sampling objectives are met, where there are no other feasible alternatives, and where knowledge of the total population's size is unavailable, then non-probability sampling may be used. Diggins and Wiid (2009) define 'convenience sampling' as drawing a selection of respondents from a population that is voluntarily available and accessible to the researcher. According to Zikmund and Carr (2009), convenience sampling is an appropriate technique to use to collect a large number of completed questionnaires quickly and economically. Since the convenience sampling technique was aligned with this study's approach, purpose, and strategy, it was used in the quantitative phase to collect the data from the respondents. Furthermore, the target population did not allow the establishment of an explicit sampling frame. Figure 5.3 shows how the convenience sampling technique was selected for this study and how the researcher provided a written explanation of each of the logical decision boxes that were involved.

**Figure 5.3: Decision flow diagram of sampling technique selection process**



Source: Adapted from Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007)

Online panels have become increasingly popular in various research disciplines including tourism and hospitality (Belanche, Casaló & Flavián, 2021; Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2013; Castro, Silva & Duarte, 2017; Chang, Chou, Wu & Wu, 2018; Dillette, Douglas & Andrzejewski, 2021; Drinkert & Singh, 2017; Handayani & Arifin, 2017; Mi, Chen, Cheng, Uwanyirigira & Lin, 2019; Park, Ok & Chae, 2016; Pop, Săplăcan, Dabija & Alt, 2022; Sparks, Perkins & Buckley, 2013; Suess, Maddock, Dogru, Mody & Lee, 2022; Ye, Li, Wang & Law, 2014). Prior studies such as Pollard (2002) and Dennis (2001) have revealed that the data generated by online panels is similar to more traditional data collection methods. Furthermore, Braunsberger, Wybenga and Gates (2007) found that the data collected through online panels may actually be superior to traditional data collection methods.

The researcher opted to use an external market research company with a panel of over 40 000 individuals from different education levels, ages, genders, population groups, and income levels to reach the target population. This market research company is based in South Africa. To provide appropriate and updated information, its database is updated daily. Cooper *et al.* (2006) defined a panel as a group of respondents who have shown their dedication, willingness, and motivation to take part in research studies. The benefits of using panels include cost-effectiveness and a wider geographical coverage, and it allows respondents to speak anonymously and openly on personally sensitive issues (Bell & Bryman, 2007; Bryman, 1988; Bryman & Bell, 2003; Bryman & Cramer, 2012). However, the use of panels is not without limitations. Replacing panel members who have dropped out with ones with the same characteristics is a daunting task; panel research is expensive, as it need to be continually maintained and built up; and panel members, over time tend to become fatigued and biased, such that there is a risk that researchers will receive unreliable and inaccurate information (Bradley, 2007).

Even though some authors (Fugard & Potts, 2015; Kim, 2015; Pourhoseingholi, Vahedi & Rahimzadeh, 2013; Singh & Masuku, 2014) have tried to derive standard formulas for calculating sample sizes, there is still no precise calculation for the correct sample size to use; as it is usually based on the researcher's expert judgement (Diggines & Wiid, 2009). Sample sizes are influenced by population (Bryman & Cramer, 2012), the researcher's degree of accuracy, and variations in the population's characteristics (De Vaus, 2001). Despite all these factors that influence sample sizes, it is critical to ensure that there are enough cases to conduct the statistical analyses needed to answer the research objectives.

Even though the target for this study was to receive 1 000 completed questionnaires, in the end a total of 444 questionnaires was gathered. Given that, over time, questionnaire response rates decline sharply, this result of 444 is not surprising (Sax, Gilmartin & Bryant, 2003). Reasons for the decline in response rates range from questionnaire fatigue to the proliferation of junk mail and not having time available to complete questionnaires owing to people's increasingly fast-paced lives (Sax *et al.*, 2003). According to Saleh and Bista (2017), a low response rate could also be attributed to participants' email-checking habits, attitudes towards research, lack of interest, lack of rewards, the length of questionnaires, and questionnaires' structure. They found that people tend to have more than one email



address, and only open emails from the organisation for which they work or from people they know. They also found that the questionnaire response rate was highly related to the research interests of participants, the rewards associated with questionnaire completion, the length of questionnaire, and assurances of privacy and confidentiality. However, the market research company tried to improve the response rate by making sure that the questionnaire was device-compatible and available on multiple channels, as well as sending out reminders to the respondents. In the circumstances, the current study sample size of 444 was considered sufficient for the required analysis.

### **5.5.3 Data collection method**

The data collection was done using an online self-administered questionnaire. Online questionnaires are well-known as an effective method for studying behaviour, beliefs, values, and attitudes that cannot be directly discovered through experiments or observed (Martin & Guerin, 2006). Similar to an experiment, an online questionnaire follows scientific process steps, and has a high level of reliability (Campbell & Stanley, 2015) and validity (De Vaus, 2001). One of the advantages of using an online questionnaire is that it not only reduces the researcher's effort, costs, and time because data is collected automatically, but it is also an efficient and effective way of reaching the respondents (Chan & Li, 2010; Cheung & Lee, 2012; Groves *et al.*, 2004; Ilieva *et al.*, 2002; Wright, 2005). Another advantage is that an online questionnaire is easily accessed by respondents in remote locations.

An online questionnaire was distributed on 15 June 2021 via email to panel members who met the target population criteria. To increase the response rate and to ensure confidentiality, the email had a direct link to the online questionnaire. On average, the questionnaire took respondents 10 minutes to complete. Following company policy, the respondents were paid between R20 and R30 to complete the questionnaire. The self-administered questionnaire was hosted on the market research company's online server. Before completing the survey, respondents gave their informed consent to the researcher that they wished to participate voluntarily in the survey. The covering letter that the market research company sent to the respondents via email explained the purpose of the survey and invited the panel members to participate in it.

One screening question was used to identify suitable respondents: “Do you intent to travel internationally in the next three years for holiday purposes?” If they answered “No”, they were not allowed to continue. Since this questionnaire had a tool encoded for each recipient email address with a unique identifier, each respondent could complete the questionnaire only once. Only in cases when the respondents could not complete the questionnaire in one sitting, were they allowed to continue with it until they had. The data was collected over a 15-day period from 15 June 2021 to 30 June 2021. The invitations were sent out in batches to 10 000 panel members at a time until the target was achieved. The final number of usable questionnaires totalled 444, split between those who had previously applied for a visa (301) and those who had not applied for a visa before (143).

#### **5.5.4 Data collection instrument (Appendix C)**

Using standardised measures and predetermined procedures, quantitative research is conducted in a controlled and systematic way, as highlighted in section 5.3.2. In quantitative research, to test the theoretical and conceptual frameworks, the instruments to measure constructs must be rigorous and appropriate. Parahoo (1997:52, 325) defines a measurement instrument as “a tool used to collect data”. Hair *et al.* (2014) established that the constructs or variables to be measured should be accurately identified, defined, and described so that different perspectives are summarised into a limited number of determined responses to which numbers are assigned. Thus, measurement provides an essential tool with which data may be reviewed, analysed, and interpreted so that the meaning behind that data may be investigated (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Saunders *et al.*, 2016).

A questionnaire was used to collect data from respondents who planned to travel internationally in the next three years for holiday purposes. This study used self-administered questionnaires that were delivered electronically using the internet (internet-mediated or web-based questionnaires). The questionnaire included closed-ended questions that elicited structured, fixed, and numerical responses. Most of the questions and items in the questionnaire were drawn from the existing literature and adapted to reflect the research context (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Cheng *et al.*, 2006; Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Zhang & Jensen, 2007). In other words, slight alterations were necessary to match the measurement scales’ wording to the visa requirements context.

The questionnaire had eight sections. Section A asked respondents about their international travel history, including whether they had previously visited a destination that required a visa. This enabled the researcher to split the respondents into two groups: those who had applied for visas before, and those who had not applied for visas before. Section B captured the demographic characteristics of the respondents, which included age, travel companions, gender, relationship status, and place of residence. Section C measured the respondents' attitude towards the destination they intended to visit, and consisted of one question with seven items, of which six were adapted from Han *et al.* (2011) while one item ('fun') was adapted from Soliman (2021:548).

Section D measured respondents' subjective norms, and consisted of one question with five items, of which the first two ('most people who are important to me would probably think it would be good to visit this destination' and 'most people who are important to me support that I take a holiday to this destination') were adapted from Jordan *et al.* (2018). The second two items ('I would like to visit this destination because it is popular among my friends, colleagues, superiors, or family', and 'most people who are important to me recommend that I take a holiday to this destination') were adapted from Park *et al.* (2017). The last item ('most people who are important to me approve that I take a holiday to this destination') was adapted from Han *et al.* (2011). Section E measured respondents' perceived behavioural control, and consisted of one question with four items, of which the first two ('whether or not I visit this destination is completely up to me' and 'I am confident that if I want to, I can travel to this destination') were adapted from Han *et al.* (2011). The last two items ('I have enough time to travel to this destination' and 'I have enough financial resources to travel to this destination') were taken from Soliman (2021). Section H measured respondents' visit intention, and consisted of one question with four items, of which three were adapted from Han *et al.* (2011), while the last item ('I would prefer to visit this destination as opposed to other similar destinations') was adapted from Park *et al.* (2017).

Section F measured respondents' expectations about visa requirements, and consisted of one question with 21 items. Nineteen of them were developed from the literature (Abrego, 2015; Arudou, 2021; Asquith *et al.*, 2019; Boratynski & Szimborska, 2006; Brabandt & Mau, 2013; Çakar, 2015; Croce, 2018; Czaika & de Haas, 2014; Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014; Ivankiv, 2020; Jayasinghe, 2021; Kirsanova, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2018a; Mau *et al.*, 2015; Piątek, 2019;

Satzewich, 2015; Woyo, 2017), as shown in Table 2.5. Two additional items (the manual application process instead of online, and applying for a longer validity visa, only to be issued with a shorter validity visa) were identified during the focus groups and added to the list of requirements identified in Table 2.5. Section G measured the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and consisted of one question with 20 items adopted from Watson *et al.* (1988). It should be noted highlighted that no additional emotions were identified during the focus groups, and that the applicability of the PANAS scale of Watson *et al.* (1988) in the context of visa applications was confirmed in the focus groups. Table 5.8 summarises the measurements scales and sources.

**Table 5.8: Measurement scales and sources**

QN	Variables	Measurement scale	Response type	Level of measurement	Measurement scale source
Q1	Date of last international trip	Six-item, multiple-choice, single response	Open-ended	Ordinal	Own design
Q2	Intention to travel in next three years	Dichotomous	Open-ended	Nominal	Own design
Q3	Desired destination country	Open-ended	Open-ended	Ratio	Own design
Q4	First time visit/revisit	Dichotomous	Categorical	Nominal	Own design
Q5	Age (in years)	Open-ended	Open-ended	Ratio	Douglas, Wessels, Pope, Morrison-Saunders and Hughes (2019)
Q6	Travel companion	Seven-item, multiple-choice, single response	Categorical	Ordinal	Douglas <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Q7	Gender	Dichotomous	Categorical	Nominal	Douglas <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Q8	Academic qualification	Five-item, multiple-choice, single response	Categorical	Ordinal	Douglas <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Q9	Relationship status	Four-item, multiple-choice, single response	Categorical	Ordinal	Douglas <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Q10	Place of residence	10-item, multiple-choice, single response	Categorical	Ordinal	Own design
Q11	Attitude	Seven items, seven-point Likert scale	Rating	Interval	Han <i>et al.</i> (2011); Soliman (2021)
Q12	Subjective norms	Five items, seven-point Likert scale	Rating	Interval	Han <i>et al.</i> (2011); Jordan <i>et al.</i> (2018); Park <i>et al.</i> (2017)
Q13	Perceived behavioural control	Four items, seven-point Likert scale	Rating	Interval	Han <i>et al.</i> (2011); Soliman (2021:548)
Q14	Expectations about visa requirements	21 items, seven-point Likert scale	Rating	Interval	Developed from the literature (Abrego, 2015; Arudou, 2021; Asquith <i>et al.</i> , 2019; Boratynski & Szimborska, 2006; Brabandt & Mau, 2013; Çakar, 2015; Croce, 2018; Czaika & de Haas, 2014; Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014; Ivankiv, 2020; Jayasinghe, 2021; Kirsanova, 2014; Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2018a; Mau <i>et al.</i> , 2015;

					Piątek, 2019; Satzewich, 2015; Woyo, 2017)
Q15	Emotions triggered as a result of visa application process	20 items, five-point Likert scale	Rating	Interval	Watson <i>et al.</i> (1988)
Q16	Intention to visit destination of choice	Four items, seven-point Likert scale	Rating	Interval	Han <i>et al.</i> (2011); Park <i>et al.</i> (2017)

Source: Researcher's own construction

Each item in the attitude construct in Section C, the subjective norms construct in Section D, the perceived behavioural control construct in Section E, and the visit intention construct in Section H was assessed on a Likert scale with seven points ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Responses were collapsed into three values (agree, neutral, and disagree). Similarly, each item in the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process construct in Section G was assessed on a Likert scale with five points ranging from 1 = very slightly or not at all to 5 = extremely. Responses were collapsed into three values (a low level, a moderate level, and a high level) to allow for a clearer graphical or tabular observation of the emerging patterns. Each item in the expectations about the visa requirements construct in Section F was assessed using a seven-point semantic differential scale with a traditional radio button. Respondents were asked to choose a position on a scale between two bipolar adjectives that best reflected their expectations of the visa requirements. The semantic differential scale points of 1 to 3 implied a tendency towards the left-hand adjective, 4 implied neutral, while 5 to 7 implied a tendency towards the right-hand adjective. The scale groupings used in the graphical and descriptive analysis of the results are reflected in Table 5.9.

**Table 5.9: Scale grouping**

Scale	Scale grouping for graphical purpose
1=Very slightly or not at all	"Very slightly or not at all" and "A little" indicated as "a low level"
2=A little	
3=Moderately	
4=Quite a bit	
5=Extremely	
1=Strongly disagree	"Moderately" indicated as "a moderate level"
2=Disagree	
3=Somewhat disagree	
4=Neutral	
5=Somewhat agree	
6=Agree	
7=Strongly agree	
Semantic differential scale from 1 to 3	"Quite a bit" and "Extremely" indicated as "a high level"
Semantic differential scale 4	"Strongly disagree", "Disagree" and "Somewhat disagree" indicated as "disagree"
Semantic differential scale from 5 to 7	"Neutral" indicated as "neutral"
	"Somewhat agree", "Agree" and "Strongly agree" indicated as "agree"
	Tendency towards left-hand adjective
	Neutral
	Tendency towards right-hand adjective

Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 5.10 shows the research study's objectives, the associated hypotheses, and the questions in the questionnaire that addressed them.



**Table 5.10: Research objectives and associated hypotheses**

Research objective	Hypotheses	Question
To explore the requirements of obtaining a visa during the visa application process	No hypothesis	Question 14
To assess the emotions that tourists experience during the visa application process	No hypothesis	Question 15
To measure the relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination	<p><math>H_8</math>: There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination.</p> <p><math>H_1</math>: There is a relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.</p> <p><math>H_2</math>: There is a relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.</p> <p><math>H_3</math>: There is a relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.</p>	Questions 14 & 16
To investigate the moderating effect of visa requirements expectations on the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination.	<p><math>H_4</math>: Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.</p> <p><math>H_5</math>: Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.</p> <p><math>H_6</math>: Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.</p>	<p>Questions 11, 14 &amp; 16</p> <p>Questions 12, 14 &amp; 16</p> <p>Questions 13, 14 &amp; 16</p>
To measure the relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.	$H_7$ : There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.	Questions 14 & 15
To establish whether a relationship exists between a tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.	$H_9$ : There is a relationship between the emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.	Questions 15 & 16

<p>To examine the mediating effect of the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination.</p>	<p><math>H_{10}</math>: A tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination.</p>	<p>Questions 14, 15 &amp; 16</p>
<p>To compare the group that has applied for visas before, against the group that has not applied for visas before.</p>	<p>All hypotheses</p>	<p>Questions 11-16</p>

Source: Researcher's own construction

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014) and Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2019), all data collection tools must demonstrate that they are both valid and reliable. The validity and the reliability of measurement instruments influence the degree to which the researcher can understand the phenomenon being investigated, the likelihood of finding statistical significance in any data analysis, and drawing important conclusions from the data. Hence, Neuman and Robson (2014) argue that validity and reliability are imperative in establishing the believability, credibility, or truthfulness of research results. Since the conclusions drawn in a study are based on the information obtained from these measurement instruments, the quality of the measurement instruments used to collect data is critical. The next section discusses validity.

#### **5.5.4.1 Validity of the questionnaire**

Kothari (2004:73) defines validity as “the extent to which a test measures what we actually wish to measure”. This means that validity indicates the truthfulness, consistency, dependability, and replicability of results (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Hair *et al.*, 2019; Neuman & Robson, 2014; Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Validity is one of the most important indicators of good research, in particular to the researcher, because if the research findings are grounded in incorrect measurement scales, then wrong conclusions could be drawn (Zikmund, Carr & Griffin, 2013). Gill and Johnson (2010) found that validity could be damaged by research errors such as poor samples, unreliable research procedures, and inaccurate instrument measurements. In this study, three types of measurement validity – content, face, and construct validity (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Neuman & Robson, 2014) – were assessed.

##### **5.5.4.1.1 Content validity**

Content validity refers to the “extent to which the content of the items is consistent with the construct definition” (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006:771). In other words, content validity is when the definition of the construct being measured matches the measurement item in the measurement scale (Hair *et al.*, 2014:123; Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:258). Hence, it is vital that a measurement instrument exemplify all facets of the conceptual definition of a construct. This is accomplished through three steps: explaining all

aspects of the definition of the construct, specifying the content in a construct, and developing indicators that explain all areas of the definition (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Neuman & Robson, 2014). All of the items in the measurement scales were assessed for content validity. As a demonstration of their content validity, an extensive literature review was conducted to develop the scale for the expectations about visa requirements in the questionnaire. Three focus groups were used to verify the items and to add items not listed in the literature. The literature review was also used to assess the applicability of the existing scales in the visa application context. The questionnaire was pre-tested on nine people who were planning to travel internationally in the next three years for holiday purposes.

#### **5.5.4.1.2** Face validity

Face validity is the extent to which a measuring instrument measures a particular characteristic on the surface (Hair *et al.*, 2006). According to Oluwatayo (2012), face validity involves the relevance of the measurement instrument – that is, whether the items in the instrument appear to be unambiguous, relevant, reasonable, and clear – as well as the researcher’s subjective assessment of the presentation. Although it is the weakest form of validity, it is considered to be the easiest validation process to undertake (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Neuman & Robson, 2014), since it measures usability and not reliability. To assess face validity in the study, nine people who were planning to travel internationally in the next three years for holiday purposes were requested to evaluate the questionnaire for comprehension, accuracy, clarity, and relevance.

#### **5.5.4.1.3** Construct validity

Construct validity (sometimes called composite reliability) refers to “the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflect the theoretical latent constructs those items are designed to measure” (Hair, Anderson, Babin & Black, 2010:686). In other words, it is a measure of the internal consistency in scale items. It guarantees that theoretical concepts are measured logically and adequately, and that relationships between variables are identified on the basis of operational and theoretical definitions. In this respect, construct validity is one of the main objectives of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which is to assess a hypothesised measurement theory construct’s validity (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Hence, it is important for

hypothesis testing and empirical measures, and is based on the relationships among variables. Convergent, discriminant, and nomological validity are the three main components of construct validity.

*Discriminant validity* is defined as the degree to which research constructs are clearly distinct from other constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2014:124; Kline, 2011:71; Malhotra, 2009:317; Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:260). A conventional rule of thumb is that a high correlation of 0.85 and above would suggest poor discriminant validity, while below 0.85 would indicate discriminant validity (Brown, 2015; Harrington, 2009). Discriminant validity will be assessed in section 6.3.3 of this study.

*Nomological validity* “determines whether the scale demonstrates the relationships shown to exist based on theory or prior research” (Hair *et al.*, 2006:138). In other words, nomological validity evaluates the extent to which there are differences in the correlations among measured constructs in measurement scales (Hair *et al.*, 2014:124; Malhotra, 2009:317). Since nomological validity essentially assesses the relationships between variables theorised by SEM, one could argue that it is well-suited for the SEM (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). During the assessment of model fit, nomological validity was also evaluated. This is discussed further in section 6.4.

A measurement model and a structural model are two components of SEM. Anderson and Gerbing (1988); Schreiber (2008) established that *convergent* and *discriminant* validity are assessed through a measurement model, while *nomological validity* is assessed through the structural model. Consequently, assessing the structural model alongside the measurement model allows a “comprehensive confirmatory assessment of construct validity” (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988:411). More detail is provided in section 6.4 and chapter 7.

#### **5.5.4.2 Reliability of the questionnaire**

Malhotra (2009) and Zikmund *et al.* (2013) define ‘reliability’ as the measurement scale consistently achieving the same results. Internal consistency reliability, equivalent form reliability, test-retest reliability, and split-half reliability (or parallel-forms reliability) are some of the methods used to assess reliability (Boslaugh, 2012:11; Hair *et al.*, 2014:123; Kline, 2011:69; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:93; Malhotra, 2009:315; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:286;

Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:257). However, internal consistency is the most commonly used measure of reliability when assessing a construct's reliability (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Zikmund & Carr, 2009).

Brink and Wood (1988:176) define internal consistency as "... the extent to which all parts of the measuring technique are measuring the same concept". Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) reliability coefficient or composite reliability, item-to-total correlation, and inter-item correlation are different measures of internal consistency, and Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly used measure of internal consistency (Hair *et al.*, 2014:123; Kline, 2011:69; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:289; Zikmund *et al.*, 2013:257). Low Cronbach's alpha coefficients suggest no existence of internal consistency, while higher Cronbach's alpha coefficients imply that there is internal consistency. Excellent reliability is shown by values of 0.90 and above; values from 0.70 to 0.89 indicate good reliability; while values below 0.70 indicate poor reliability for established instruments (Kline, 2011). The recommended threshold for the Cronbach's alpha coefficient that was used in this study is 0.70 (Anderson, Babin, Black & Hair, 2010). However, 0.6 is a recommended threshold for newly developed scales (exploratory), as was the case for the visa requirements expectations scale used in this study (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

The measurement scales used in the current study were anticipated to be reliable, since the same constructs demonstrated acceptable reliability when tested in previous studies. Table 5.11 shows the Cronbach's alpha values achieved in previous studies.

**Table 5.11: Previous studies' reliability values**

Core construct	Reliability (Cronbach's alpha)	Measurement scale source
Attitude	$\alpha = 0.95$ , $\alpha = 0.85$	Han <i>et al.</i> (2011); Soliman (2021)
Subjective norms	$\alpha = 0.93$ , $\alpha = 0.92$ , $\alpha = 0.89$	Han <i>et al.</i> (2011); Jordan <i>et al.</i> (2018); Park <i>et al.</i> (2017)
Perceived behavioural control	$\alpha = 0.82$	Han <i>et al.</i> (2011)
Emotions	Ranged from $\alpha = 0.86$ to $\alpha = 0.90$ for positive affect and from $\alpha = 0.84$ to $\alpha = 0.87$ for negative affect	Watson <i>et al.</i> (1988)
Intention to visit destination of choice	$\alpha = 0.90$ , $\alpha = 0.79$	Han <i>et al.</i> (2011); Park <i>et al.</i> (2017)

Source: Researcher's own construction

Once the responses from the online self-administered questionnaire had been captured electronically and had undergone a thorough data preparation phase to make them fit for use, the IBM SPSS version 27 and AMOS version 27 were used to analyse the data. The next section discusses the pre-testing of the questionnaire.

### **5.5.5 Pre-testing: Questionnaire**

When borrowing measurement scales from other research sources, Hair *et al.* (2010) recommend that researchers conduct a pre-test using respondents who are almost identical to the target population, with the aim of screening the items for correctness. Malhotra and Dash (2016:354) define pre-testing as "...the testing of the questionnaire on a small sample of respondents for the purpose of improving the questionnaire by identifying and eliminating potential problems".

The key focus of pre-testing was to ensure that the questionnaire complied with content validity and face validity. Content validity refers to the "extent to which the content of the items is consistent with the construct definition" (Hair *et al.*, 2006:771). In this study, content validity was guided to a large extent by theory relating to the proposed conceptual model, while face validity was concerned with the extent to which the researcher believed that the instrument was appropriate (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). In other words, face validity dealt with subjective judgement.

Pre-testing was conducted using the actual online questionnaire via Qualtrics, a web-based electronic questionnaire service that is the fastest route for pre-testing. First, the researcher thoroughly reviewed the questionnaire to check whether the instructions were clear enough and easy to follow, whether all of the questions had been uploaded, and whether there were no grammar or spelling errors. Second, the researcher sent the questionnaire to 19 family, friends, and colleagues who were planning to travel internationally in the next three years for holiday purposes, and who were asked to complete the questionnaire and to provide feedback with suggestions for improvements. In particular, they were asked to comment on the questionnaire's flow and readability, whether they understood all of the concepts that were used, and whether the questionnaire was ambiguous. Of these 19 respondents, nine started the questionnaire, nine completed it, and one neither started nor completed it. Of the nine respondents who completed the questionnaire, seven had applied for a visa before,

while two had not. In general, the feedback was positive, although some respondents suggested minor changes. For example, eight of the respondents said that the questionnaire was clear, understandable, and easy to complete. Therefore, the results of the pre-testing confirmed that the questionnaire was fit for use for this study. The next section discusses the data analysis techniques used.

## **5.6 DATA ANALYSIS**

Marshall and Rossman (1999:150) define data analysis as “...bringing order, structure, and interpretation to the mass of collected data. ... It is the search for general statements about relationships among categories of data ... [I]t is the search among data to identify content”. In other words, data analysis entails reducing accumulated data to a manageable size, applying statistical techniques, looking for patterns, and developing summaries to test relationships and draw conclusions.

### **5.6.1 Descriptive statistics**

Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005) define ‘descriptive statistics’ as the data summary obtained for a set of entities. In other words, descriptive statistics is a method used to describe the features of a sample or population. As a preliminary tool to describe the dataset, descriptive measures such as measures of spread and frequency distributions are used (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

#### **5.6.1.1 Measures of spread**

Measures of spread, also known as ‘measures of dispersion’ or ‘measures of variability’, “describe how scores cluster or scatter in a distribution” (Cooper & Schindler, 2014:401). Range, standard deviation, and variance are three measures of spread; however, standard deviation is more commonly used than range and variance (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). ‘Range’ represents data variability from the lowest score to the highest score (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010), and ‘variance’ refers to the variability around the mean, which implies that the larger the variability, the larger the variance (Struwig & Stead, 2001)



A standard deviation determines how dispersed the data is from the average. In addition, Malhotra (2009) demonstrated how spread or clustered the distribution is around the mean. Therefore, data consistency is achieved when the standard deviation is small, and the values are close to the mean. In contrast, data inconsistency is realised when the standard deviation is high, and the values are far from the mean. The latter means that there are differences between sample respondents. The standard deviation for each item in the questionnaire is indicated in section 6.3.3.

### 5.6.1.2 Frequency distributions

A frequency distribution is an illustration, in either tabular or graphical format, that exhibits the numerical data within a given interval (Malhotra, 2009). In addition, Cooper and Schindler (2014) established that frequency, per cent, valid per cent, and cumulative per cent are some of the analytical insights generally reported by the frequency tables. In this study, for every question in the measurement scale, frequency and valid per cent were reported. Zikmund and Carr (2009) found that, besides tables, various charts and graphs can be used to present data such as box plots, histograms, bar charts, and pie charts.

The sections that follow discuss the hypotheses testing.

### 5.6.2 Hypotheses testing

Table 5.12 provides a summary of the null and alternative hypotheses.

**Table 5.12: Summary of null and alternative hypotheses**

Null and alternative hypotheses
$H_{1(\text{null})}$ : There is no relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.
$H_{1(\text{alt})}$ : There is a relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.
$H_{2(\text{null})}$ : There is no relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.
$H_{2(\text{alt})}$ : There is a relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.
$H_{3(\text{null})}$ : There is no relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.
$H_{3(\text{alt})}$ : There is a relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.

---

**H<sub>4(null)</sub>**: Visa requirements expectations do not moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

**H<sub>4(alt)</sub>**: Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

---

**H<sub>5(null)</sub>**: Visa requirements expectations do not moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.

**H<sub>5(alt)</sub>**: Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.

---

**H<sub>6(null)</sub>**: Visa requirements expectations do not moderate the relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.

**H<sub>6(alt)</sub>**: Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.

---

**H<sub>7(null)</sub>**: There is no relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.

**H<sub>7(alt)</sub>**: There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.

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**H<sub>8(null)</sub>**: There is no relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination.

**H<sub>8(alt)</sub>**: There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination.

---

**H<sub>9(null)</sub>**: There is no relationship between the emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

**H<sub>9(alt)</sub>**: There is a relationship between the emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

---

**H<sub>10(null)</sub>**: A tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process do not mediate the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination.

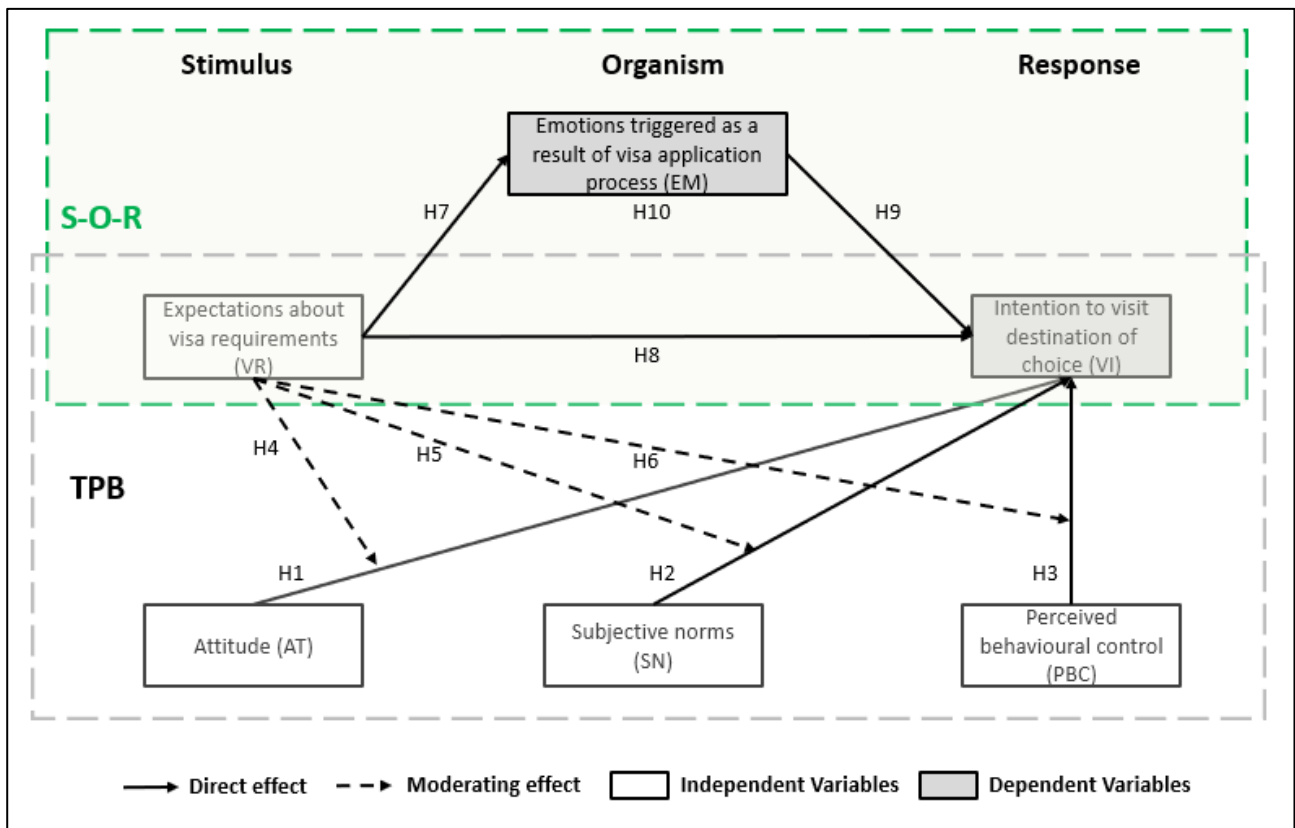
**H<sub>10(alt)</sub>**: A tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination.

---

Source: Researcher's own construction

Figure 5.4 diagrammatically represents the hypotheses stated above. This conceptual model was tested twice: once with the group that had applied for visas before, and again with the group that had never applied for visas.

**Figure 5.4: Conceptual model with hypotheses**



Source: Researcher's own construction

The sections that follow discuss the multivariate analyses techniques that were adopted.

### 5.6.3 Multivariate analysis

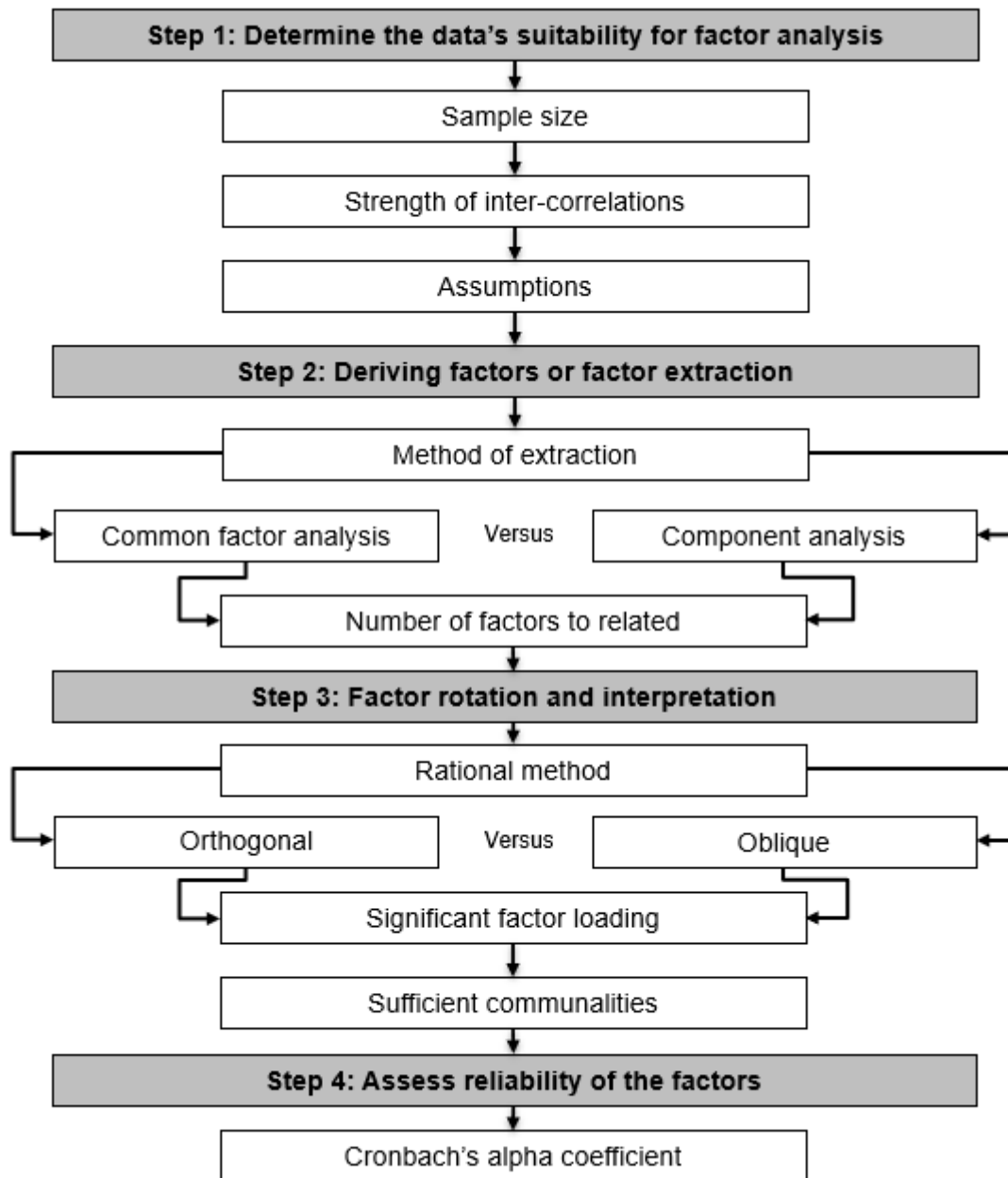
Multivariate data analysis methods are suitable for examining more than three variables to ascertain the relationships between them (Bradley, 2013). Structural equation modelling (SEM) is the leading estimation technique “for a series of separate multiple regression equations estimated simultaneously” (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 2002:9). As a comprehensive multivariate method, SEM is able simultaneously to examine more than one relationship between variables at a time (Hair *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, SEM is an extension of multiple regression analysis and factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2014). Hence, as discussed in this study, SEM is a suitable technique to explore the matters related to tourists' behaviour. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and SEM are discussed in detail in the next sections.

### **5.6.3.1 Exploratory factor analysis**

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a multivariate interdependence method with the key purpose of identifying “unobserved variables (factors) that explain the patterns of correlations within a set of observed variables” (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011:202). In other words, an EFA’s main purpose is data reduction. The term ‘observed variable’ (also known as ‘measured variable’, ‘indicator variable’, or ‘manifest variable’) is the measurement scale for an individual item for which data is gathered (Byrne, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2014; Kline, 2011). In this study, the term ‘manifest variable’ is used. The term ‘unobserved variable’ (also known as ‘latent variable’) is used of measured research constructs (Schreiber, 2008). The term ‘latent variable’ is also used in this study.

An EFA provides information to the researcher about how many factors best represent the data; thus, the factors are derived not from theory but rather from statistical results (Hair *et al.*, 2014). Hair *et al.* (2014) further argue that the researcher can conduct an EFA without knowing which variables belong with which factors or how many factors exist. To conduct an EFA in this study, principal axis factoring extraction (PAF) and promax rotation were used to ascertain each of the constructs’ dimensionality, followed by measurement models. The minimum required standard threshold of internal consistency (reliability) was 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016). Factors were identified using the Kaiser criterion of number of factors with eigenvalues larger than one. Statements with a factor loading less than 0.3 were not included in the identified factors. Although 0.70 is generally accepted as the threshold for composite reliability, a value of above 0.60 is cited as acceptable; as Fornell and Larcker (1981) indicated, if the average variance extracted (AVE) is less than 0.50, composite reliability is higher than 0.60, and so the convergent validity of the construct is still adequate. The process followed to conduct the EFAs is shown in Figure 5.5.

**Figure 5.5: The EFA process**



Source: Field (2013); Hair *et al.* (2014)

The four steps involved in the EFA decision-making process are shown in Figure 5.5. The first step is an assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis. Two main issues to consider in determining whether this particular data set was suitable for factor analysis were the sample size and the strength of the relationships between the variables. Pallant (2011) generally recommends a large sample size of at least 300 cases (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This study had a sample size of 444, and so this could be considered suitable for factor analysis. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were applied to

determine the strength of the inter-correlations among the items (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, to aid in diagnosing the factorability of the correlation matrix, two statistical measures – Bartlett’s test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy – were used.

The second step was to derive the factors (factor extraction). According to Pallant (2011), this step determines the smallest number of factors that can be used to represent best the interrelationships among the set of variables. Patterns of correlation among the variables were examined by subjecting the set of items to common factor analysis – in particular, principal axis factoring extraction – using SPSS version 27.0. Factors with eigen values greater 1.0 were retained, as enough factors met the specified percentage of variance explained (usually 60% or higher), and the factors shown by the screen test to have substantial amounts of common variance (factors before inflection point) were retained (Pallant, 2011).

The third step comprised factor rotation and interpretation. According to Hair *et al.* (2014), factor rotation is the process of adjusting or manipulating the factor axes to achieve a simpler meaningful factor solution. Promax with Kaiser normalisation rotation was performed. Given that this study sample size was greater than 350, factor loadings of 0.30 and greater were considered significant and used for the interpretation (Hair *et al.*, 2014). Subsequently, each variable’s communality was also examined to identify whether there were variables that were not adequately accounted for by the factor solution (Hair *et al.*, 2014)

The final step in the EFA process was to assess the reliability of the factors. According to Hair *et al.* (2010), this step is an assessment of the degree of internal consistency between multiple measurements of a variable. The internal consistency of each extracted factor was determined by calculating Cronbach’s alpha coefficient. The generally agreed upon limit for Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is 0.70. Last, descriptive statistics were calculated for each of the factor-based variables that had been created.

The results of the EFAs are provided in section 6.3.3.

### 5.6.3.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

Hair et al. (2014); Kline (1998) established that confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a helpful instrument that either rejects or confirms a preconceived theory. CFA is also known as ‘measurement models’, and was employed in this study to determine convergent and discriminant validity. AMOS version 27.0 was used to conduct the CFAs. To test whether the proposed measurement models fitted the data, the goodness-of-fit indices were used to evaluate the models. Table 5.13 summarises the indices used in this study, followed by a detailed explanation of each index.

**Table 5.13: Goodness-of-fit indices summary**

Goodness-of-fit indices		
Overall fit indices		
Fit index	Acceptable threshold levels	Description
Chi-square ( $X^2$ ) or (CMIN)	Non-significant $X^2$ ( $p > 0.05$ ) exact fit Significant $X^2$ ( $p < 0.05$ ) poor fit	
Chi-square/ degrees of freedom ratio ( $X^2/df$ )	$X^2/df$ ratio $\leq 3.00$ (good fit) $X^2/df$ ratio $\leq 5.00$ (adequate fit)	Adjusts for sample size
Absolute Fit Indices		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	Values $<0.03$ (excellent fit) Values $<0.05$ (good fit) Values between 0.05 and 0.08 (reasonable fit) Values between 0.08 and 0.10 (mediocre fit) Values $>0.10$ (poor fit)	Used in conjunction with 90% confidence interval
RMSEA confidence interval (upper & lower limit)	Lower bound: close to 0.00 Upper bound: $<0.08$	Narrow confidence interval indicates good fit
Standardised root mean residual (SRMR)	Value = 0 (perfect fit) Value $<.05$ (good fit) Value $\leq 0.08$ (acceptable fit)	Low values indicate good fit
Incremental Fit Indices		
Comparative fit index (CFI)	Value $\geq 0.90$ (acceptable fit) Value $\geq 0.95$ (good fit)	Range: 0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	Value $\geq 0.90$ (acceptable fit) Value $\geq 0.95$ (good fit)	Range: 0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)
Incremental fit index (IFI)	Value $\geq 0.90$ (acceptable fit) Value $\geq 0.95$ (good fit)	Range: 0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)

Source: Adapted from Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen (2008); Schreiber (2008); Schumacker and Lomax (2010)

### **5.6.3.3 Convergent and discriminant validity**

#### **5.6.3.3.1 Discriminant validity**

According to Hair *et al.* (2014); Kline (2011); Malhotra (2009); Zikmund *et al.* (2013), discriminant validity is the degree to which the research constructs are clearly distinct from other constructs. To assess discriminant validity, the heterotrait-monotrait approach (HTMT) was used.

#### **5.6.3.3.2 Heterotrait-monotrait approach (HTMT)**

HTMT is described as the “average of the heterotrait-heteromethod correlations (i.e., the correlations of indicators across constructs measuring different phenomena), relative to the average of the monotrait-heteromethod correlations (i.e., the correlations of indicators within the same construct)” (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015:121). The recommended strict HTMT threshold is lower than 0.85, while the liberal thresholds are lower than 0.9. In other words, any values above 0.9 imply that there is a discriminant validity deficiency (Hair *et al.*, 2014).

#### **5.6.3.3.3 Average variance extracted (AVE)**

Field, Miles and Field (2012); Fornell and Larcker (1981) describe the AVE as the convergent validity measure that is conservative. The AVE should be higher than the square root of the correlations between the latent construct and all the other constructs for discriminant validity.

#### **5.6.3.3.4 Composite reliability**

Is a “measure of internal consistency in scale items”, much like Cronbach's alpha (Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma, 2003:153). A low CR suggests no internal consistency, while a higher CR implies that there is internal consistency. The recommended threshold where there is internal consistency is greater than 0.7 (Anderson *et al.*, 2010). Malhotra and Dash (2011) argue that CR alone is adequate to prove convergent validity, because the AVE



is frequently too strict. As a result, the researcher decided in this study not to delete any items from the constructs to increase the AVE to above 0.5.

#### **5.6.3.4 Structural equation modelling**

To understand the complex relationships between constructs, most researchers employ a multivariate data analysis technique known as structural equation modelling (SEM) (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Many academic researchers define SEM in terms of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. For example, Babin and Svensson (2012:321) define SEM as “a multivariate technique that considers and estimates the linear and/or causal relationships between multiple exogenous (independent) and endogenous (dependent) constructs through a simultaneous, multiple equation estimation process”. Other academic researchers have defined SEM in terms of a conceptual model and observed data. For example, Schreiber (2008) defines SEM as a statistical tool that analyses the similarity between a conceptual model (theory) and the observed data (reality). Therefore, SEM consists of the measurement model and the structural model: the measurement model measures the composite variables or latent variables (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Hoyle, 2011; Kline, 2015), while the structural model tests all of the hypothetical dependencies (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Hoyle, 2011; Kline, 2015).

#### **SEM assumptions**

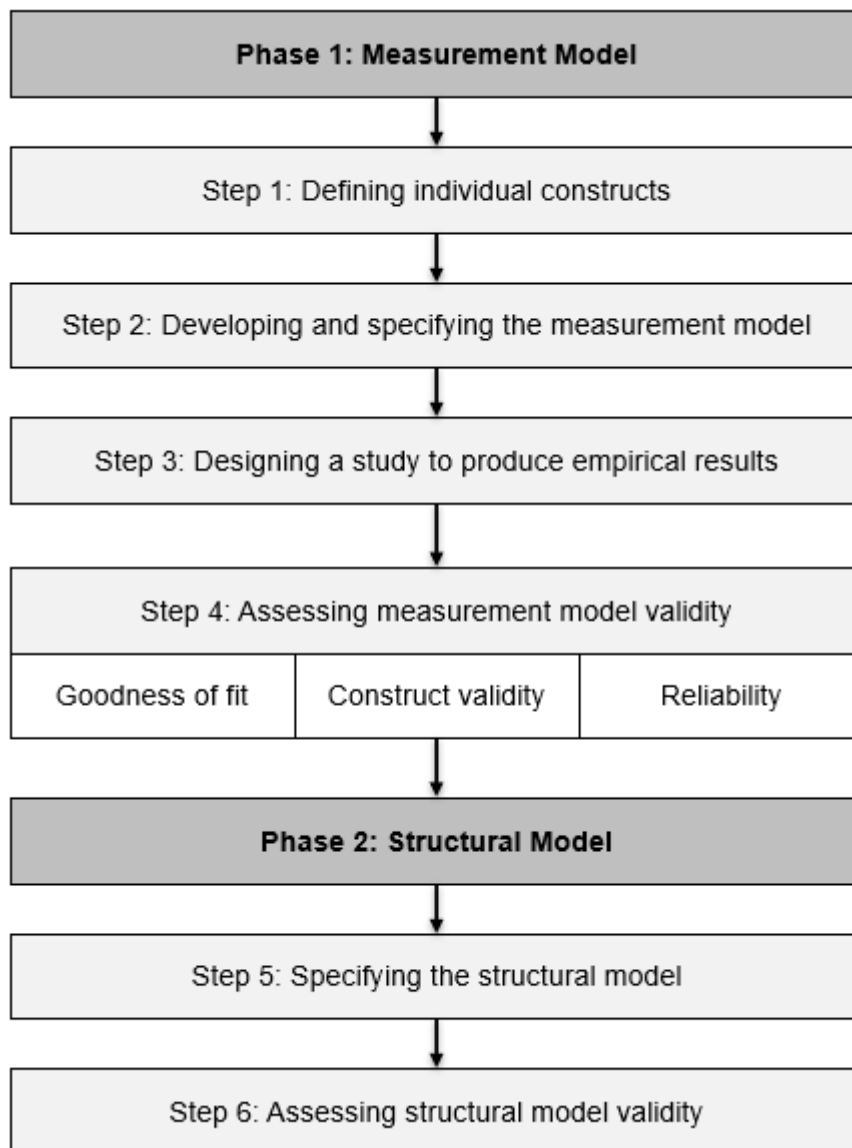
In order to achieve the statistical power of any model prior to collecting data, it is important to determine the minimum required sample size (McQuitty, 2004). According to Sivo, Fan, Witta and Willse (2006), for structural equation modelling (SEM), there seems to be little consensus on the ideal sample size. Where Garver and Mentzer (1999); Hoelter (1983); Kline (2015) recommended a minimum sample size of 200, Thompson (2000) suggests that the larger the sample size, the better; while Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow and King (2006:334) establish an ideal sample size of “10 participants for every free parameter estimated”. In addition, Pallant (2011); Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommended a sample size of 300 for SEM. Even though the target for this study was to receive 1 000 completed questionnaires, in the end, a total of 444 questionnaires were gathered.

Nevertheless, the current study sample size of 444 was considered sufficient for the analysis.

Apart from understanding the SEM assumptions, a minimum understanding of model development and the procedures used when testing the model is also required. The sections that follow explain SEM development and testing in detail. The SEM process stages are summarised in Figure 5.6. This study understood SEM as encompassing the six-step decision process: in the first phase, the measurement models were evaluated, and in the second phase, the structural models were evaluated. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) identified measurement models and structural models as the two components that characterise the model to be estimated. The measurement model is an extension of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and relates to the relationships between the manifest indicators and their respective latent variables (Byrne, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2010; Schreiber, 2008; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The structural model is an extension of regression analysis, and relates to the exogenous and endogenous latent variables that are supported by theory, the researchers' prior experience, and other guidelines (Byrne, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2010; Schreiber, 2008).

The next sections explain in detail the steps followed in the SEM process.

**Figure 5.6: Steps in the SEM process**



Source: Adapted from Hair *et al.* (2019)

#### 5.6.3.4.1 Measurement model

Hair *et al.* (2019:605) define a measurement model as a “SEM model that specifies the indicators for each construct and enables an assessment of construct validity”. This study was interested in developing and testing three measurement models: 1) a measurement model summarising the first six hypotheses; 2) a measurement model summarising hypothesis 8; and 3) a measurement model summarising hypothesis 7 and hypothesis 9.

Step 1 (defining individual constructs): The constructs associated with the measurement models – namely, attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, expectations about visa requirements, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and intention to visit – were defined theoretically in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. To operationalise these constructs, their measurement scale items and the scale type were selected (Hair *et al.*, 2019). Owing to reliability and validity issues, the use of existing measurement scales was preferable (Hair *et al.*, 2014). The measurement model was developed and specified once the constructs had been defined and operationalised.

Step 2 (developing and specifying measurement model): In this step, the measurement model was specified first because it formed the core of the full structural model. According to Kline (2011); Schumacker and Lomax (2010), the model specification involves the researcher assigning the manifest variables (indicators) to the correct latent variables (constructs/factors). During the model specification stage, the risk of model misspecification arises when poor correlation among manifest variables leads to poorly defined latent variables (Kline, 2015; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). Before estimating the parameters, the researcher has first to resolve the identification issue (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). To specify the measurement model in this study, each construct was identified and the measured manifest variables (items) were allocated to the latent constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2019). Kline (2011) argues that visual diagrams for SEM models are most often used for simplification. In this study, the visual diagrams depicting the measurement model are shown in the results section in Chapter 6.

Kline (2015) established that, to avoid technical problems, researchers should have at least three to five indicators per construct, especially if the samples are smaller. As shown in the questionnaire (see Appendix C), all of the latent constructs in this study had more than three indicators, which implied that the researcher had ‘over-identified’ – that is, when the degree of freedom is a positive number, while ‘just-identified’ is when the degree of freedom is a zero, and ‘under-identified’ is when the degree of freedom is a negative (Kline, 2011). The difference between the number of elements and the number of parameters is called ‘the degree of freedom’; and for a SEM model, it must be greater than zero (Kline, 2011). Therefore, Kaplan (2009); Kline (2011) state that, to estimate and test hypotheses, the

model needs to be over-identified, implying that there needs to be more data covering the parameters.

Step 3 (designing a study to produce empirical results): In this step, the researcher considered the sample size, the missing data approach, and the model estimation. Model communalities and complexities were investigated, even though a sample size of  $n = 444$  was obtained. The model complexity is evident when the number of constructs being measured requires more parameters to be estimated. There was no missing data, as only fully completed responses were included. Having specified and identified the model (Step 2), the next step was to estimate the model.

According to Chou and Bentler (1995); Hair *et al.* (2014), the parameter estimates and goodness-of-fit statistics are derived from the model estimation procedure, and are obtained simultaneously. In this study, a commonly used estimation technique in SEM, the maximum likelihood (ML), was chosen as the appropriate estimation technique, and the parameter estimates and goodness-of-fit statistics depended on it (Chou & Bentler, 1995). However, ML requires the assumption of multivariate normality and a large sample size to be complied with (Kline, 2011; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Since SPSS version 27.0 includes AMOS version 27.0 as an add-on, AMOS was used to perform the data analysis.

Step 4 (assessing measurement model validity): According to Hair *et al.* (2019), goodness-of-fit and construct validity are the two main conditions for the validity of measurement models. The goodness-of-fit indices were used to test whether the proposed measurement models fitted the data in general, and how the observed covariances among the manifest items were mathematically reproduced and the chi-squared test was applied (Hair *et al.*, 2019). In other words, the chi-squared test established whether the model perfectly fitted the analysed covariance matrix. It should be noted that the chi-squared test is sensitive to sample size; so when samples are larger (above 200), the chi-squared test should not be considered. Refer to Table 5.13 in section 5.6.3.2 for the chi-squared test's acceptable threshold levels.

'Construct validity' refers to the "extent to which a set of measured items actually represents the theoretical latent construct those items are designed to measure" (Hair *et al.*, 2006:707). Construct validity is revealed by standard indicator loadings of at least 0.7 or higher. The

higher the loadings, the more the indicators are strongly related to their associated constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2019).

In addition, the researcher can decide to present the final model or to improve the model by introducing alternative models that explain the phenomenon. When making this decision, the researcher will determine, for example, the cause of the poor fit and whether the model could be modified to describe the sample data better (Byrne, 2010). Hair *et al.* (2019); Schreiber *et al.* (2006) suggest modifying the original measurement model to improve the fit. It should be noted that model modification is not a confirmatory process but an exploratory process (Schreiber *et al.*, 2006). The modified model is compared with the original model and, depending on the results, the researcher will decide either to keep the modified model or to continue further with modification, as long as it is theoretically justifiable (Schermeleleh-Engel, Moosbrugger & Müller, 2003; Schreiber, 2008).

#### **5.6.3.4.2 Structural model**

The researcher can proceed to the analysis of the structural model once the specifying of the measurement models and the model's structural aspects has been completed. Hair *et al.* (2010) found that, in the structural models, measurement scales are integrated into the assessment of the anticipated relationships between independent and dependent latent variables. After the last two steps (step 5 and 6) of the SEM process, the structural model is operationalised.

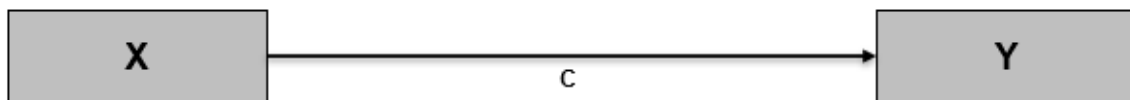
Step 5 (specifying the structural model): Based on the proposed theoretical model, anticipated paths are allocated from one construct to another. These paths show, among all of the latent variables, a complete set of relationships (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). In this study, directionality was the specification of the relationships (Kline, 2011). To show the dependent relationships that represented the hypotheses of the structural model, the researcher used a single-headed directional arrow (Hair *et al.*, 2019). The research hypotheses are presented in section 5.6.2, and the testing of the hypotheses is discussed in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 draws conclusions on whether or not the hypotheses were supported. Cooper and Schindler (2011) established that statistical significance is determined by the chosen level of significance (0.05); in this study, the null hypotheses were rejected if the calculated significance probability was less than 0.05.

Step 6 (assessing structural validity): Testing the validity of the structural model is the last step of the SEM process. As recommended by Hair *et al.* (2019), the structural relationships and the SEM model should be consistent with the theoretical expectation. The hypotheses in section 5.6.2 were assessed, and are presented in Chapter 7 based on the SEM results. Testing for mediation is discussed next.

### 5.6.3.5 Testing for mediation

The effect of mediation happens when a third construct interferes between two related constructs. Hair *et al.* (2019) established that statistically significant correlations among all three constructs is the prerequisite for mediation testing. In other words, mediation is a causal process between all three constructs (James & Brett, 1984; Kenny, 2015; Kenny & Judd, 2014). Indirect effects occur between an independent construct and a mediating construct, while direct effects only determine whether the mediation is partial or full. To illustrate this: independent constructs are denoted by the letter X, while dependent constructs are denoted by the letter Y. Figure 5.7 illustrates the direct effect of construct X on construct Y.

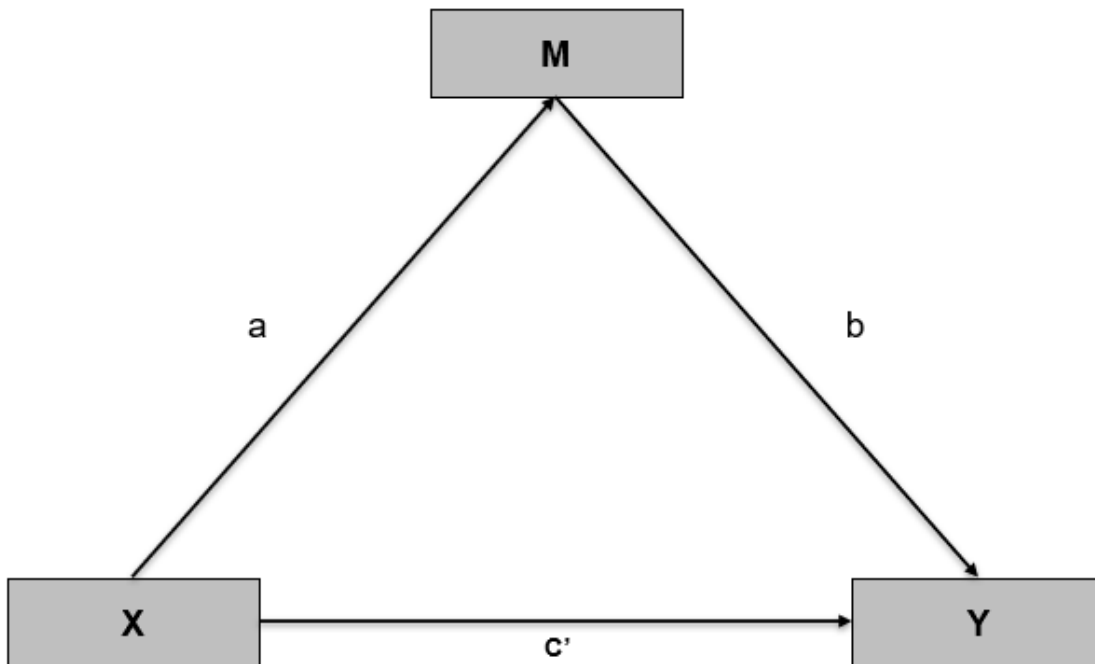
**Figure 5.7: Unmediated causal model**



Source: Kenny (2018)

The mediated causal model shown in Figure 5.8 argues that the independent construct X (causal construct) influences the intervening construct M (path a), which as a result influences the dependent construct Y (path b), with path c' presenting the total effect.

**Figure 5.8: Mediated causal model**



Source: Kenny (2018)

Mediation exists in a model that exhibits good fit; and mediation analysis is useful in understanding how a process works (Hair *et al.*, 2019). For mediation to exist, four conditions must be satisfied between the constructs (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Kenny, 2015; Kenny, 2018):

Step 1: This step establishes whether there is an effect that might be mediated, such that the causal construct (X) influences the outcome variable (Y) (path c').

Step 2: This step essentially involves a correlation between the causal construct (X) and the mediator (M), indicating that the causal construct (X) influences the mediator (M) (path a).

Step 3: Shows that the mediator (M) influences the outcome variable (Y) (path b).

Step 4: Indicates that path c' should be zero or close to zero, even if the influence of the independent construct (X) reduces after controlling the effect of mediator (M), which is a full mediation.

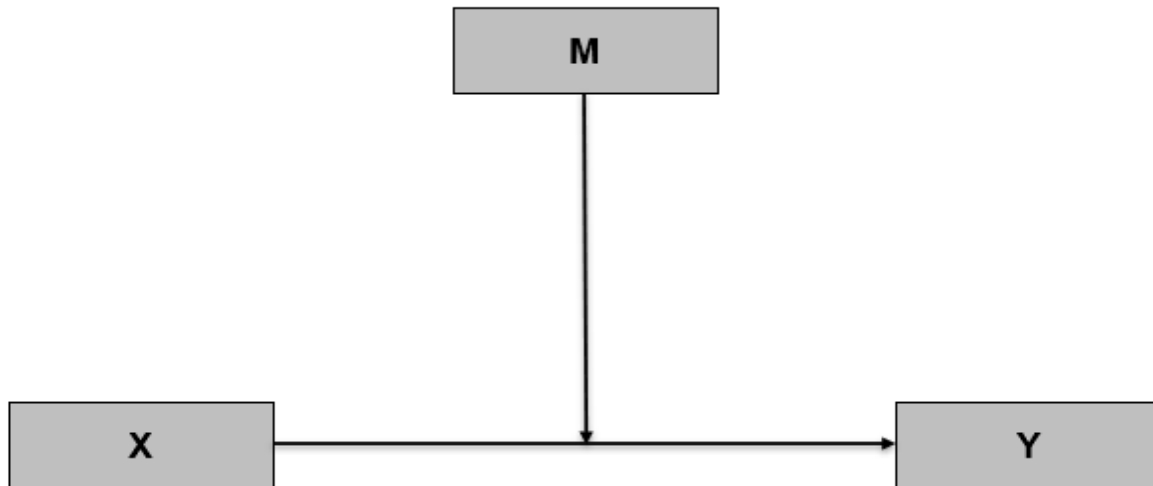


To analyse the mediation effect, bias-corrected bootstrapping was adopted as the preferred method for testing indirect effects in this study. According to Leth-Steensen and Gallitto (2016); Shrout and Bolger (2002), bias-corrected bootstrapping for testing indirect effects is the method that takes various repeated samples with the replacement of that dataset. How this method works is that, for each sample that is bootstrapped, the estimates and SEM latent variables are retained and refitted. The upper and the lower percentiles are then obtained by multiplying each indirect effect by the coefficients of the corresponding fitted path. As a rule of thumb, when a confidence interval does not include zero, it means that the outcome will be statistically significant at the 5% level of significance (Hayes, 2017). Therefore, if the direct effect happens on the basis of this mediation effect, then the intermediate variable has a 'partial mediation' effect; alternatively, if no direct effect occurs, then the intermediate variable plays the role of 'full mediation' (Choi, Wen, Chen & Yang, 2021).

#### **5.6.3.6 Testing for moderation**

According to Hair *et al.* (2019); Wu and Zumbo (2008), the effect of moderation or interaction arises when the degree of the relationship between two constructs is changed by a third construct. In this case, the independent construct is denoted by X, the dependent by Y, and the moderating construct by M. Baron and Kenny (1986) established that a moderating construct (M) influences the relationship between an independent construct (X) and a dependent construct (Y), and has the potential to change the strength of this relationship. Figure 5.9 shows the conceptual path diagram demonstrating a moderation effect.

**Figure 5.9: Independent, dependent, and moderating constructs**



Source: Adapted from Jose (2013)

The following statistical rules for moderation were applied in this study (Jose, 2013):

- 1) Hypothesis 1: Testing for  $\beta_1$  (the X-Y relationship)
- 2) Hypothesis 2: Testing for  $\beta_2$  (the M-Y relationship)
- 3) Hypothesis 3: Testing for  $\beta_3$  (the XM-Y relationship)

When the moderating construct value = 0 (no interaction effects), the regression coefficient  $\beta_1$  measures the effect of X (independent construct) on Y (dependent construct), while the regression coefficient  $\beta_2$  measures the effect of M (moderating construct) on Y (dependent construct). The interaction effect between M (moderating construct) and X (independent construct) is measured by the regression coefficient  $\beta_3$ . The term 'XM', which means the multiplication of two independent constructs (interaction term), operationalised the moderation test. One could conclude, according to Jose (2013), that M (moderating construct) moderates the relationship between X (independent construct) and Y (dependent construct), given that the regression coefficient  $\beta_3$  is significant. If the interaction (M-Y) is significant, then the moderation hypothesis is supported (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

## 5.7 RESEARCH ETHICS

Ethical clearance was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at the University of Pretoria prior to data collection (protocol number: EMS194/20). Appendix D provides the Research Ethics Committee's approval letter.

### 5.7.1 Informed consent

Prior to the data collection, Leedy and Ormrod (2010) recommend to researchers that respondents be protected from harm, be afforded the right to participate in the study by consenting, and be informed of the study's purpose. For the qualitative phase, the participants in the research study were provided with informed consent forms to sign before participating in the focus groups. Since this study used virtual focus groups, the prospective participants were given an opportunity to sign a consent form via email. After electronically signing the consent form, the prospective participants returned these forms to the researcher via email. The focus groups were conducted only with the participants who had consented to participate in the research study. In the consent form, the participants were asked to indicate (a) whether they had read and understood the information provided in the informed consent form; (b) that they gave their consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis; and (c) that they had been given an opportunity to ask questions.

For the quantitative phase, panel members of the external market research company consented by a double opt-in process to participate regularly in the questionnaires. Zikmund *et al.* (2013) noted that 'opt-in' means that consent is granted for participation in questionnaires. In other words, the panel members' registration process with the external market research company clearly stated that their participation in questionnaires was voluntary and that they had a choice to withdraw at any time from the panel. Therefore, as the panel members had consented to participate in all external market research company questionnaires, by inference, all of the panel members who participated in this study had already consented. In addition, before starting with the online questionnaire, respondents were asked to indicate (a) whether they had read and understood the information provided in the informed consent form; (b) that they gave their consent to participate in the study on

a voluntary basis; and (c) that they had been given an opportunity to ask questions. If they answered “Yes” to these questions, they were allowed to proceed with the questionnaire. See Appendix E for the external market research company’s privacy policy regarding the consent form.

### **5.7.2 Cover letter**

According to Bradley (2013), cover letters introduce participants or respondents to the questionnaire’s topic, outline the questionnaire’s purpose, provide instructions on how to complete the questionnaire, set out the estimated time required to complete the questionnaire, and explain the type of information required. For both the qualitative phase and the quantitative phase, the participants or respondents were oriented about what to anticipate during the focus group session or the questionnaire, as the cover letter contained information such as the purpose of the study, its implications, an assurance that participants’ names would be anonymised and that the data obtained would be treated as confidential, the expected completion time of the discussion, and the contact details of the researcher and the supervisor. All of the data collected was encoded and securely archived to safeguard it against unauthorised access. See Appendices A and B for the focus group guides and Appendix C for the questionnaire instrument.

### **5.7.3 Incentives**

The use of financial incentives to participants in the research studies has been an issue of contention, and the arguments for and against have been well-recorded in the literature. For example, Bradley (2013) argues against financial incentives because, from the ethical point of view, it could encourage bias in the respondents’ cooperation. In contrast, Grant and Sugarman (2004:734) argue that “most of the time for most research studies, the use of incentives to recruit and retain research subjects is entirely innocuous”. However, they also acknowledge that there are some instances when incentives would be ethically inappropriate and problematic, such as the existence of a dependency relationship between the researcher and the subject, in high risks research studies, in degrading research studies, and in research studies in which the respondents’ consent is dependent on large incentives. In line with the external market research company’s standard policies, the respondents were

paid between R20 and R30 by the company to complete the questionnaire (see <https://www.springvaleonline.co.za/get-paid-for-questionnaires>). No additional incentives were provided by the researcher to encourage their participation, and no incentives were offered to the focus groups participants.

## 5.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided the research design description and the methodology used that guided this study to achieve the research objectives. The chapter began by discussing the philosophical assumptions and the paradigmatic and epistemological perspectives underpinning the study. Post-positivism was chosen as this study's paradigm. To meet the research objectives and to test the hypotheses, this study adopted a mixed-methods sequential exploratory design. Focus groups and online self-administered questionnaires were used to collect data. Focus groups assisted the researcher to solicit qualitative data such as perceptions, thoughts, emotions, feelings, and opinions from the participants.

The purpose of conducting the focus groups was twofold. The first purpose was to ensure that the list of visa requirements identified in the literature review, which would be tested in the quantitative phase, was exhaustive; and the second purpose was to verify the applicability of PANAS in the context of visa applications.

A market research company was approached and requested to distribute the online self-administered questionnaire among its online panel. The online questionnaire collected information about the respondents' attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, expectations about visa requirements, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and intention to visit a destination of choice that required visas. This chapter concluded with a discussion of structural equation modelling (SEM), which was used to analyse the quantitative data from the online self-administered questionnaires.

Chapter 6 presents the empirical findings of this study.

## CHAPTER 6: RESULTS - CONTENT ANALYSIS, DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, AND FACTOR ANALYSIS

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an overview of the mixed methodology approach followed in the study, including the procedures used to collect and analyse the data. The purpose of this chapter is to report and discuss the research findings and results obtained from the empirical part of the study, based on the research objectives and postulated hypotheses. Using the theory of planned behaviour and the stimulus-organism-response model, this study aims to understand the relationships between visa requirements expectations, the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, and a tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice. More specifically, the research study investigates the moderating effect of expectations about visa requirements on the relationships between the TPB-based predictor variables (subjective norms, attitude, perceived behavioural control) and the intention to visit a destination of choice, and the mediating effect of the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and the intention to visit a destination of choice by using the S-O-R model. To achieve this aim, the following research objectives guide this study:

- To explore the requirements of obtaining a visa during the visa application process.
- To assess the emotions that tourists experience during the visa application process.
- To measure the relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination
- To investigate the moderating effect of visa requirements expectations on the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination.
- To measure the relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process

- To establish whether a relationship exists between a tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.
- To examine the mediating effect of the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination.
- To compare the group that has applied for visas before, against the group that has not applied for visas before.

The findings from the qualitative focus groups are reported first; thereafter, the responses from the quantitative questionnaires are discussed. It should be noted that all of the tables and figures presented in this chapter are the researcher's own construction from the study's findings.

## **6.2 FINDINGS FROM THE QUALITATIVE FOCUS GROUPS CONDUCTED WITH POTENTIAL INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS**

The purpose of conducting the focus groups was twofold. The first purpose was to ensure that the list of visa requirements that were identified in the literature review, and that would be tested in the quantitative questionnaire, was exhaustive; and the second purpose was to verify the use of the positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS) emotional scale in the questionnaire as developed by Watson *et al.* (1988), since it had never been tested in the context of visa applications. Focus group interviews were chosen as the data collection method because it enabled the researcher to gather qualitative data such as the perceptions, thoughts, emotions, feelings, and opinions of purposively selected participants. The target population for the focus groups was South African citizens, who were living in South Africa, were older than eighteen years, who have applied for visas before, and those who have never applied for visas before for holiday purposes. Three focus groups were conducted. The first and second focus group consisted of participants who have applied for a visa before. The third focus group consisted of participants who have never applied for a visa. The reason for conducting three focus groups with different participants was that those who had never applied for a visa before would have had no experience of the process, and therefore the expectations that they had, and the emotions that they expected to be triggered

by the visa application process, might be different from those who had previously applied for a visa. In addition, the visa process might have prevented some participants from visiting a specific destination (even though they had the discretionary time and money to do so). Therefore, if only respondents had been interviewed who had gone through a visa application process, it would not have been possible to collect responses from those who had never applied for a visa before. The data analysis followed the steps suggested by Erlingsson and Brysiewicz (2017) and set out in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1: Steps followed when using content analysis**

Steps	Method description
1	Read the responses to each question to get an understanding of the main ideas or points that participants are trying to make.
2	Divide the participant statements into smaller parts (concepts) while at the same time making sure the core meaning of each concept is preserved.
3	Assign an alphabetical code to each concept in the participants' statements.
4	Groups similar concepts together into categories.
5	Count the number of times each concept and category appears.

Source: Researcher's own construction

### 6.2.1 Profile of participants

Abbreviations are used for the three focus groups. The first and second groups were people who had previously gone through the visa application process, while the third group were people who had never gone through a visa application process. Table 6.2 describes the participants in the focus groups who had gone through a visa application process, while Table 6.3 shows the participants in the focus group who had never gone through a visa application process. A participant code has been assigned to each participant to allow for identification when direct quotes are provided to illustrate the findings. Throughout this chapter, it should be noted that the participants' comments are provided verbatim and in quotation marks. The participants are labelled randomly, using numbers from 1 to 13, with an added acronym to highlight whether the participants had gone through a visa application process (VAPA and VAPB) or not (NON-VAP). These tables state the gender (male or female), race (black, coloured, white, and Indian), and location of the participants. It should be noted that some participants had to leave the focus group discussion before it had



concluded (VAPA-7, VAPA-1, and VAPA-2), while others (VAPA-13 and NON-VAP-4) joined the focus group 15 minutes after it had started.

**Table 6.2: Participants who had gone through a visa application process**

Participant code	Gender	Race	Location
VAPA-1	Male	Black	Johannesburg
VAPA-2	Female	Black	Pretoria
VAPA-3	Female	Coloured	Pretoria
VAPA-4	Female	Black	Johannesburg
VAPA-5	Female	Black	Pretoria
VAPA-6	Male	Black	Johannesburg
VAPA-7	Male	Black	Pretoria
VAPA-8	Female	Black	Pretoria
VAPA-9	Female	Black	Johannesburg
VAPA-10	Female	White	Pretoria
VAPA-11	Male	Black	Johannesburg
VAPA-12	Female	Black	Pretoria
VAPA-13	Female	Black	Johannesburg
VAPB-1	Female	Black	Johannesburg
VAPB-2	Male	Black	Pretoria

Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 6.3: Participants who had never gone through a visa application process**

Participant code	Gender	Race	Location
NON-VAP-1	Female	Black	Pretoria
NON-VAP-2	Male	Black	Pretoria
NON-VAP-3	Male	Black	Johannesburg
NON-VAP-4	Female	Black	Pretoria

Source: Researcher's own construction

The sizes of these focus groups were as follows:

**VAPA** focus group consisted of thirteen (13) participants.

**VAPB** focus group consisted of two (2) participants.

**NON-VAP** focus group consisted of four (4) participants.

Findings from the qualitative focus groups are presented first, in the same order as the three sections in the focus group guide. The sections are (a) the visa requirements, (b) the

emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and (c) the influence of the visa requirements on the tourists' decision-making process.

## 6.2.2 Anticipated visa requirements

To begin the discussion, participants in all three focus groups were asked whether they ***included the visa requirements of the destination*** they intended to visit as part of their planning process to travel internationally for holiday purposes. Of the seventeen participants who responded to this question, fourteen indicated that they did try to find out about the visa requirements during their travel planning process, while three participants indicated that they did not try to find out. Those three participants were part of the group who had previously gone through a visa application process.

Next, the participants were asked to describe their ***first thoughts or feelings when realising that a visa was required to visit their destination of choice***.

Out of the seventeen participants who responded to this question, ten mentioned the time that it would take to apply for a visa and to receive it as the first thought or feeling that came to mind. VAPA-10 explains, *“My first thoughts are – do I have enough time given the requirements...?”* The overall cost of the visa was mentioned seven times, as noted by VAPA-4: *“...so you have to look at all the costs and take everything into consideration and a lot of visas differ in price as well. I definitely look at ... the cost as well”*. The nature and type of the required documents/paperwork was mentioned five times by the participants as the first thought or feeling that came to mind, as VAPA-9 explained: *“visa requirements will definitely be tops and considering the amount of paperwork that I will have to go through.... I would definitely consider, and it seems like it is going to be a long process then I will just have to psych myself up”*. When participants responded to this question, a number of visa requirements emerged from their responses; these are summarised in Table 6.4.

**Table 6.4: List of visa requirements**

Visa requirement	Frequency
Time necessary to apply for and receive a visa	10
Overall cost of visa	7
The nature and type of required documents/paperwork	5
Required physical visits to visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission or consulate	2
Obligation to book an interview appointment	1
Attend a face-to-face interview	1
Provide proof of return flight ticket	1
Provide proof of vaccinations	1
Fear of visa rejection	1

Source: Researcher's own construction

In answering this question, several emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process also emerged. While discussing this question, participant VAPB-1 said: *"It is mixed emotions, the feeling of getting annoyed because of the whole administration process and then the excitement as well that the trip is going to happen"*. Participant VAPB-2 mentioned that he felt *"...what is the kind of attitude in terms of where I want to go and the process itself, because sometimes it can be frustrating..."*. VAPA-5 mentioned: *"...to have the things that are required to apply for the Visa and the panic attached to that ..."*.

Participants who had gone through a visa application process were asked to describe their recollection of the **visa process before, during, and after the application**. When describing the process before the application, all of the participants mentioned that they searched for relevant visa information either by using the internet or by consulting people who had previously visited the destination. Under the most frequently mentioned recollections of the visa process before the application, twelve of the participants mentioned the assembling of all of the required supporting documents, as VAPA-7 explains: *"...you need to make sure that you have all the documents required and download the checklist and make sure that you have covered everything"*. Booking an interview appointment was also mentioned five times; as described by VAPB-2: *"...I make sure that I secure an appointment, if you go onto the Consulate's website there is a calendar where you can pick a date from."*

During the submission of the application at the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate, the most frequently mentioned aspect (mentioned eight times) was the submission of all of the required supporting documents, as can be seen from the following quotes:

*“During the process is probably just taking all the documentation with and make sure that you have extra copies for just in case.” (VAPA-3)*

*“I will go there to the centre with the respective documents that are required (I would have seen this on the internet). I go to the centre to physically submit the documents...” (VAPA-13)*

After the submission of the visa application, the most frequently mentioned aspect of the visa process was the uncertainty surrounding the visa application’s outcome. The least-mentioned aspects of the visa process were preparing an appeal in case the visa was refused, and preparing for re-application in case the appeal failed. The participants mentioned uncertainty surrounding the visa application outcome seven times; VAPA-2 explains: *“After the visa application, it is more of a waiting game ...”*. When responding to this question, a number of visa requirements emerged; these are summarised in Table 6.5.

**Table 6.5: Recollections of the visa process before, during, and after the application, and the visa requirements that emerged from them**

<b>Recollections of the visa process before the visa application</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Assembling all of the required supporting documents	11
Booking an interview appointment	5
Overall cost of visa	4
Submit medical clearance certificate	2
Obtain police clearance certificates	1
Obtain bank statements	1
<b>Recollection of the visa process during the visa application</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Submit all required supporting documents	8
<b>Recollection of the visa process after visa application</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Waiting for the visa application’s outcome	7

Prepare for an appeal in case of visa refusal	1
Prepare for a re-application if appeal fails	1

Source: Researcher's own construction

While answering this question, several emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process also emerged. While discussing this question, participant VAPA-7 mentioned *“The preparation and anxiety around the waiting period... When all that is done then it is just the excitement about the destination...”*. Participant VAPA-9 said: *“After that I think the only thing there is anxiety...”*.

Participants who had never gone through a visa application process were asked to describe their ***expectations and perceptions of a visa application at the consulate or visa facilitation centre before, during, and after the application.***

NON-VAP-1 mentioned the difficulty of the application as one of the expectations and perceptions before the visa application, *“My expectation would be ... how friendly the process is, if it is too difficult to apply it will be very difficult for me to continue or to proceed”*. NON-VAP-2 mentioned the ease and fairness of the process as his expectation before the visa application, *“If I think about going through the whole application process, it is how friendly the process is, it might align with what another participant has said that before you apply they might already have a certain perception of you. So is the process fair?”* NON-VAP-3 mentioned the daunting document submission process and the time-consuming nature of the process as being among his expectations and perceptions before the visa application: *“Based on information that I have received from other people who have gone through visa application processes and so on, it is going to take a long time. Submitting all of the documents that are required can be quite daunting because of all the requirements whether it is them wanting to find out about your financial position and requirement of letters from someone that you know that side, who is going to vouch for you and so on.”*

NON-VAP-1 mentioned that she expected that the treatment received from staff during the visa application would be the same that she would receive when visiting the destination country: *“The treatment is very important, if the process is very difficult for me to get to the country before I even get there; already in my mind I will perceive the country to be not a friendly country”*. NON-VAP-2 mentioned being refused a visa after going through a time-

consuming visa process: *“If you have to go through the whole process which is very lengthy and in the end you end up not getting that visa ...”*. NON-VAP-3 mentioned the postponement of interviews, visiting the embassy or consulate multiple times, and undergoing health tests as part of the visa application as being among his expectations and perceptions during the visa application: *“From that perspective it would be frustrating and then also things about people’s interviews, getting postponed or having to go for multiple times and health tests and all of these things”*.

NON-VAP-2 mentioned the likelihood of the visa being approved as being among expectations and perceptions after the visa application: *“Now that I have applied for the visa...what is the potential for the application to be successful? So that is some of the things that come to mind”*. NON-VAP-3 mentioned the time taken to receive a visa as among expectations and perceptions after the visa application, *“For me I assume it could probably be anything from three months to six months for the entire process and also depending on which country you want to go to”*.

When responding to this question, a number of visa requirements emerged from the responses; these are summarised in Table 6.6.

**Table 6.6: Visa expectations and perceptions, and the visa requirements that emerged**

<b>Expectations and perceptions before visa application</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Fairness of the process	1
Daunting documents submission process	1
Difficulty of the application	1
Ease of the process	1
Time-consuming process	1
<b>Expectations and perceptions during visa application</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Treatment received from staff	1
Going through a time-consuming process and ending up without a visa	1
Postponement of interviews	1
Visiting visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate multiple times	1
Undergoing health tests for visa application process	1
<b>Expectations and perceptions after visa application</b>	<b>Frequency</b>

Likelihood of visa approval	1
Time taken to receive a visa	1

Source: Researcher's own construction

While answering this question, several emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process also emerged. While discussing this question, participant NON-VAP-3 mentioned that “...*getting all of the documents that are required can be quite daunting ... From that perspective it would be frustrating...*”.

Differences between the group that had previously applied for a visa and the group that had never applied for a visa were noticed. Before the visa application, the group that had previously applied for a visa was more concerned about consolidating all of the supporting documents required for a visa application, while the group that had never applied for a visa had expectations about the fairness, ease/difficulty of the process, and the cost of the process. During the visa application, the group that had previously applied for a visa was more concerned about submitting the required documents, while the group that had never applied for a visa had expectations about the treatment that they would receive from the staff, the time-consuming nature of the process, visa rejections, postponement of interviews, visiting the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate multiple times, and undergoing health tests for the visa application process. After the visa application, the group that had previously applied for a visa was more concerned about waiting for the visa application's outcome, preparing an appeal in case the visa was refused, and preparing for a re-application if the appeal failed; while the group that had never applied for a visa was concerned about the likelihood of the visa being approved and the time taken to receive it. It seems that the group that had previously applied for a visa expected a tedious process, but they were more matter-of-fact about the details of the process. The group that had never applied for a visa seemed to be more concerned about the treatment that they would receive, and whether or not their application would be successful. Their negative perceptions and expectations of the visa application process could be attributed to the fact that they were unfamiliar with the process.

Participants were asked to ***list the supporting documents that were typically required when applying for a visa***. Since this question was also put to the participants who had

never gone through a visa application process, it was prudent to analyse these groups together. A summary of the supporting documents required is given in Table 6.7.

**Table 6.7: List of supporting documents**

Supporting documents	Frequency
Valid passport with enough blank pages	17
Proof of income or funds	6
Proof of accommodation with valid address	5
Invitation letter	5
Medical clearance certificate	3
Employment letter	3
Proof of returning to home country after the visit	2
Proof of a return flight ticket	2
Police clearance	2
Proof of previous visas and passports	1
Size of visa photo	1
Travel insurance covering the stay at the destination	1

Source: Researcher's own construction

Participants were then asked ***how long a visa application usually took***. The majority of the participants (twelve) stated that it took less than three weeks, followed by a handful of participants (four) who stated that it took between three weeks and six weeks; the two remaining participants mentioned more than six weeks. These last-mentioned participants' views are evident in the following quotes:

*"I would stick to three to six months because having done some research in the past it was supposed to be 10 to 20 weeks for the entire process, due to bureaucracy and all of those chasing after certain kinds of documents I would say yes, I will stick to three to six months."* (NON-VAP-3)

*"...knowing somebody who went through a similar process and their visa took longer I think for almost a year? I would say six months."* (NON-VAP-4)



Both of the participants who mentioned three to six months were from the group that had never gone through a visa application process. Their overestimation could be attributed to the fact that they were unfamiliar with the process.

The participants who had gone through a visa application process were asked about the **best and worst parts of the visa process**. Most of the participants (eleven) stated that the granting of the visa was the best part of their visa application process, while two participants mentioned doing visa applications online as the best part. Interestingly, only one participant mentioned visa rejection as the worst part of the visa process; another mentioned being denied permission to travel because of the Covid-19 pandemic, even though the visa had been granted; while the majority of the applicants (eleven) mentioned aspects related to the visa requirements as the worst part of the visa process (see Table 6.8).

The parts of the visa application process that were mentioned as the worst were the documentary or administrative requirements and queueing outside the embassy or consulate for long hours. Other parts of the visa application process that were frequently mentioned as the worst were waiting for the visa application outcome and the requirement to attend a face-to-face interview. The least-mentioned worst parts of the visa application process were having to complete a manual application instead of an online application, the tedious nature of assembling all of the relevant documents, the requirement to have a medical clearance certificate, the embassy or consulate not adhering to the booked appointment time, the additional costs incurred in locating and visiting the nearest embassy or consulate, and the additional costs incurred in travelling to collect the visa because some embassies or consulates did not courier them.

The documentary or administrative requirements were mentioned five times by participants as the worst part of their visa application process. VAPA-4 said: *“The worst part is the admin, I hate the whole application process from start to finish and it is a nightmare for me, I hate admin”*. Participants also mentioned queueing outside the embassy or consulate for long hours three times, as VAPA-09 explained: *“...the worst part is going to submit at a place where there are queues, and you have to spend the whole day there”*. Participants also mentioned the requirement to attend a face-to-face interview at the consulate or embassy twice as the worst part of their visa application process. VAPB-2 said: *“The worst part is ...to*

*go for the interview and being asked questions and sign papers, I don't really like to do that but unfortunately you have spent some time with that".*

When responding to this question, a number of visa requirements emerged from the responses, as summarised in Table 6.8.

**Table 6.8: Worst part of the visa process and the visa requirements that emerged**

Examples of the worst part of the visa process	Frequency
Documentary/administrative requirements	5
Queue outside for long hours	3
Waiting for the visa application outcome	2
Requirement to attend a face-to-face interview at the consulate or embassy	2
Manual application process instead of online	1
Tedious when assembling all the relevant documents	1
Requirement to have a medical clearance certificate	1
Embassies or consulates not adhering to booked appointment time	1
Additional costs incurred in locating and visiting the nearest embassy or consulate	1
Additional costs incurred in travelling to collect visa because some embassies or consulates did not courier	1

Source: Researcher's own construction

In the answers to this question, several emotions, such as uncertainty and anger, that were triggered by the visa application process also emerged. While discussing this question, participant VAPA-10 reported a feeling of uncertainty: *"The worst part is waiting for the decision as you have already paid for flights and accommodations..."*. The emotion of anger also emerged: participant VAPA-4 mentioned that she *"...hate[d] the whole application process from start to finish..."*.

Participants who had gone through a visa application process were asked to **explain their worst visa application experience in detail** as a follow-up question. The majority of the participants (nine) could recall their worst visa application experience incident, while seven participants could not recall any bad experience.

Applying for a longer validity visa, only to be issued with a shorter validity visa, was the most often mentioned worst visa experience. VAPA-6 explained: *"My worst part is getting fewer days. I had a research conference that was two months apart so instead of being given a*

*two month visa I was given a two weeks visa, so I had to re-apply to be able to go back two months later.” VAPA-9 argued that a worst visa experience “... was being rejected over a requirement that I was so sure that I have included and nothing was wrong with my application but was rejected none the less”.*

Receiving the visa late, the bad attitude of embassy or consulate personnel, and unclear application forms that were difficult to complete were mentioned less frequently. Regarding unclear application forms, VAPA-13 said that a worst incident “...was the application for the Nigerian one where the forms are not so clear on how to complete...”. VAPA-5 recollected almost missing a flight due to receiving a visa late: “My worst experience was that two days before travelling I was called to come and fetch my documents and I thought I am not going to make it and having to get the visa two hours before I had to travel”. VAPA-13 was also not happy with the bad attitude of the consulate personnel she experienced: “...when you got there people told me that they had to go for lunch and I must wait for them to come back from lunch, so that was the worst”.

When responding to this question, a number of visa requirements emerged, as summarised in Table 6.9.

**Table 6.9: Worst visa application incidents and the visa requirements that emerged**

<b>Worst visa application experiences</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Applying for a longer validity visa, only to be issued with a shorter validity visa	3
Visa rejection	2
Receiving visa late	1
Application forms were not clear, thus difficult to complete	1
Bad attitude of embassy or consulate personnel	1

Source: Researcher’s own construction

While answering this question, several emotions that were triggered by the visa application process, such as uncertainty, also emerged. While discussing this question, participant VAPA-3 mentioned that a worst incident was applying for a UK visa, for which “...the process and ... the uncertainty and also all the documentation requirements that I needed to comply with” were a problem.

The participants who had never gone through a visa application process were questioned about their **perceptions of the cost of the visa application**. Three participants felt that the visa application costs depend on the country a person wished to visit, and mentioned a range of R2 000 to R10 000, while one participant did not know the range of the visa's cost. Below are some of the participants' reactions:

*“That will depend on the country where you are going to. For a country like the UK I am just estimating now – I think you must have something like from R10 000?” (NON-VAP-1)*

*“Even with the little information that I have but I think it depends on the country that you want to visit. I will say a minimum of R2 000?” (NON-VAP-2)*

*“I would say and depending on the country I would expect about R2 000 – R 3 000 +” (NON-VAP-3)*

The participants were asked **to elaborate on the treatment they expected during a visa application**. Participants' responses were split between those who expected a positive treatment, those who expected a negative treatment, and those who were neutral. Of the positive expectations, one was:

*“I would like to be assisted so that I can get the process out of the way and I guess the whole notion that I am what you would call a tourist in their country I will be spending in the country so I am actually making a contribution towards the economy of their country. I would expect the whole process to be smooth, to be respected and not to have any hurdles.” (NON-VAP-4)*

Of the neutral expectations, one was:

*“I would say at least treated normally. If ever it is going to be me applying to go to the USA I would like to be treated like a normal USA citizen on the normal level like someone from the USA. So that is what I think, I would like to be treated fairly like a normal resident.” (NON-VAP-2)*

Of the negative expectations, one was:

*“From my side I am just a bit pessimistic but I honestly expect to be treated negatively. I think not just coming from a lower income country, e.g. if I have to go to the American Embassy, will I be viewed with suspicion because aside from me being from an African country but also looking at the fact that I am black and all of those situations. Because at the end of the day, all of these processes it plays to fight crime, but the purpose is primarily to reduce the influx of immigrants, refugees to an extent in those countries. Fitting most of the criteria, my visa application would be reviewed more strictly than for example my Caucasian counterparts and so on” (NON-VAP-3)*

When probed on whether the expectation of treatment would be different from African and Asian countries in comparison with the US and European countries, NON-VAP-3 explained that African and Asian countries’ treatment mainly depended on how developed each country was and that, therefore; their treatment of applicants was not based on elements of discrimination, as was that of the US and European countries. The participant gave examples of Africans crossing to Europe in boats, and allegations of mistreatment of Muslims by China, which suggested awareness of global visa disparities.

As mentioned before, the first purpose of the focus groups was to ensure that the list of visa requirements identified in the literature review and to be tested in the quantitative questionnaire was exhaustive. During the focus groups, certain expected visa requirements emerged from the responses, as summarised in Table 6.10. Apart from the visa requirements identified during the focus groups, the items identified from the literature and included in the questionnaire are given. It is clear that two additional visa requirements were identified during the focus groups – namely, a manual application process instead of online, and applying for a visa of longer validity and only being issued with a visa of shorter validity. These two items were added to those listed in Table 2.5 (in section 2.7.3 of the literature review) and included in the scale to be tested in the questionnaire. The items in Table 6.10 are a combination of the items from Table 6.4, Table 6.5, Table 6.6, Table 6.8, and Table 6.9.

**Table 6.10: Items from focus group included in the quantitative questionnaire**

<b>Table number</b>	<b>Focus group items</b>	<b>Items in the questionnaire</b>
Table 6.4	Time needed to apply and receive a visa	I expect the visa application process to have a long processing time.
Table 6.4	Overall cost of the visa	I expect the cost of the visa application process to be high.
Table 6.4	The nature and type of required documents/paperwork	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.4	Required physical visit to visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate	I expect to make numerous visits to the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate to apply for a visa.
Table 6.4	Obligation to book an interview appointment	I expect to wait long for a visa appointment.
Table 6.4	Attend a face-to-face interview	I expect to make numerous visits to the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate to apply for a visa.
Table 6.4	Proof of return flight ticket	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.4	Provide proof of vaccinations	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.4	Fear of visa rejection	I expect that visa applications for this destination will have a high rejection rate.
Table 6.5	Assembling all the required supporting documents	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.5	Booking an interview appointment	I expect to wait long for a visa appointment.
Table 6.5	Overall cost of the visa	I expect the costs of the visa application process to be high
Table 6.5	Submit medical clearance certificate	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.5	Obtain police clearance certificate	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.5	Obtain bank statements	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.5	Submit all required supporting documents	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.5	Waiting for the visa application outcome	When applying for a visa, I expect a delayed visa decision.
Table 6.5	Prepare an appeal in case of visa refusal	I expect that there will be no appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful.
Table 6.5	Prepare for a re-application if appeal fails	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.6	Fairness of the process	When applying for a visa, I expect to be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my race, religion, or sex).
Table 6.6	Daunting documents submission process	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.6	Difficulty of the application	I expect that the necessary documents for the visa application process will be difficult to complete.
Table 6.6	Easiness of the process	I expect that the visa application process will be easy to complete.

Table 6.6	Discriminatory visa process for certain applicants	When applying for a visa, I expect to be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my race, religion, or sex).
Table 6.6	Time-consuming process	I expect the visa application process to have a long processing time.
Table 6.6	Good treatment received from staff	I expect the frontline officials (staff) to be friendly.
Table 6.6	Going through a time-consuming process and ending up without a visa	I expect that visa applications for this destination will have a high rejection rate.
Table 6.6	Postponement of interviews	I expect to make numerous visits to the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate to apply for a visa.
Table 6.6	Visiting visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate multiple times	I expect to make numerous visits to the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate to apply for a visa.
Table 6.6	Undergoing health tests for visa application process	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.6	Chances of visa approval	I expect that visa applications for this destination will have a high rejection rate.
Table 6.6	Time necessary for receiving a visa	I expect the visa application process to have a long processing time.
Table 6.8	More documentary/ administrative requirements	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.8	Queue outside for longer hours	When applying for a visa, I expect to spend a lot of time queuing.
Table 6.8	Waiting for the visa application outcome	When applying for a visa, I expect a delayed visa decision.
Table 6.8	Requirement to attend a face-to-face interview at the consulate/embassy	I expect to make numerous visits to the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate to apply for a visa.
Table 6.8	Manual application process instead of online	
Table 6.8	Tedious when assembling all the relevant documents	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.8	Requirement to have a medical clearance certificate	As part of the visa application, I expect to submit many documents.
Table 6.8	Embassy or consulate not adhering to booked appointment time	I expect to make numerous visits to the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate to apply for a visa.
Table 6.8	Additional costs incurred in locating and visiting the nearest embassy or consulate	I expect the costs of the visa application process to be high.
Table 6.8	Additional costs incurred in travelling to collect visa because some embassies or consulates do not courier	I expect the costs of the visa application process to be high.
Table 6.9	Applying for a longer validity visa and only being issued with shorter validity visa	
Table 6.9	Visa rejection	I expect that visa applications for this destination will have a high rejection rate.

Table 6.9	Receiving visa late	After a decision has been made regarding my visa application, I expect my passport to be released with delay.
Table 6.9	Application forms are not clear, thus difficult to complete	I expect that the necessary documents for the visa application process will be difficult to complete.
Table 6.9	Bad attitude on the part of embassy or consulate personnel	I expect the frontline officials (staff) to be rude.

Source: Researcher's own construction

While responding to the questions in this section, the emotions mentioned by the participants were uncertainty, anger, frustration, fear, anxiety, and worry.

### 6.2.3 Anticipated emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process

This section of the focus group guide was aimed at understanding the tourists' emotions that were triggered by the visa application process. It should be noted that some of the emotions identified here were synonymous – for example, 'annoyed' and 'irritated'.

To begin this section, the participants who had gone through a visa application process were asked ***to share the emotions they had experienced when applying for a visa – particularly before, during, and after the application.*** Nervousness was mentioned six times by the participants; VAPA-3 explains: *“Before it is slightly nervous as you do not know what the process entails and what is going to be required”*. Excitement was mentioned three times by participants as one of the emotions experienced before the visa application; as VAPA-2 put it: *“Before the application there is excitement for you travelling”*. Anxiety was mentioned twice by participants; as VAPB-1 explained: *“Before, I am anxious, how it is going to go, is it going to be approved”*.

The most frequently mentioned emotion during the visa application was anxiety. Other frequently mentioned emotions were fear, excitement, and impatience. The least frequently mentioned emotions were uneasiness, agitation, and worry. Participants mentioned anxiety six times; VAPA-8 explained: *“During the process a bit of anxiousness, the fear of the unknown...”*. Fear was also mentioned twice, while agitation was mentioned once. Participants mentioned excitement twice; as VAPA-10 said: *“...during the process I am excited because it is actually happening...”*



After the visa application, the participants mentioned excitement six times; as VAPA-4 put it: *“Afterwards just excitement about the trip”*. Participants mentioned relief and anxiety twice each; VAPA-13 explained: *“...then relief once you get your visa”*, and VAPB-2 said: *“After submission it is anxiety, as you don’t know what the outcome is going to be”*.

The emotions experienced as a result of the visa application process are summarised in Table 6.11.

**Table 6.11: Emotions experienced before, during, and after the visa application**

<b>Emotions experienced before visa application</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Nervousness	6
Excitement	3
Anxiety	2
Curiosity	1
Uncertainty	1
Fear	1
<b>Emotions experienced during visa application</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Anxiety	6
Fear	2
Excitement	2
Impatience	2
Uneasiness	1
Agitation	1
Worry	1
<b>Emotions experienced after visa application</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Excitement	4
Relief	2
Anxiety	2
Hope	1
Happiness	1
Disappointment	1

Source: Researcher’s own construction

The participants who had never gone through a visa application process were asked whether they expected the process to evoke any emotions. They were also asked **to share**

***the emotions they expected to feel when applying for a visa, particularly before, during, and after the application.*** In responding to the first question, participants' responses were split between those who expected negative emotions and those who were neutral. Among the neutral emotions was the following statement:

*"I think that it will depend on my emotions on that day, if you wake up on the wrong side of the bed then anything can set you off. I say yes or no it really depends and if you are one of those people that does not really take things personally, something big has to happen for you actually to be upset and provoke some emotion in you. There are people that do not expect such a treatment they would think that it is normal or let it slide. I think it depends on the person."* (NON-VAP-4)

Some of the negative emotions were expressed in these statements:

*"I would say that the emotions will kick in when things are not going the way that I want. I really want to go to a certain destination but however, the process might be a frustration and that is where the problem would be. I would somehow feel frustrated with the process. If I really want to go to that destination, and if the process is not easy enough, I will be frustrated."* (NON-VAP-2)

*"I feel that it is going to be a frustrating process because of all the admin, listening to other people's issues and websites tell you that the process is supposed to go a certain way and that certain documents are required at this process and so on. However, it is always so that when you actually submit, there is always something else that is missing so then you have to go, unpack and look for it. Overall, I expect it to be a frustrating process."* (NON-VAP-3)

*"... if things don't go my way during the application process, I will feel like I am being undermined and not treated the way that I wanted to be treated, then I will not go through the application. If I am treated like that and what will come to mind is that when I am inside that country, how will I be treated, will I be safe in that country?"* (NON-VAP-1)

When probed, NON-VAP-1 explained that the treatment they faced during the visa application might be the same type of treatment they would face when they arrived in the destination country.

The emotions that were expected to be evoked as a result of the visa application process are summarised in Table 6.12.

**Table 6.12: Emotions expected to be evoked during the visa application process**

Emotion	Frequency
Frustration	2
Undermined	1

Source: Researcher's own construction

When responding to the second question, the participants who had never gone through a visa application process most frequently mentioned their excitement ahead of the visa application. The expected emotion before the visa application that was least frequently mentioned was anxiety. During the visa application, the expected emotion that was most frequently mentioned was frustration (mentioned three times). The expected emotion after the visa application that was most frequently mentioned was disappointment. Another expected emotion after the visa application that was frequently mentioned was excitement. The least frequently expected emotions after the visa application were nervousness, anger, relief, and panic.

When responding to this question, a number of expected emotions emerged from the responses, and are summarised in Table 6.13.

**Table 6.13: Expected emotions before, during, and after the visa application**

Emotions experienced before visa application	Frequency
Excitement	2
Anxiety	1
Emotions experienced during visa application	Frequency
Frustration	3
Emotions experienced after visa application	Frequency
Disappointment	3

Excitement	2
Nervousness	1
Anger	1
Relief	1
Panic	1

Source: Researcher's own construction

Participants who had gone through a visa application process were then asked specifically ***how it made them feel if the consultant questioned their motives***. The most frequently mentioned emotions were annoyed (mentioned five times) and discomfort. The least frequently mentioned emotions were panic, anger, and uneasiness. In contrast with the majority of the participants (ten of them), two of the participants felt that the interrogation was part of the visa consultant's job; thus, that behaviour was to be expected when applying for a visa. The following quotes are relevant:

*"I don't take it personal because I understand that they have to do their job as that is required of them" (VAPB-1)*

*"I kind of know before they speak to me that there are certain things that they want to know before reaching a decision, so when such questions come it is often not a surprise and I just handle them as they come." (VAPB-2)*

Table 6.14 below shows the feelings experienced as a result of consultants' interrogations, and the number of times they were mentioned by the participants.

**Table 6.14: Emotions triggered when consultant questions motives**

Feelings	Frequency
Annoyed	5
Uncomfortable	4
Irritated	2
Anxious	1
Panicky	1
Angry	1
Uneasy	1

Source: Researcher's own construction

When asked **how they were generally treated when applying for a visa**, the majority of the participants (eleven of them) who had gone through a visa application process stated that they were treated with professionalism when applying for a visa; this is evident in the following quotes:

*“It was very professional except for Eastern Europe where it was unpleasant.” (VAPA-6)*

*“Professional and then in terms of fairness, I am not really sure if I have to benchmark with other people’s treatment, but at least professional.” (VAPA-12)*

*“Professional instances except one case where I felt like I was begging the people to go to their country.” (VAPA-13)*

Three participants stated that they were treated with hostility when applying for a visa.

*“I felt like sometimes they treated me like a criminal.” (VAPA-3)*

*“My first experience it felt like I am a criminal in the way that they were engaging with me and the questions that they were imposing.” (VAPA-5)*

*“...when I only got a three months visa, I felt as if the destination country was not too welcoming to see me going there. I think they saw me as an immigrant who did not want to come back. I was wondering if they thought that I was looking for greener pastures.” (VAPB-2)*

Participants who had never gone through a visa application process were asked if they thought that **the visa application process would evoke more positive or more negative emotions**. The majority of the participants (two) indicated that they expected the visa application process to evoke more negative emotions than positive emotions, while one participant was uncertain. Of those who felt that the visa application process would evoke more negative emotions than positive emotions, one said:

*“More negative even having spoken to people who have done the process. Just sharing from their perspective that the consensus has been that no one actually enjoyed the application process.” (NON-VAP-3)*

One of the participants who seemed uncertain whether the visa application process would evoke more positive or more negative emotions commented:

*“I would say along the way given the experiences that I have heard of many people because of the length of the process, somehow it carry more of the negative ones. Eventually now when finally a visa is granted, at least that gives a positive emotion, however I would say majority in terms of the weight, the negative ones along the process carry a lot of weight. The positive one comes at the end when the outcome favours me as an applicant and at least knowing that all my plans are going accordingly and then that excitement.” (NON-VAP-2)*

The same question was asked of the participants who had gone through a visa application process. In contrast to the group that had never applied for a visa, this group (twelve participants) stated that the visa application process aroused more positive emotions than negative emotions.

*“Positive on my side because you are looking forward to travelling.” (VAPA-2)*

*“I would say more positive because the only negative emotion is the administrative burden. Other than that is positive vibes and you just hope that all is going to go well and you are going to reach you destination.” (VAPB-1)*

*“Often this process is characterised by anticipation and you hope for good things. So, I find my experience to be more on the positive side and seldom negative.” (VAPB-2)*

In contrast with other participants, two of the participants mentioned that the visa application process aroused negative emotions rather than positive emotions.

*“I want to say positive but I think more negative in the sense that all the admin that goes with it and everyone’s frustrations and the time that goes into it. In the beginning, we said that cost is an issue. Perhaps a visa is your first consideration for the destination that you want to choose and you are uncertain about the process, you are nervous throughout the process, you are maybe annoyed. Therefore, I think I want to say positive but I think there are many negative emotions unconsciously. I think more negative for me.” (VAPA-10)*

*“...even though in the end it means a positive outcome but there are all these negative things you feel during the process, actually makes the whole thing and makes you to become apprehensive about the whole visa application.” (VAPA-12)*

In response to this question, a number of emotions emerged, as summarised in Table 6.15.

**Table 6.15: Emotions experienced by participants**

Emotion	Frequency
Hope	2
Looking forward to it	1
Anticipation	1
Frustration	1
Nervousness	1
Annoyance	1
Apprehension	1

Source: Researcher’s own construction

Participants who had gone through a visa application process were asked whether they had ever felt **disrespected when applying for a visa**. The majority of the participants (thirteen) replied ‘No’. Even though some responded that the consultants might have been too personal, they did not experience them as being disrespectful.

*“I don’t feel disrespected and of course they do ask questions which you sometimes think is a bit personal but again you want your profile to be correct e.g. children, where do you work and sometimes they ask about your bank balances. I will not call this disrespect but feel that it can be personal.” (VAPB-2)*

In contrast with other participants, one of the participants felt disrespected when applying for a visa. She explained:

*“I felt offended when I had to wait outside for people to go for lunch.” (VAPA-13)*

In the responses to this question, two emotions emerged, as indicated in Table 6.16.

**Table 6.16: Emotions triggered when feeling disrespected**

Feelings	Frequency
Disrespected	1
Offended	1

Source: Researcher’s own construction

Participants who had never gone through a visa application process were asked if their **friends, family, or colleagues who had previously applied for visas had shared how they felt about the experience**. All of the participants (three) indicated that friends, family, or colleagues had done so; however, their experiences were all negative, as shown by the following quotes:

*“Mainly it was just negative stories especially with the length of the process and the required documentation. Some of them were asked some very personal information and it was as if you are being investigated. Therefore, there are no positive feedbacks.” (NON-VAP-2)*

*“Indeed and all of them said that it was frustrating, draining, upsetting, and scary. Some said that the interview almost felt like an interrogation. No positives from the people that I spoke to.” (NON-VAP-3)*

*“Friends and family who applied for a visa before and they have just spoken about the negatives and I am yet to speak to somebody who can share a positive experience in the visa application journey.” (NON-VAP-4).*

When probed to recall some of these horror stories, two of the participants shared the following:



*“I don’t remember the exact information, but however I can still remember some of the moments that I had with a former colleague of mine who wanted to go a certain country to attend a conference and you needed a visa. We worked so hard and he invited me to do some coding for his work. Then in the end, he came up with a very impressive result, so he wanted to go to that conference to share the result, but the process of getting that visa was draining him. It pains me to see him completely exhausted and giving up the conference because of the process of acquiring the visa to get into that country. I would say like the experience itself was too draining.” (NON-VAP-2)*

*“I don’t remember the details but I think the person had to apply again for the visa for the whole year and they kept on applying throughout the year and even had to go to a different country to go and apply for a visa there because on this side it was taking longer or there were issues.” (NON-VAP-4)*

In the responses to this question, a number of emotions emerged that are summarised in Table 6.17.

**Table 6.17: Emotions experienced by participants’ friends/colleagues/relatives during the visa application**

Emotion	Frequency
Draining	2
Frustrating	1
Upsetting	1
Scary	1
Exhausting	1

Source: Researcher’s own construction

As mentioned before, the second purpose of the focus groups was to verify the use in the questionnaire of the positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS) emotional scale developed by Watson *et al.* (1988), because it had never been tested in the context of visa applications. During the focus groups, certain emotions emerged from the responses (summarised in Table 6.18), including the emotions identified by participants in section 6.2.3

above. In Table 6.18, the focus groups' emotions are matched with the emotions (or their synonyms) in the PANAS scale. It was clear that no additional emotions were identified during the focus groups, and that the scale in the questionnaire was appropriate to be used in the context of visa applications.

**Table 6.18: Items from focus group included in the quantitative questionnaire**

Table number	Focus group item	Item in the questionnaire
Table 6.11	Nervousness	Nervous
Table 6.11	Excitement	Excited
Table 6.11	Anxiety	Nervous
Table 6.11	Curiosity	Interested
Table 6.11	Uncertainty	Distressed
Table 6.11	Anxiety	Nervous
Table 6.11	Fear	Scared
Table 6.11	Excitement	Excited
Table 6.11	Impatience	Irritable
Table 6.11	Fear	Scared
Table 6.11	Uneasiness	Nervous
Table 6.11	Agitation	Irritable
Table 6.11	Worry	Scared
Table 6.11	Excitement	Excited
Table 6.11	Relief	Determined
Table 6.11	Anxiety	Nervous
Table 6.11	Hope	Enthusiastic
Table 6.11	Happiness	Excited
Table 6.11	Disappointment	Upset
Table 6.12	Frustration	Irritable
Table 6.12	Undermined (adjective)	Hostile
Table 6.13	Excitement	Excited
Table 6.13	Anxiety	Nervous
Table 6.13	Frustration	Irritable
Table 6.13	Disappointment	Upset
Table 6.13	Excitement	Excited
Table 6.13	Nervousness	Nervous
Table 6.13	Anger	Hostile
Table 6.13	Relief	Determined
Table 6.13	Panic	Jittery
Table 6.13	Excitement	Excited
Table 6.14	Annoyance	Irritable
Table 6.14	Uncomfortableness	Nervous
Table 6.14	Irritation	Irritable
Table 6.14	Anxiety	Nervous
Table 6.14	Panic	Jittery
Table 6.14	Anger	Hostile
Table 6.14	Uneasiness	Nervous
Table 6.15	Hope	Enthusiastic
Table 6.15	Looking forward to	Excited
Table 6.15	Anticipation	Excited
Table 6.15	Frustration	Irritable
Table 6.15	Nervousness	Nervous

Table 6.15	Annoyance	Irritable
Table 6.15	Apprehension	Nervous
Table 6.16	Disrespected	Hostile
Table 6.16	Offence	Hostile
Table 6.17	Draining (opposite)	Strong
Table 6.17	Frustration	Irritable
Table 6.17	Upsetting	Upset
Table 6.17	Scary	Afraid
Table 6.17	Exhaustion (opposite)	Strong
		Guilty
		Proud
		Alert
		Ashamed
		Determined
		Attentive
		Active

Source: Researcher's own construction

#### 6.2.4 The influence of visa requirements on tourists' destination choice

This section of the focus group guide was about how visas influenced the tourists' destination decision-making process. Both groups were asked whether, if they had a **choice between a destination that required a visa and a destination that did not require a visa, which one they would choose**. The majority of the participants (eight) stated that they preferred visiting destinations that did not require visas; two preferred destinations with visa requirements; and five participants were neutral. Of the participants who preferred visiting destinations with visa requirements, the following comment is representative:

*"From my perspective countries that don't require a visa are actually desperate to attract tourists hence they have no visas. I would rather not go to a country that is desperately trying to attract tourists. For me the visa is like filtering process or reflects the quality of the country, the harder the visa the more prestigious the country. I prefer to go to the ones where a visa is required."* (VAPA-12)

Of the neutral participants, three said:

*"It does not affect my decision really, if I want to go somewhere I would do whatever I need to do to get there."* (VAPA-4)

*“It is not about the visa, but more on where I wanted to go for myself. The visa is not the most important indicator on whether I should go there or not.” (VAPA-8)*

*“It will depend on where I want to go, so the visa is not a ‘deal breaker’. It is just step one, and if I really want to go to that specific country even if it requires a visa then I will go for it. If the place that I want to go to does not require a visa then also I would not mind. If I feel like going to an island or a Greek holiday or something, then a visa is required then I will go for the visa, but if I feel like a different holiday destination that does not require a visa, then I will go for it. So, it just depends on the holiday destination.” (VAPB-1)*

What became apparent was that all of the participants from the group who had never gone through a visa application preferred visiting destinations without visa requirements. These participants were probed further by being asked whether they would still visit a destination without visas, even if other destinations with visas were more appealing. All answered that they still preferred the destination without visa requirements; as NON-VAP-4 explained: *“At the moment because I don’t want to go through all of that visa application process, I will still choose the one without the visa”*.

Participants who had never gone through a visa application process were asked to elaborate on whether **they considered visa requirements when choosing a holiday destination**. Two of the participants indicated that they did consider visa requirements, while one said that she did not consider the visa requirements. The two participants who did consider the visa requirements commented:

*“I think it is important to find out if the destination requires a visa or not because you will not be able to do planning for any holiday. You need to do proper planning so that you can have the best time while on holiday. However, if you were not able to get the visa, then you would not be able to visit that destination. Therefore, it is important to really look whether a visa is a requirement.” (NON-VAP-2)*

*“I think it is important to consider it because the visa application process determines when you are actually going to be able to leave the country for whatever holiday it is that you want to go on. If you are planning to go on holiday in a month and if your visa process is going to take longer than a month then that means that you need to postpone your holiday to ensure that the visa is ready in time for you to actually go on that holiday.” (NON-VAP-3)*

One of the participants who seemed certain that he did not consider the visa requirements when choosing a holiday destination commented:

*“To be honest, I won’t consider it but it will just make me to stay away from such countries, because I think I want to decide on a holiday where I can just pack my bags and just go. I want to leave when I need to. When that requirement is there it would just discourage me to choose such a country.” (NON-VAP-3)*

The next question was put to both groups, and therefore it was prudent to analyse both groups at the same time. The participants were asked whether **they had ever decided not to visit a destination because they realised that a visa was required to visit that destination**. The majority of the participants (eleven) answered with a definite “No”, while four participants answered “Yes”. The following is a comment from a participant who answered “Yes”:

*“From my perspective, yes I had planned to leave the country for a visit and I decided not to go and in the end I did not go anywhere.” (NON-VAP-3)*

When probed, this participant explained that he did not have the time or the energy to go through the visa application process.

Since the next question was also put to both groups, their responses were analysed together. Participants were asked whether the **emotions they expected to feel or did feel when applying for a visa (as expressed in the earlier discussions) would influence their choice of destination**. The majority of the participants (eleven) answered with a

definite “No”, while the other participants (four) answered “Yes”. Of the four participants who answered “Yes”, three were from the group that had not gone through a visa application process. Therefore, one could argue that the anticipated emotions of the participants who had never gone through a visa application process influenced their choice of destination more than was the case with the participants who had gone through a visa application process.

Both groups were asked whether a ***negative visa application experience would prevent them from re-visiting that destination in future***. The majority of the participants (nine) answered with a definite “Yes”, while the other participants (six) answered “No”. All of the participants from the group who had not gone through a visa application process answered “Yes”. This could have been because these participants had not yet travelled to visa destinations, and it was clear that they were unfamiliar with the visa process and were nervous about it. The following are three comments from those participants who answered “Yes”:

*“It will influence my future decision. If it was my first time to apply for a visa and the experience was bad, even if I eventually get a visa and visit the country, the next time when I think of going to the same country, I will think of having to go through the same process again. If I have to go back for a completely different reason or purpose, I think I would have to overlook the first experience, depending on the importance of the reasons of going back there. If the experience is still the same then I will not do it again.” (NON-VAP-2)*

*“Yes, I think it would because now I have two less reasons to visit the place because firstly the process is not enjoyable and secondly I have been there before, so I might just go elsewhere.” (NON-VAP-3)*

*“Yes I think it might change my mind if I have a different objective in the future, I want to experience a certain thing and the feeling that I associate with that experience outweighs the negative experience that I had and I might give it a second chance. If the second time is actually the same then I think that would definitely prevent myself from re-visiting that destination in the future.” (NON-VAP-4)*

Of those participants who answered “No”, the following are some of their arguments:

*“No because generally I am a person that does not give up easily, so I will keep on trying until I get it when I really want to go to that destination.” (VAPB-1)*

*“It will not prevent me from re-visiting. It depends on what is it that I really want to do in that place. It is to a smaller factor to be of influence.” (VAPB-2)*

The next question was asked of both groups. Participants were asked whether a **positive visa application experience would encourage them to re-visit that destination in future**. The majority of the participants (thirteen) answered with a definite “Yes”, while one participant answered “No”. The following is that participant’s comment explaining why her answer was “No”:

*“It would not depend on the visa application; I just like trying new things. I do not think that I will visit one place more than once, I like exploring and it is not dependent on the positive visa application experience. It is a personal choice if I can put it like that.” (VAPB-1)*

The following are two comments from the participants who answered “Yes”:

*“If the experience from the visa application is good, then I visit the destination and have a good time. Of course, in future I would not mind going back there even if I have a different objective.” (NON-VAP-2)*

*“In terms of the positive visa experience, I think it will definitely encourage me to revisit that destination. I will even recommend that destination country to people and say that I did not have any problems with their visa application.” (NON-VAP-4)*

The next question was also put to both groups. The participants were asked whether they would share their experiences with others if they had a **negative visa application**

**experience.** (The word “others” could mean family, friends, relatives, or any other person.) All of the participants (fifteen) answered “Yes” to confirm that they would share their negative visa application experience, as shown by the following quote:

*“Yes, I would .... when that person is going to that same country then I will share my experience but not randomly.” (VAPB-1)*

The next question was also put to both groups; thus fifteen participants responded. They were asked whether they would share the experience with others if they had a **positive visa application experience.** (The word “others” could mean family, friends, relatives, or any other person.) The majority of the participants (eleven) answered “Yes”, while four answered “No”. The following are comments of three of the participants, explaining why their answer was “No”:

*“I am not the kind person like the new generation that will share all of their experience with other people on social media. I generally don’t talk about my life with other people unless you are in my inner circle.” (VAPB-2)*

*“If I had a negative visa experience I would share and positive not so much as I think everybody expects things to work and that is another reason why I know of a lot of people’s negative experiences but none of those people have shared their positive experiences with me regarding visa applications.” (NON-VAP-3)*

*“I also share the negative experience rather than the positive. With the positive I would only share if I am asked specifically about that country by someone.” (NON-VAP-4)*

The following comment from one of the eleven participants explains why the answer was “Yes”:

*“Yes, I would share my positive experience with people and share my trip experience; it would be part of that. It will be part of my trip review as well” (VAPB-1)*



The next question was also asked of both groups. Participants were asked whether they **would recommend a destination to others when they had had a negative visa application experience**. The majority of the participants (seven) stated “Yes”; four participants stated “No”; and the remaining four were neutral. Three of those who said “Yes” commented:

*“Yes, I would because if I have been there before and I have experienced it and had a positive experience about the place, I would still do that but I would not just base that on the visa experience.” (VAPA-4)*

*“Yes, I would recommend but with the obvious that the application process was a bit difficult.” (VAPA-10)*

*“I would definitely share my experience to say this is what to expect even if it is a negative one.” (NON-VAP-2)*

Of those who said “No”, one commented:

*“No not really, I will leave it to others to make their own decisions.” (VAPB-1)*

Of those who were neutral, four said:

*“I would not discourage them but I would definitely tell them about my negative experience.” (VAPA-9)*

*“I would separate the destination from the visa application process and what (VAPA-10) was saying; put that conditional disclaimer that the process is tedious.” (VAPA-12)*

*“...if it was negative I would share about my holiday but tell them if they are planning to go there then they should be aware of x, y or z.” (NON-VAP-3)*

*“...I will definitely say although I enjoyed myself but I had to go through a, b & c to actually decide.” (NON-VAP-4)*

The next question was also put to both groups; thus, fifteen participants responded. They were asked whether they **would recommend a destination to others when they had had a positive visa application experience**. All of the participants answered “Yes”, even though some highlighted that their recommendation might not be related to the positive visa experience. The following are some of the arguments from those participants who said “Yes”:

*“Yes, as I said before, it will be part of my trip review. From end-to-end review, I would say that I find the visa application to be smooth, so it would just be part of my trip review and not necessarily recommend the destination to other people.” (VAPB-1)*

*“I will be more likely to recommend the destination if I had a positive visa application experience.” (NON-VAP-3)*

*“It has nothing to do with a visa application. I will recommend my experience of the destination that I visit.” (VAPB-2)*

The next question was also asked of both groups; thus, fifteen participants responded. They were asked, at the end of this section, **whether they would be more likely to visit a destination if that destination removed its visa requirements**. All fifteen answered with a definite “Yes”.

*“That would be a plus, definitely.” (VAPA-5)*

*“Yes, of course that means more spending money that I get as I don’t have to be paying for any visa.” (VAPB-1)*

*“Yes, because it would be an opportunity to enjoy a particular place, and earlier I spoke about the administrative process and things like that, when all that is removed it is more of a positive factor.” (VAPB-2)*

*“Yes, I would definitely be more interested to go to that country given that I don’t have to go through that process.” (NON-VAP-2)*

In this section, the qualitative focus groups achieved two purposes. First, from the focus group discussions, two additional visa requirements expectations that had not been mentioned in the literature were added to the scale in the questionnaire. Second, the focus group discussions verified the use of the PANAS scale to measure the emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process. The next section discusses the results from the quantitative questionnaire conducted with potential international tourists.

### **6.3 RESULTS FROM THE QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE CONDUCTED WITH POTENTIAL INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS**

In this section, the results from the quantitative questionnaire that was conducted with potential international tourists are presented. The results are based on the responses of 444 respondents who came from across South Africa and who completed the online questionnaire. The results are presented in a three-stage format, as shown in Figure 6.1, starting with the descriptive statistics, followed by the factor and reliability analysis, and ending with the structural equation modelling (SEM). The first stage is the descriptive statistics, which detail the personal demographics of the respondents (Section 6.3.1). The descriptive statistics are also provided on the respondents’ attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control over their intention to visit a specific destination, their intention to visit a specific destination, their visa requirements expectations, and the emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process (describing the main six constructs) (Section 6.3.2). The second stage comprises the exploratory factor analysis, which shows the validity and reliability of each of the six constructs (Section 6.3.3); while the third stage is the SEM that was used to test the conceptual framework and the hypotheses (Section

6.3.4). The analysis of the personal demographics of the respondents is presented in the next section.

**Figure 6.1: Stages followed in analysing quantitative results**

<b>STAGE 1</b>
<b>DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS</b>
<b>DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE RESPONDENTS</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Age</li> <li>• Population group</li> <li>• Highest academic qualification</li> <li>• Relationship status</li> <li>• Province of residence</li> <li>• Travel companions</li> </ul>
<b>DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: CONSTRUCTS IN THIS STUDY</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attitude</li> <li>• Subjective norms</li> <li>• Perceived behavioural control</li> <li>• Intention to visit destination of choice</li> <li>• Expectations about visa requirements</li> <li>• Emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process</li> </ul>
<b>STAGE 2</b>
<b>EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS</b>
<b>VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE CONSTRUCTS</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exploratory factor analysis results for attitude</li> <li>• Exploratory factor analysis results for subjective norms</li> <li>• Exploratory factor analysis results for perceived behavioural control</li> <li>• Exploratory factor analysis results for intention to visit destination of choice</li> <li>• Exploratory factor analysis results for expectations about visa requirements</li> <li>• Exploratory factor analysis results for emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process</li> </ul>
<b>STAGE 3</b>
<b>STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (SEM)</b>
<b>SEM RESULTS</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Measurement models</li> <li>• Structural models</li> <li>• Hypotheses results</li> </ul>

Source: Researcher's own construction

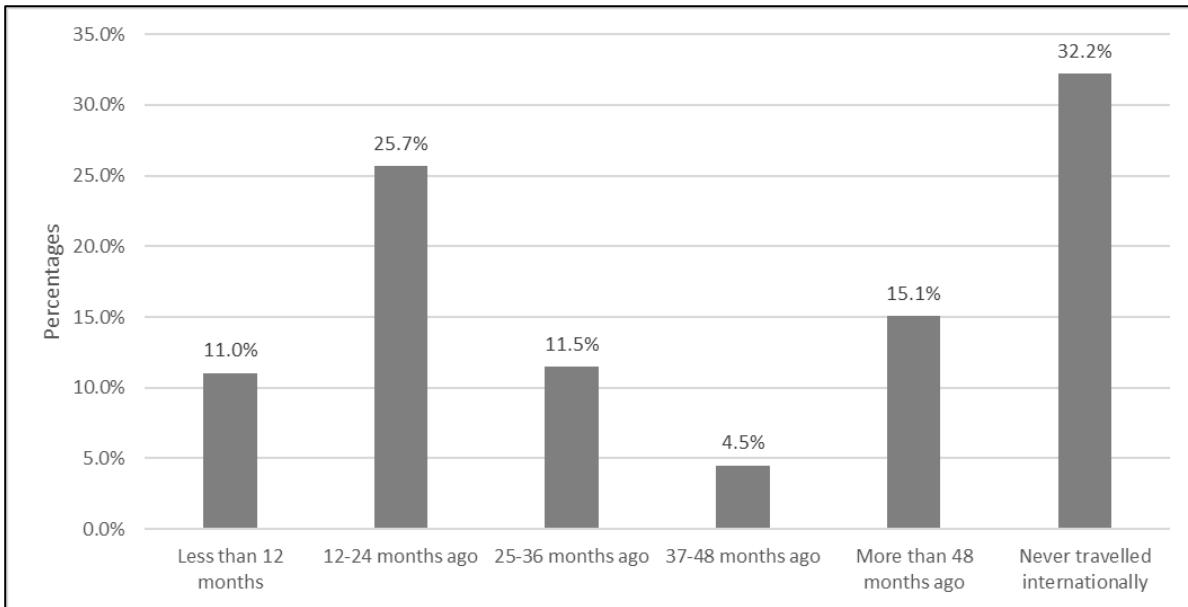
### **6.3.1 Descriptive statistics: demographics of the respondents**

A descriptive profile of the respondents who participated in this study, covering their gender, age, population group, highest academic qualification, relationship status, and province of residence is provided in this section. Prior to the demographic questions in Section B of the questionnaire, questions in Section A related to the last time the respondent had travelled to a destination that required a visa, the destination country that the respondent expected to visit within the next three years for holiday purposes, and whether the respondent had previously travelled to this destination.

#### **6.3.1.1 Travelled internationally to a destination where visa was required**

The first question asked respondents to indicate the last time that they had travelled internationally for holiday purposes and had required a visa for the destination. Of the total of 444 respondents who completed this question, 67.8% (301) had travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa for the destination was required, and 32.2% (143) of the respondents had never travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa for the destination was required. As shown in Figure 6.2, of those who had travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa for the destination was required, 25.7% (114) had travelled 12-24 months ago, followed by 15.1% (67) who had travelled more than 48 months ago, while 11.0% (49) and 11.5% (51) had travelled less than 12 months and 25-36 months ago respectively. Only 4.5% had travelled internationally 37-48 months ago.

**Figure 6.2: Travelled internationally (N=444)**

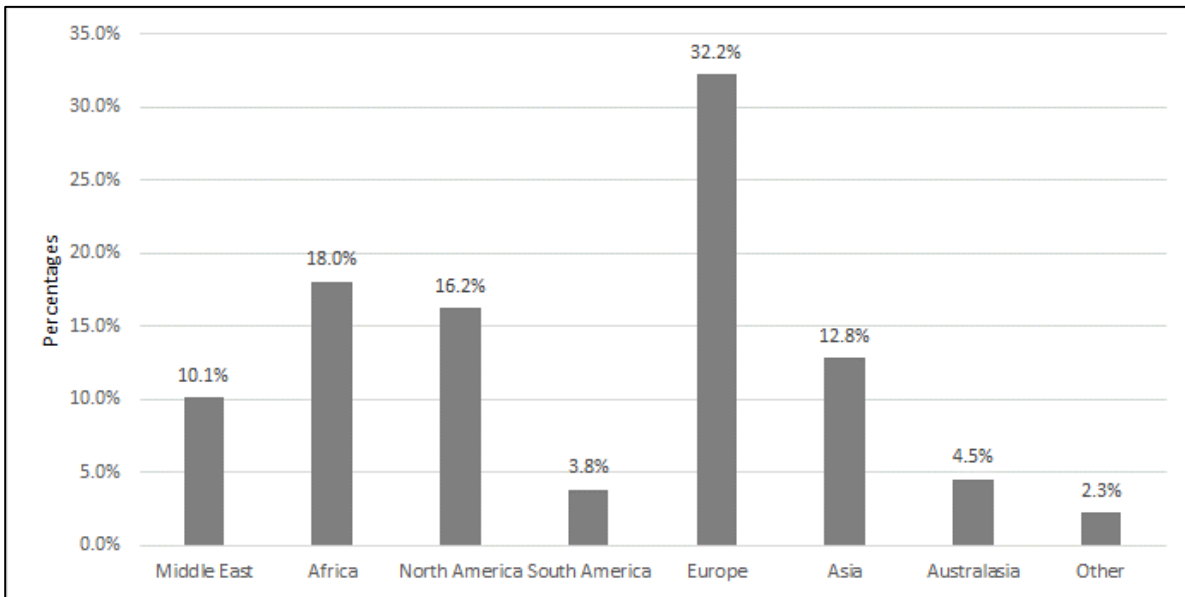


Source: Researcher's own construction

### **6.3.1.2 Destination expected to visit for holiday**

All 444 respondents indicated that they were planning to travel internationally in the next three years for holiday purposes. However, when it came to the destination country that they expected to visit, many countries were mentioned. As a result, the responses were grouped into continental regions to allow a clearer graphical identification of emerging patterns. As illustrated in Figure 6.3, most of the respondents preferred countries in Europe ( $n = 143$ , 32.2%) as the destination to visit within the next three years for holiday purposes, followed by countries in Africa ( $n = 80$ , 18.0%), North America ( $n = 72$ , 16.2%), and Asia ( $n = 57$ , 12.8%). The least preferred countries as the destination to visit within the next three years for holiday purposes were in the Middle East ( $n = 45$ , 10.1%), Australasia ( $n = 20$ , 4.5%), and South America ( $n = 17$ , 3.8%).

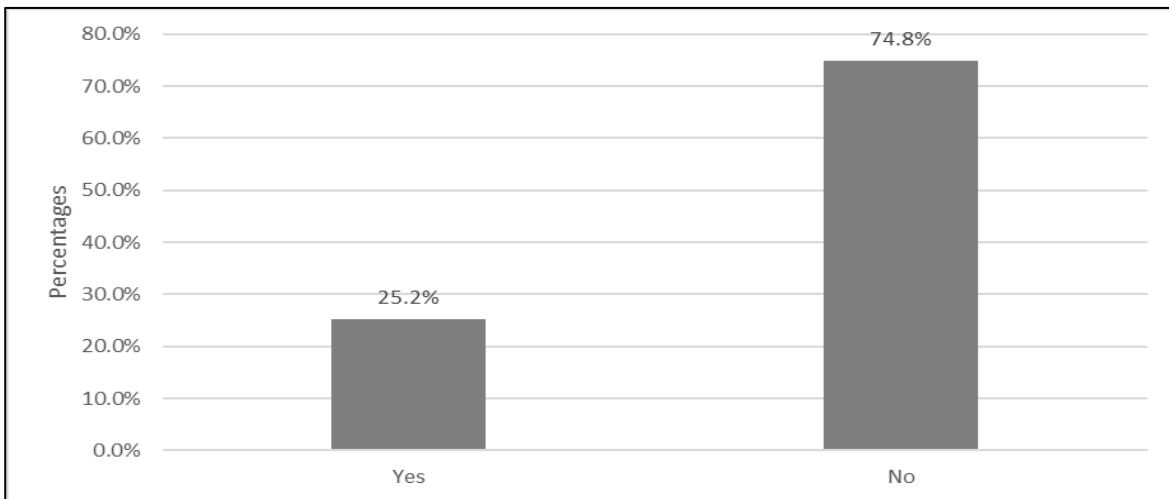
**Figure 6.3: Destinations expected to visit for holiday (N=444)<sup>1</sup>**



Source: Researcher's own construction

Of the 444 respondents who completed this question, 74.8% (332) said that they had never visited the stated destination, while 25.2% (112) indicated that they had previously visited the destination, as shown in Figure 6.4.

**Figure 6.4: Repeat visits (N=444)**



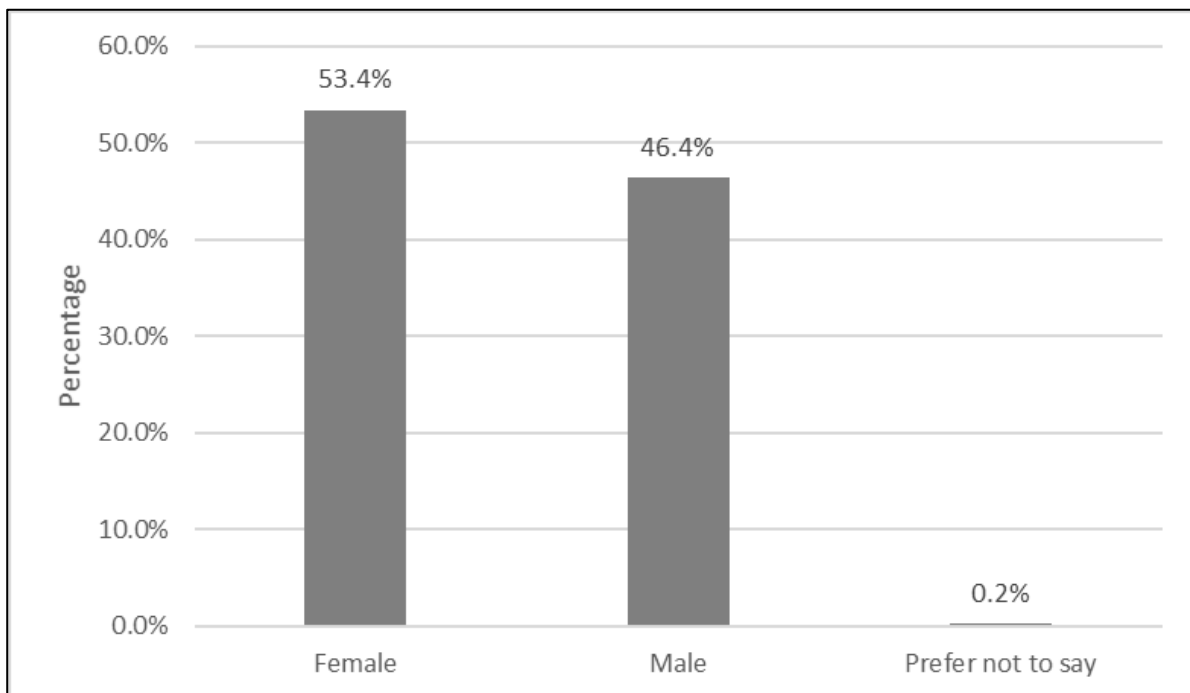
Source: Researcher's own construction

<sup>1</sup> The percentages do not add up to 100% as a result of rounding.

### 6.3.1.3 Gender

Slightly more females than males responded to the questionnaire. As illustrated in Figure 6.5, of the 444 respondents who completed this question, 53.4% (237) were females, 46.4% (206) were males, and one respondent preferred not to say. An analysis of the domestic tourism survey in South Africa confirms that the majority of the travelling population in South Africa are females (52,2%) followed by males (47.8%) (South Africa Statistics, 2020).

**Figure 6.5: Gender (N=444)**



Source: Researcher's own construction

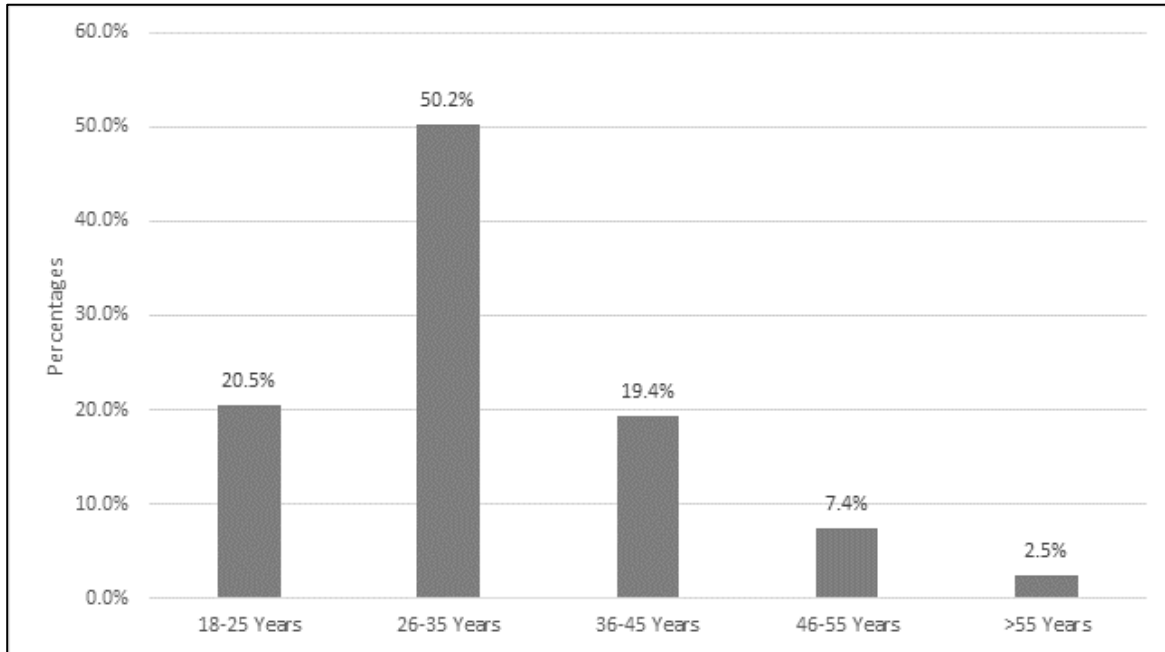
### 6.3.1.4 Age

With regard to the age profile, as indicated in Figure 6.6, most of the respondents were aged 26-35 years ( $n = 223$ ; 50.2%). In contrast, one of the smallest age categories was 46-55 years ( $n = 33$ ; 7.4%), which was slightly larger than the respondents aged 56 years or older ( $n = 11$ ; 2.5%). The remainder of the respondents were younger than 26 years ( $n = 91$ ; 20.5%) and between 36 and 45 years ( $n = 86$ ; 19.4%) respectively. The majority (70.7%) of the respondents were thus younger than 35 years, and the average age of all of the respondents was 32.7 years. It should be noted that this question was open-ended and was categorised by the researcher as shown in Figure 6.6. An analysis of the domestic tourism



survey in South Africa shows that the majority of the travelling population in South Africa is 26-34 years (21.8%), followed by 36-44 years (21.6%), then over 55 years (17.9%), 46-54 years (16.4%), below 18 years (13.1%) and 18-24 years (9.2%) (South Africa Statistics, 2020).

**Figure 6.6: Age profile (N=444)**

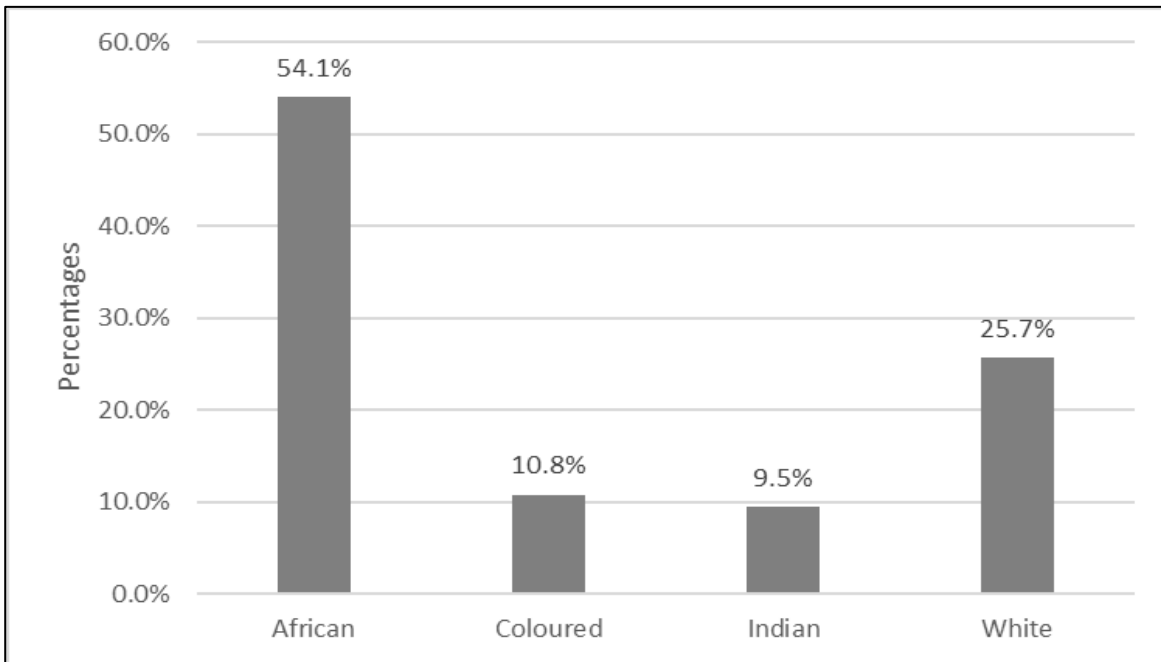


Source: Researcher's own construction

### **6.3.1.5 Population group**

Regarding population group, Figure 6.7 indicates that most of the respondents were African ( $n = 240$ ; 54.1%), followed by those who were white ( $n = 114$ ; 25.7%). The remaining 90 respondents were coloured ( $n = 48$ ; 10.8%) or Indian ( $n = 42$ ; 9.5%). An analysis of the domestic tourism survey in South Africa indicated similar trends in the travelling patterns of the different population groups: 71,9% were African, followed by whites (15.9%). coloureds (9.4%) and Indians (2.8%) (South Africa Statistics, 2020).

**Figure 6.7: Population groups (N=444)<sup>2</sup>**



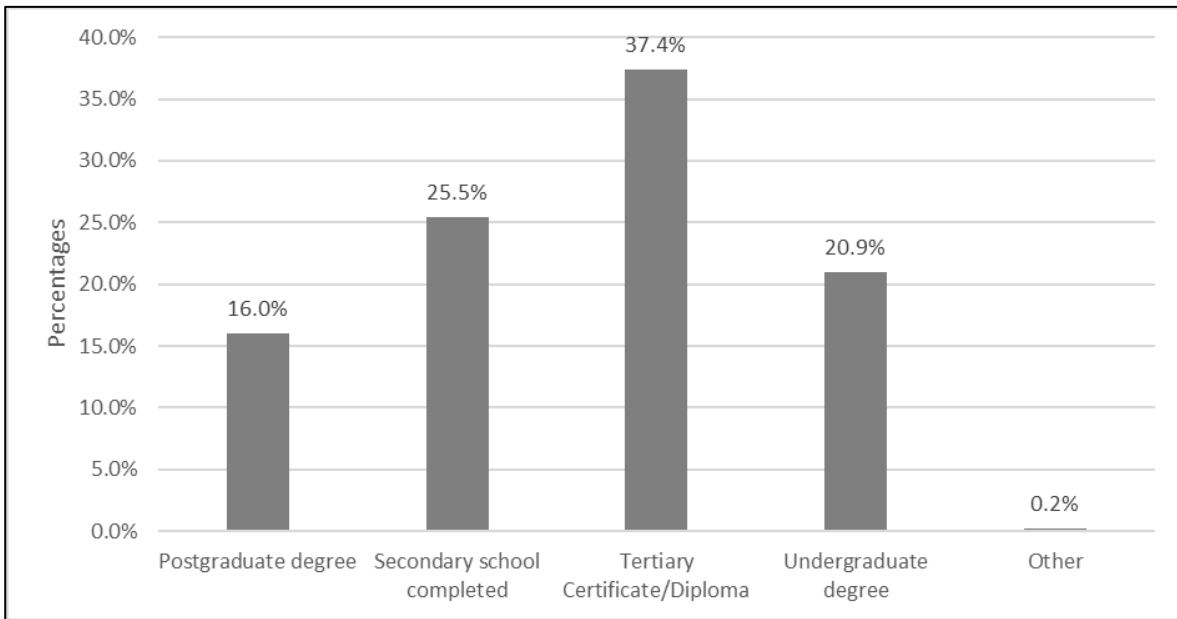
Source: Researcher's own construction

### **6.3.1.6 Highest academic qualification**

With regard to their highest academic qualification, as illustrated in Figure 6.8, most of the respondents had either completed a tertiary diploma or had a tertiary certificate ( $n = 166$ ; 37.4%), followed by those who had completed secondary schooling ( $n = 113$ ; 25.5%). The remaining 163 respondents had an undergraduate degree ( $n = 93$ ; 20.9%) or a postgraduate degree ( $n = 71$ ; 16%). It should be noted that, of the 444 respondents, one was categorised as 'other' in this analysis, as their qualification ('semi-qualified boilermaker') was not aligned with any of the qualification types. An analysis of the domestic tourism survey in South Africa indicates that the majority of the travelling population in South Africa is those who completed some secondary school (32.2%), followed by Grade 12/Std 10 (25.7%), then higher education (21.2%), completed some primary school (10.7%), no schooling (7.2%) and Grade 7/Std 5 (2.9%) (South Africa Statistics, 2020).

<sup>2</sup> The percentages do not add up to 100% as a result of rounding.

**Figure 6.8: Highest academic qualification (N=444)**

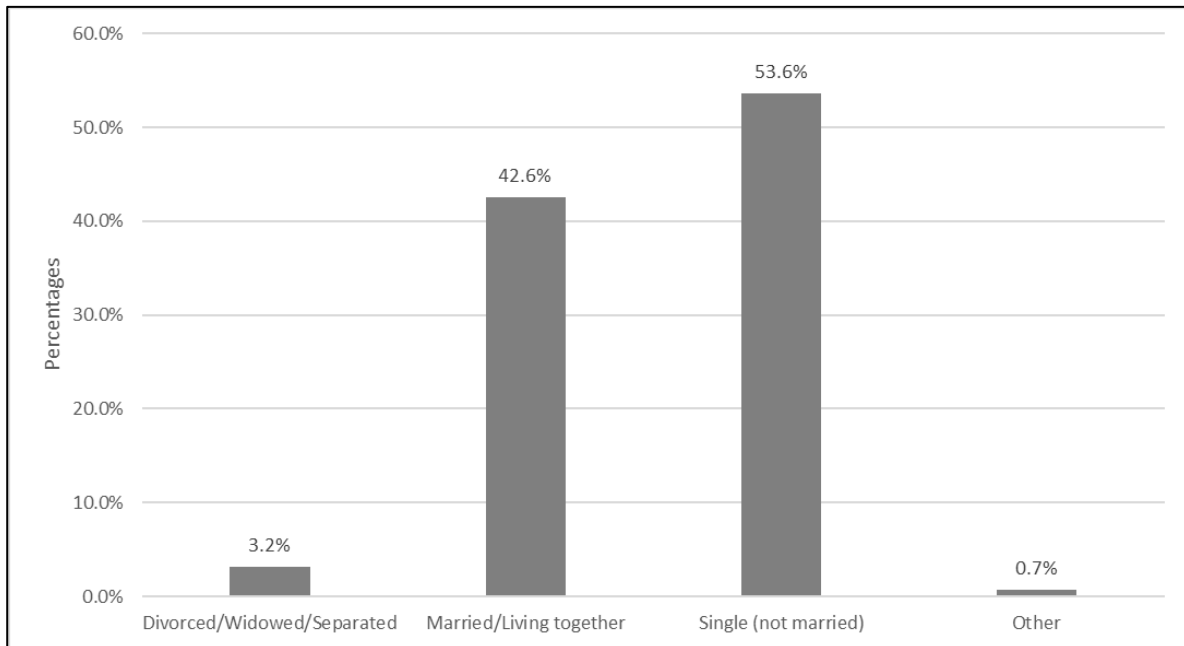


Source: Researcher's own construction

### **6.3.1.7 Relationship status**

Figure 6.9 indicates that most of the respondents were single ( $n = 238$ ; 53.6%), followed by those who were either married or living together ( $n = 189$ ; 42.6%); while 3.2% of the respondents were divorced, widowed, or separated ( $n = 14$ ; 3.2%). Only 0.7% of the respondents were categorised as 'other' ( $n = 3$ ; 0.7%). An analysis of the domestic tourism survey in South Africa shows that the majority of the travelling population in South Africa is those who never married (45.8%), followed by married (38.8%), then living together as husband and wife (8.4%), widow/widower (5.9%) and divorced/separated (3.1%) (South Africa Statistics, 2020).

**Figure 6.9: Relationship status (N=444)<sup>3</sup>**



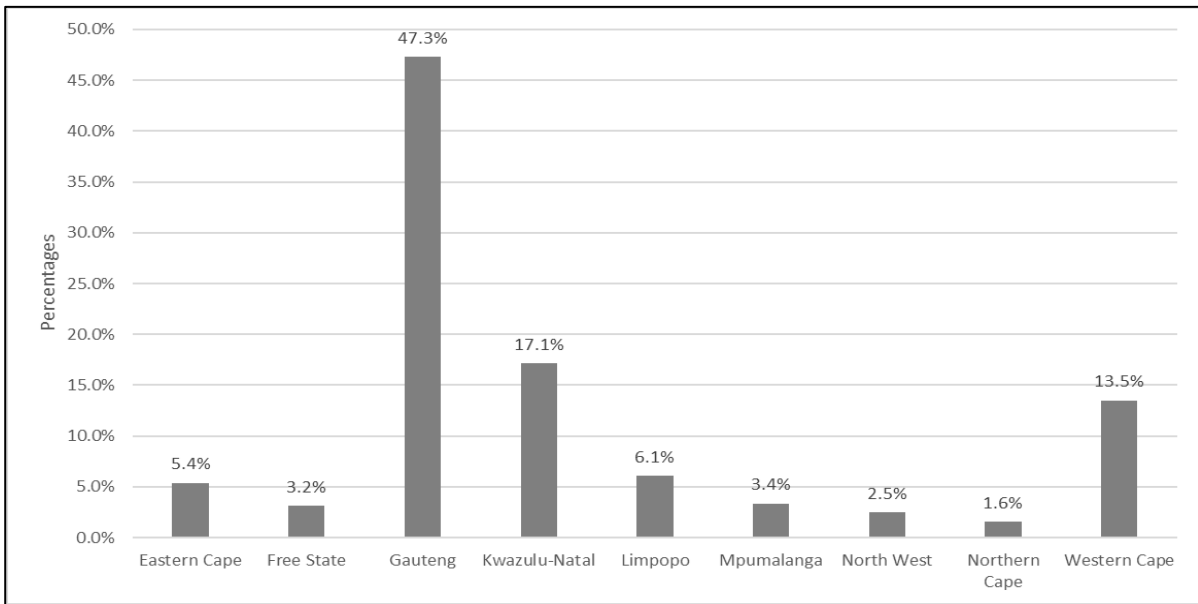
Source: Researcher's own construction

### **6.3.1.8 Place of residence**

As shown in Figure 6.10, the majority of the respondents resided in Gauteng ( $n = 210$ ; 47.3%), followed by Kwazulu-Natal ( $n = 76$ ; 17.1%), the Western Cape ( $n = 60$ ; 13.5%), and Limpopo ( $n = 27$ ; 6.1%). The remaining respondents resided in the following provinces: Eastern Cape ( $n = 24$ ; 5.4%), Mpumalanga ( $n = 15$ ; 3.4%), Free State ( $n = 14$ ; 3.2%), North-West ( $n = 11$ ; 2.5%), and Northern Cape ( $n = 7$ ; 1.6%). An analysis of the domestic tourism survey in South Africa indicates that the majority of the travelling population in South Africa resided in Gauteng (25.1%), followed by Kwazulu-Natal (19.3%), Eastern Cape (11.9%), the Western Cape (11.7%), Limpopo (10.4%), Mpumalanga (7.9%), North West (6.8%), Free State (4.8%) and Northern Cape (2.2%) (South Africa Statistics, 2020).

<sup>3</sup> The percentages do not add up to 100% as a result of rounding.

**Figure 6.10: Place of residence (N=444)<sup>4</sup>**



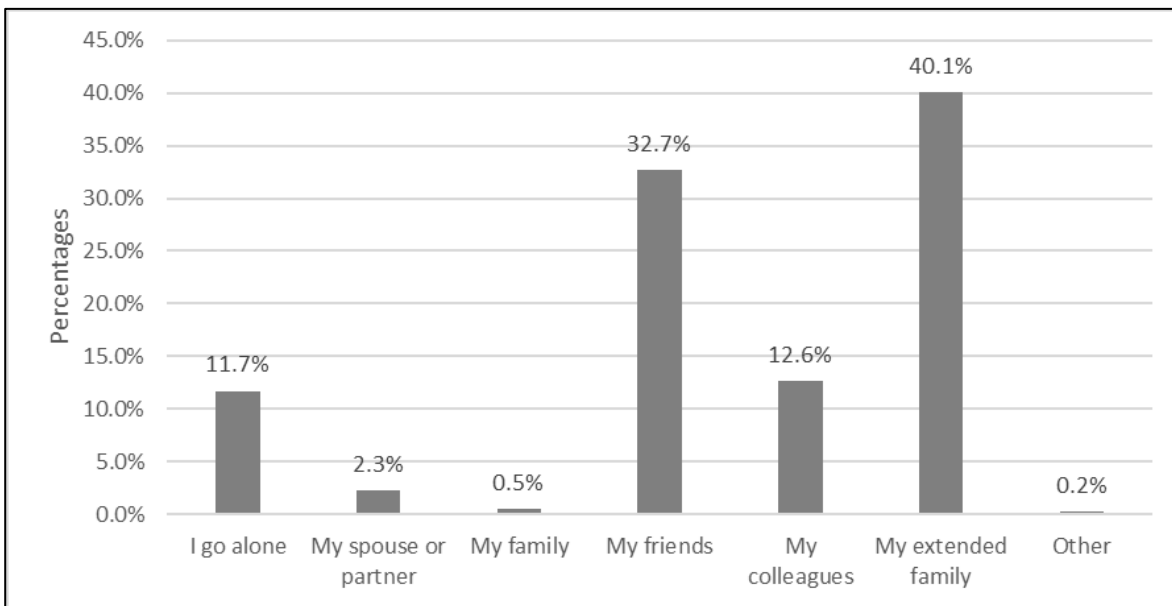
Source: Researcher's own construction

### **6.3.1.9 Travel companions**

In respect of travel companions, as illustrated in Figure 6.11, the majority of the respondents preferred to travel with extended family ( $n = 178$ ; 40.1%), followed by friends ( $n = 145$ ; 32.7%). A few respondents preferred to travel with colleagues ( $n = 56$ ; 12.6%) or alone ( $n = 52$ ; 11.7%). A very small percentage of the respondents preferred to travel with either a spouse or a partner ( $n = 10$ ; 2.3%) or with family ( $n = 2$ ; 0.5%). Since the majority of the respondents indicated that they were single, this was almost expected.

<sup>4</sup> The percentages do not add up to 100% as a result of rounding.

**Figure 6.11: Travel companions (N=444)<sup>5</sup>**



Source: Researcher's own construction

### 6.3.2 Descriptive statistics: constructs

This section provides the descriptive statistics for the constructs of attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process; expectations about visa requirements; and the intention to visit the destination of choice.

Table 6.19 shows the five-point Likert scale (1=very slightly or not at all to 5=extremely) that was used to measure the emotions construct and the seven-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree) that was used to measure attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit the destination of choice. However, to measure 21 items that best reflected the respondents' expectations of the visa requirements, a seven-point semantic differential scale with a traditional radio button was used. The semantic differential scale points of 1 to 3 implied a tendency towards the left-hand adjective, 4 implied a neutral stance, while 5 to 7 implied a tendency towards the right-hand adjective. The Likert scales and the semantic differential scale were used to conduct the exploratory factor analysis. In the descriptive analysis, the responses were grouped into three options

<sup>5</sup> The percentages do not add up to 100% as a result of rounding.

to allow a clearer graphical identification of the emerging patterns. Stacked bar charts were used to represent the descriptive statistics of the main constructs.

**Table 6.19: Scale grouping**

Scale	Scale grouping for graphical purpose
1=Very slightly or not at all 2=A little 3=Moderately 4=Quite a bit 5=Extremely	"Very slightly or not at all" and "A little" indicated "a low level" "Moderately" indicated "a moderate level" "Quite a bit" and "Extremely" indicated "a high level"
1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat Agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly Agree	"Strongly disagree", "Disagree", and "Somewhat disagree" indicated "Disagree" "Neutral" indicated "Neutral" "Somewhat agree", "Agree", and "Strongly agree" indicated "Agree"
Semantic differential scale from 1 to 3	Tendency towards the left-hand adjective
Semantic differential scale 4	Neutral
Semantic differential scale from 5 to 7	Tendency towards the right-hand adjective

Source: Researcher's own construction

### 6.3.2.1 Attitude

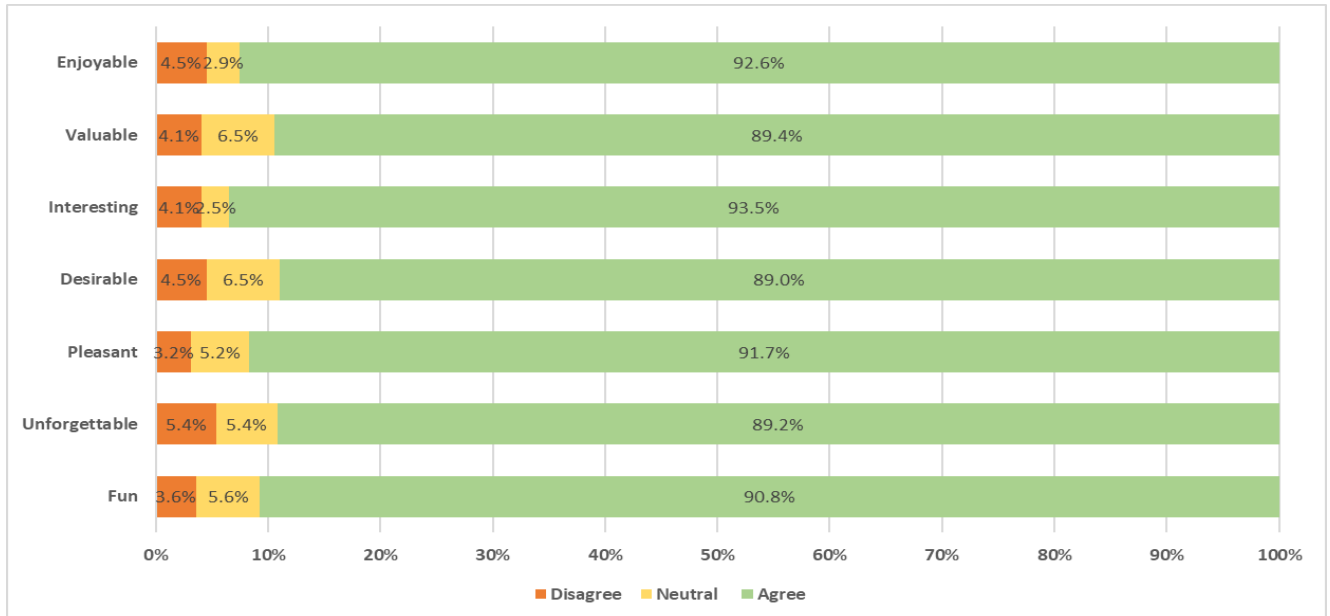
Before respondents answered question 12, they were given a scenario to consider when answering the remainder of the questions. The scenario read:

*In question 3, you indicated the destination you are most likely to travel to in the next 3 years. Please answer the questions that follow with this destination in mind. Also, please assume that you require a visa for this destination, which will require you to pay a visa fee, submit certain documents, comply with all the visa requirements and make an appointment at the visa facilitation service or the destination's embassy, consulate or high commission.*

Question 12 asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement about their attitude towards the destination they mentioned in question 3. The responses are presented graphically in Figure 6.12. A very large majority (89% and above) of the respondents agreed with all of the statements – that visiting their desired destination would be: interesting

(93.5%), followed by enjoyable (92.6%), pleasant (91.7%), fun (90.8%), valuable, (89.4%) and desirable (89.0%). The largest percentage of respondents who disagreed or were neutral related to desirability (11%).

**Figure 6.12: Attitudes towards the chosen destination<sup>6</sup>**



Source: Researcher's own construction

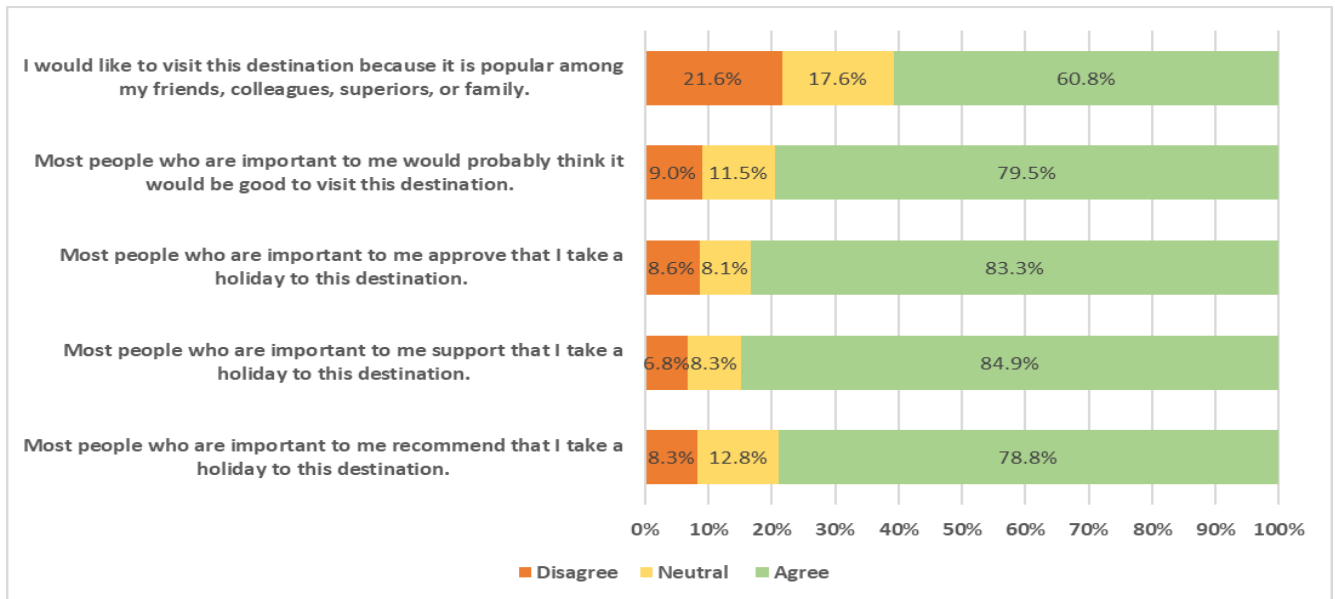
### 6.3.2.2 Subjective norms

The subjective norms construct was measured in relation to the destination to which the respondents referred in question 3. The responses are presented graphically in Figure 6.13. Once again, the overwhelming majority – more than three quarters of the respondents – agreed that most of the people who were important to them supported (84.9%), approved (84.3%), probably thought it would be good (79.5%), and recommended (78.8%) that they visit the destination. The statement that they preferred to visit the desired destination because it was popular among their friends, colleagues, superiors, or family had the highest percentage of neutral or disagreement responses, with 21.6% disagreeing and 17.6% feeling neutral.

<sup>6</sup> The percentages do not add up to 100% as a result of rounding.



**Figure 6.13: Subjective norms towards the chosen destination<sup>7</sup>**



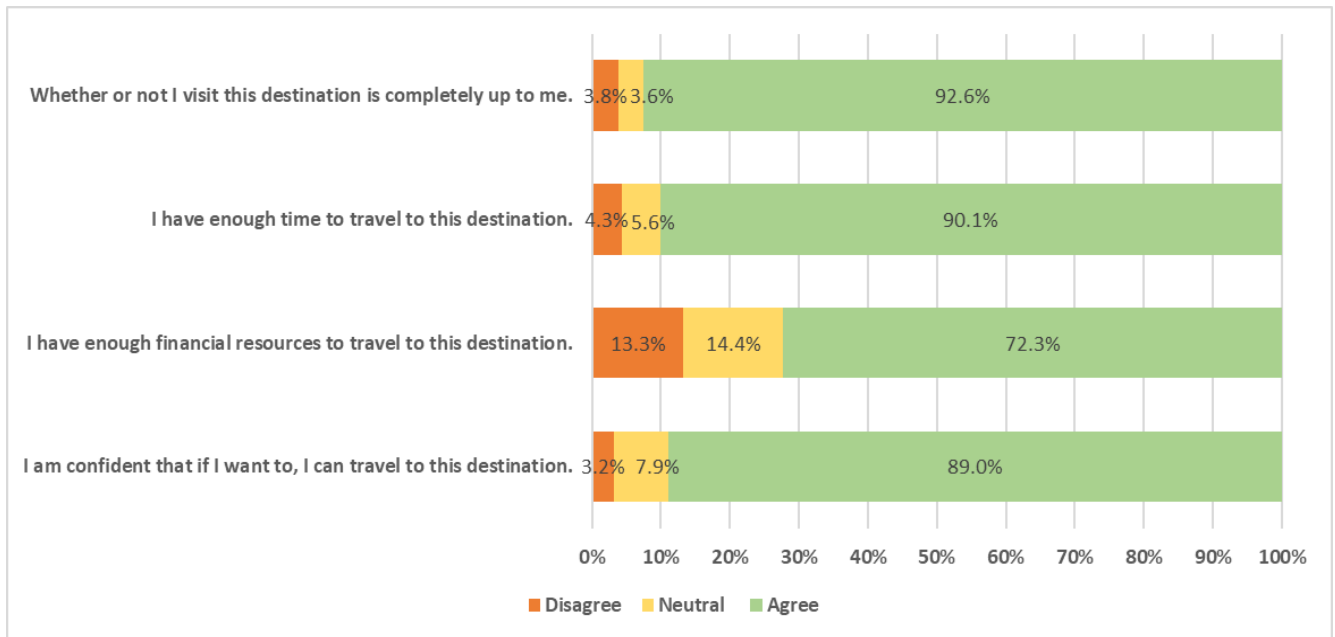
Source: Researcher's own construction

### **6.3.2.3 Perceived behavioural control**

Perceived behavioural control was measured in respect of the destination to which the respondents referred in question 3. The responses are presented graphically in Figure 6.14. The large majority of the respondents agreed that visiting the desired destination was completely up to them (92.6%), they had enough time to travel to this destination (90.1%), and they were confident that, if they wanted to, they could travel to this destination (89.0%). The statement that they had enough financial resources to travel to this destination had the lowest percentage of agreement (72.3%) among the respondents, with 13.3% disagreeing and the remaining 14.4% feeling neutral.

<sup>7</sup> The percentages do not add up to 100% as a result of rounding.

**Figure 6.14: Perceived behavioural control over a chosen destination**



Source: Researcher's own construction

#### **6.3.2.4 Expectations about visa requirements**

As noted above, a semantic differential scale was used to measure this construct. This means that respondents were asked to indicate their position on a scale between two bipolar adjectives that best reflected their expectations of the visa requirements during the visa application process. Between 71.6% and 84.0% of the respondents had the following expectations about visa requirements:

- To wait a short time for a visa appointment (71.6%)
- The visa applications will have a low rejection rate (71.8%)
- That there will be an immediate visa decision (73.0%)
- The visa application process will be online (73.2%)
- There will be an appeal process should the visa application be unsuccessful (75.2%)
- They will not be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on their country of origin, race, religion, or sex) when applying for a visa (77.3%)
- Frontline officials (staff) will be friendly (77.9%)
- The necessary documents as part of the visa application process will be easy to complete (79.7%)

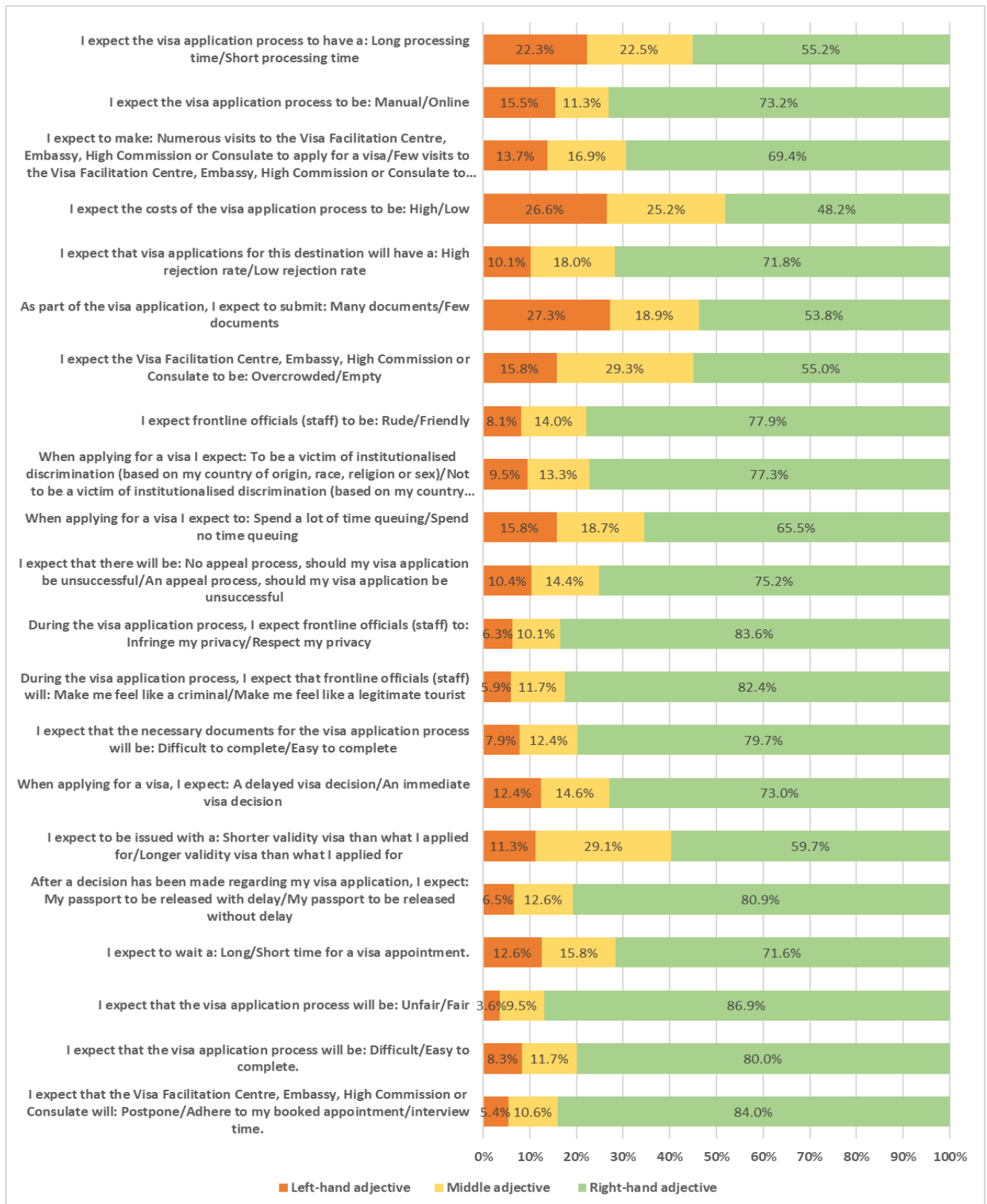
- The visa application process will be easy to complete (79.7%)
- After a decision has been made regarding a visa application, the passport will be released without a delay (80.9%)
- Frontline officials (staff) will make them feel like a legitimate tourist (82.4%)
- Frontline officials (staff) will respect their privacy (83.6%)
- The visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate will adhere to their booked appointment/interview time (84.0%)
- The visa application process will be fair (86.9%)

Using the left-hand adjective and the middle adjective of the semantic differential scale in Figure 6.15, it was interesting to note that a high proportion of respondents (ranging between 30.6% and 51.8%) had the following expectations of the visa requirements:

- To make numerous visits to the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate to apply for a visa (30.6%)
- They will spend a lot of time queuing when applying for a visa (34.5%)
- They will be issued with a shorter validity visa than what they applied for (40.3%)
- The visa application process to have a long processing time (44.8%)
- The visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate will be overcrowded (45.0%)
- Submit many documents for the visa application (46.2%)
- Costs of the visa application process to be high (51.8%)

However, these visa administrative burdens were not new as they had been before mentioned by various authors (Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014; Neiman & Swagel, 2009; Ng & Whalley, 2008; Özdemir & Ayata, 2018; Seminara, 2008; Stephenson, 2006; Woyo, 2017).

**Figure 6.15: Visa requirements for a chosen destination**



Source: Researcher's own construction

### **6.3.2.5 Emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process**

The next question asked the respondents to indicate the emotions that they expected to feel as a result of the visa application process. Figure 6.16 shows that the majority of the respondents (more than 50%) expected the visa application process to make them feel highly excited (76.4%), proud (74.5%), inspired (72.3%), determined (71.2%), interested (68.7%), attentive (68.2%), enthusiastic (65.1%), active (67.1%), strong (57.7%), and alert (53.6%). Similarly, the majority of the respondents indicated that the visa application process would make them feel only a little ashamed (80.4%), guilty (77.3%), afraid (71.6%), scared (70.0%), hostile (67.6%), upset (66.9%), irritable (63.3%), nervous (60.4%), or jittery (55.9%). More than 20% of the respondents also indicated that the visa application process would make them feel moderately strong (29.7%), jittery (26.4%), attentive (25.0%), distressed (23.4%), alert (23.4%), active (23.0%), interested (22.7%), determined (21.8%), or enthusiastic (21.4%). Interestingly, it was clear to see that the visa application process triggered higher levels of positive emotions than of negative emotions.

**Figure 6.16: Emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process for the chosen destination**



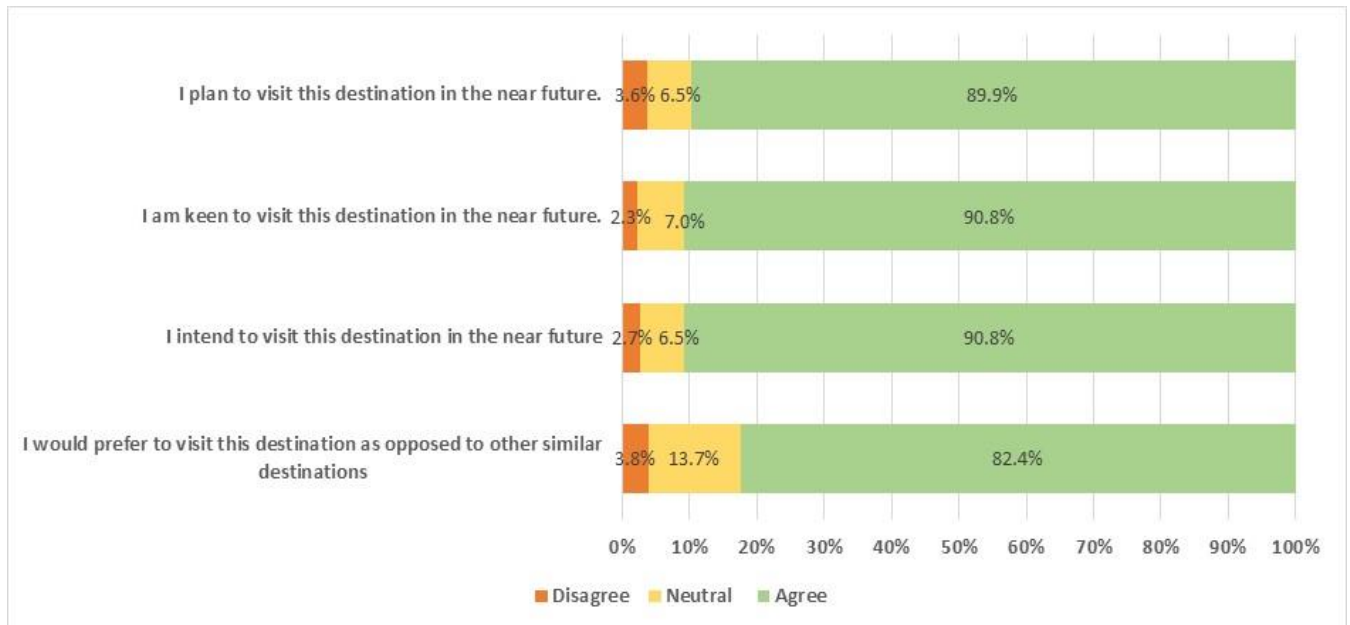
Source: Researcher's own construction

### 6.3.2.6 Intention to visit destination of choice

The intention to visit the destination of choice was measured in respect of the destination to which the respondents referred in question 3. The responses are presented graphically in Figure 6.17. A very large majority of the respondents agreed that they were keen to visit this

destination in the near future (90.8%); they intended to visit this destination in the near future (90.8%); they planned to visit this destination in the near future (89.9%); and they would prefer to visit this destination as opposed to other similar destinations (82.4%).

**Figure 6.17: Intention to visit destination of choice <sup>8</sup>**



Source: Researcher's own construction

The next section discusses the validity and reliability of all of the constructs: attitude (ATT), subjective norms (SN), perceived behavioural control (PBC), expectations about the visa requirements (VR), emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process (EI), and the intention to visit the destination of choice (VI).

### 6.3.3 Validity and reliability of the constructs

A fundamental part of good quality research practice, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), is the validity and reliability of the measurement scales. The measurement scales were assessed for validity and reliability to confirm that they remained valid and reliable in the context of visas in tourism. To reduce the data, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (using principal axis factoring extraction and promax rotation) was performed. This was

<sup>8</sup> The percentages do not add up to 100% as a result of rounding.

followed by measurement models for all of the constructs. In the case of attitude, perceived behaviour control, intention to visit the destination of choice, and subjective norms, although a CFA was the appropriate methodology to validate the existing scales (attitude, perceived behaviour control, subjective norms, and intention to visit the destination of choice), the single factor CFAs – especially those with small degrees of freedom – resulted in RMSEAs with values above the threshold, while IFI and CFI indicated a good fit (Kenny *et al.*, 2014). It was therefore decided to use an EFA to confirm the unidimensionality of each of the single factor constructs with a small number of indicators, after which they were combined in a measurement model for testing hypotheses 1 to 3.

Prior to performing the EFA, the researcher had to establish whether there was a difference between the group that had previously applied for a visa to travel internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination, and the group that had never previously applied for a such visa. Several independent sample t-tests were performed to test whether the differences between the groups were statistically significant for each statement in the questionnaire, therefore at an item level. Table 6.20 provides an overview of the items where the differences between the groups were statistically significant.

**Table 6.20: Independent T-test Results- All Constructs**

	Never previously applied for a visa: Mean (St.D)	Previously applied for a visa: Mean (St.D)	T-values	Significance
<b>Attitude</b>	<b>N=143</b>	<b>N=301</b>		
Q11.1: I think visiting this destination would be enjoyable	6.31(1.28)	6.28(1.28)	0.246	0.923
Q11.2: I think visiting this destination would be valuable	6.15(1.25)	6.03(1.26)	0.970	0.580
Q11.3: I think visiting this destination would be interesting	6.24(1.39)	6.41(1.17)	-1.352	0.248
Q11.4: I think visiting this destination would be desirable	6.12(1.40)	6.15(1.29)	-0.020	0.799
Q11.5: I think visiting this destination would be pleasant	6.08(1.33)	6.23(1.15)	-1.153	0.572
Q11.6: I think visiting this destination would be unforgettable	6.13(1.44)	6.20(1.37)	-0.519	0.923
Q11.7: I think visiting this destination would be fun	6.19(1.33)	6.26(1.23)	-0.574	0.609
<b>Subjective norms</b>				
Q12.1: I would like to visit this destination because it is popular among my friends, colleagues, superiors, or family.	4.80(1.90)	4.97(1.88)	-0.902	0.901



Q12.2: Most people who are important to me would probably think it would be good to visit this destination.	5.59(1.54)	5.62(1.51)	-0.241	0.667
Q12.3: Most people who are important to me approve that I take a holiday to this destination.	5.66(1.52)	5.81(1.39)	-1.004	0.207
Q12.4: Most people who are important to me support that I take a holiday to this destination.	5.70(1.46)	5.82(1.33)	-0.868	0.290
Q12.5: Most people who are important to me recommend that I take a holiday to this destination.	5.51(1.59)	5.63(1.46)	-0.811	0.442
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>				
Q13.1: Whether or not I visit this destination is completely up to me.	6.15(1.31)	6.36(1.07)	-1.778	0.150
Q13.2: I have enough time to travel to this destination.	6.08(1.35)	6.18(1.13)	-0.865	0.467
Q13.3: I have enough financial resources to travel to this destination.	4.81(1.79)	5.59(1.46)	-4.881	0.001
Q13.4: I am confident that if I want to, I can travel to this destination.	5.92(1.39)	6.23(1.04)	-2.558	0.045
<b>Expectations about visa requirements</b>				
Q14.1: I expect the visa application process to have a: Long processing time/Short processing time	4.91(1.89)	4.75(1.79)	0.838	0.250
Q14.2: I expect the visa application process to be: Manual/Online	5.72(1.85)	5.37(1.86)	1.843	0.738
Q14.3: I expect to make: Numerous visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa/Few visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa.	5.36(1.81)	5.33(1.71)	0.215	0.619
Q14.4: I expect the costs of the visa application process to be: High/Low	4.63(1.86)	4.45(1.78)	0.985	0.566
Q14.5: I expect that visa applications for this destination will have a: High rejection rate/Low rejection rate	5.49(1.66)	5.39(1.55)	0.604	0.275
Q14.6: As part of the visa application, I expect to submit: Many documents/Few documents	4.90(1.93)	4.56(1.96)	1.670	0.667
Q14.7: I expect the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to be: Overcrowded/Empty	4.99(1.51)	4.74(1.48)	1.645	0.929
Q14.8: I expect frontline officials (staff) to be: Rude/Friendly	6.10(1.37)	6.54(1.55)	3.037	0.009
Q14.9: When applying for a visa I expect: To be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)/Not to be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)	5.82(1.64)	5.65(1.52)	1.033	0.396
Q14.10: When applying for a visa I expect to: Spend a lot of time queuing/Spend no time queuing	5.50(1.64)	5.11(1.69)	2.292	0.471
Q14.11: I expect that there will be: No appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful/An appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful	5.88(1.52)	5.48(1.64)	2.480	0.022
Q14.12: During the visa application process, I expect frontline officials (staff) to: Infringe my privacy/Respect my privacy	6.27(1.23)	5.83(1.38)	3.217	0.017
Q14.13: During the visa application process, I expect that frontline officials (staff) will: Make	6.20(1.29)	5.82(1.45)	2.616	0.020

me feel like a criminal/Make me feel like a legitimate tourist				
Q14.14: I expect that the necessary documents for the visa application process will be: Difficult to complete/Easy to complete	6.10(1.42)	5.69(1.47)	2.752	0.029
Q14.15: When applying for a visa, I expect: A delayed visa decision/An immediate visa decision	5.76(1.50)	5.26(1.59)	3.133	0.283
Q14.16: I expect to be issued with a: Shorter validity visa than what I applied for/Longer validity visa than what I applied for	5.01(1.75)	5.15(1.54)	-0.850	0.079
Q14.17: After a decision has been made regarding my visa application, I expect: My passport to be released with delay/My passport to be released without delay	6.17(1.23)	5.58(1.49)	3.468	0.002
Q14.18: I expect to wait a Long/Short time for a visa appointment.	5.74(1.62)	5.33(1.58)	2.574	0.811
Q14.19: I expect that the visa application process will be: Unfair/Fair	6.36(1.18)	5.97(1.30)	3.012	0.011
Q14.20: I expect that the visa application process will be Difficult/Easy to complete.	6.13(1.41)	5.67(1.46)	3.153	0.056
Q14.21: I expect that the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate will Postpone/Adhere to my booked appointment/interview time.	6.10(1.38)	5.90(1.32)	1.477	0.342
<b>Emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process</b>				
Q15.1: I expect the visa application process will make me feel interested	4.16(1.12)	3.93(1.08)	2.076	0.948
Q15.2: I expect the visa application process will make me feel distressed	2.70(1.43)	3.02(1.35)	-2.318	0.070
Q15.3: I expect the visa application process will make me feel excited	4.41(0.96)	4.11(1.00)	2.988	0.119
Q15.4: I expect the visa application process will make me feel upset	1.86(1.21)	2.19(1.34)	-2.500	0.025
Q15.5: I expect the visa application process will make me feel strong	3.84(1.14)	3.70(1.13)	1.198	0.973
Q15.6: I expect the visa application process will make me feel guilty	1.47(1.00)	1.84(1.31)	-3.035	0.000
Q15.7: I expect the visa application process will make me feel scared	1.81(1.17)	2.09(1.34)	-2.106	0.003
Q15.8: I expect the visa application process will make me feel hostile	1.76(1.01)	2.13(1.31)	-3.024	0.000
Q15.9: I expect the visa application process will make me feel enthusiastic	3.95(1.17)	3.75(1.18)	1.647	0.086
Q15.10: I expect the visa application process will make me feel proud	4.29(1.16)	4.06(1.07)	2.126	0.615
Q15.11: I expect the visa application process will make me feel irritable	1.99(1.24)	2.20(1.36)	-1.563	0.031
Q15.12: I expect the visa application process will make me feel alert	3.40(1.31)	3.56(1.27)	-1.222	0.634
Q15.13: I expect the visa application process will make me feel ashamed	1.40(0.96)	1.76(1.27)	-3.004	0.000
Q15.14: I expect the visa application process will make me feel inspired	4.29(1.07)	4.02(1.11)	2.458	0.548
Q15.15: I expect the visa application process will make me feel nervous	2.13(1.17)	2.44(1.36)	-2.336	0.000
Q15.16: I expect the visa application process will make me feel determined	4.06(1.05)	4.05(1.00)	0.027	0.740
Q15.17: I expect the visa application process will make me feel attentive	4.14(1.00)	3.97(1.06)	1.601	0.333
Q15.18: I expect the visa application process will make me feel jittery	2.28(1.15)	2.38(1.31)	-0.746	0.010

Q15.19: I expect the visa application process will make me feel active	4.06(1.10)	3.89(1.12)	1.495	0.698
Q15.20: I expect the visa application process will make me feel afraid	1.81(1.22)	2.11(1.38)	-2.205	0.001
<b>Intention to visit destination of choice</b>				
Q16.1: I plan to visit this destination in the near future	6.29(1.12)	6.10(1.17)	1.653	0.295
Q16.2: I am keen to visit this destination in the near future	6.27(1.11)	6.21(1.10)	0.596	0.677
Q16.3: I intend to visit this destination in the near future	6.31(0.93)	6.11(1.13)	1.794	0.178
Q16.4: I would prefer to visit this destination as opposed to other similar destinations	5.81(1.26)	5.74(1.24)	0.530	0.688

Source: Researcher's own construction

For 22 of the 61 items there were statistically significant differences between the two groups (those who have applied for visas before, and those who have not) while 39 items were not statistically significant. Interestingly, there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in terms of the attitude, subjective norms and intention to visit constructs. In terms of the emotions experienced, there were no statistically significant differences between the groups in terms of positive emotions. Based on these outputs, it was decided to model these two groups separately.

A summary of the EFA for each of the factors, including Cronbach's alpha (CA) and the internal consistency (reliability) measure, is discussed in the next section.

### **6.3.3.1 Exploratory factor analysis**

To assess whether an EFA should be conducted, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity were performed. According to Field (2013), the KMO index ranges from 0 to 1, and anything above the threshold of 0.5 is recommended, as it shows that the sample is adequate. Likewise, Kline (2014); Pallant and Manual (2010) recommend Bartlett's test of sphericity, with a threshold of ( $p < 0.05$ ), to indicate that the factor analysis was appropriate and statistically significant for each of the constructs. The minimum standard threshold of the required internal consistency (reliability) is 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016).

Although 0.70 is generally accepted as the threshold for composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha, a value of above 0.60 is viewed as acceptable, as Fornell and Larcker (1981)

indicated that, if the average variance extracted (AVE) is less than 0.50 and the composite reliability is higher than 0.60, the convergent validity of the construct is still adequate.

### 6.3.3.1.1 Attitude

#### Travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination

As indicated in Table 6.21, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.923, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than one was identified using Kaiser's criterion. This factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 5.083 and explained 68.21% of the total variance, thus indicating that the attitude construct was one-dimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of the factor was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. The reliability was considered satisfactory, as the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value was 0.935, which was above the standard threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016).

**Table 6.21: Attitude factor analysis (N=301)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
				1	
<b>Attitude</b>		0.923 <i>P</i> <0.001	68.21%		
	Q11.1: I think visiting this destination would be enjoyable			0.808	0.935
	Q11.2: I think visiting this destination would be valuable			0.829	
	Q11.3: I think visiting this destination would be interesting			0.878	
	Q11.4: I think visiting this destination would be desirable			0.860	
	Q11.5: I think visiting this destination would be pleasant			0.853	
	Q11.6: I think visiting this destination would be unforgettable			0.697	
	Q11.7: I think visiting this destination would be fun			0.842	

Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 6.22 indicates the mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of the respondents' attitude. The mean score for attitude of 6.2212 (SD = 1.06114), which was measured on a seven-point Likert scale, anchored at (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) somewhat disagree, (4) neutral, (5) somewhat agree, (6) agree, and (7) strongly agree, was the highest score in comparison with the other factors for the group that had applied for a visa before. This mean score demonstrated that the average response for this factor fell between 'agree' and 'strongly agree', indicating a favourable attitude towards the destination of choice.

According to Brown (2015) and Griffin and Steinbrecher (2013), the appropriate values of skewness range between -3 and +3, and acceptable values of kurtosis fall between -10 and +10 when using structural equation modelling (SEM) and path analysis. To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established. The findings showed that the skewness values of attitude lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10. This indicated that a normal distribution could be assumed for attitude.

**Table 6.22: Descriptive statistics: Attitude**

	<b>Attitude</b>
N	301
Mean	6.2212
Median	6.5714
Std. deviation	1.06114
Skewness	-2.776
Kurtosis	9.865

Source: Researcher's own construction

### **Never travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination**

As indicated in Table 6.23, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.930, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than one was identified using Kaiser's criterion. This factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 5.319 and explained 72.28% of the total variance, thus indicating that the attitude construct was one-dimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of the factor was calculated using

Cronbach's alpha. The reliability was considered satisfactory, as the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value was 0.946, which was above the standard threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016:145).

**Table 6.23: Attitude factor analysis (N=143)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
				1	
<b>Attitude</b>		0.930	72.28%		
		<i>P</i> <0.001			
	Q11.1: I think visiting this destination would be enjoyable			0.770	0.946
	Q11.2: I think visiting this destination would be valuable			0.881	
	Q11.3: I think visiting this destination would be interesting			0.875	
	Q11.4: I think visiting this destination would be desirable			0.897	
	Q11.5: I think visiting this destination would be pleasant			0.926	
	Q11.6: I think visiting this destination would be unforgettable			0.702	
	Q11.7: I think visiting this destination would be fun			0.878	

Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 6.24 indicates the mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of the respondents' attitude. The mean score for attitude of 6.1738 (SD = 1.16997), which was measured on a seven-point Likert scale, anchored at (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) somewhat disagree, (4) neutral, (5) somewhat agree, (6) agree, and (7) strongly agree, was the highest score in comparison with the other factors for the group that had never applied for a visa before. It can be seen in Table 6.24 that the mean score for attitude was above the scale's midpoint of 4. This mean score demonstrated that the average response for this factor fell between 'agree' and 'strongly agree', indicating a favourable attitude towards the destination of choice. To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established. The findings showed that the skewness values of attitude lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10. The mean score for attitude for the group that had applied for a visa before was slightly higher than for the group that had not applied for visas before. Therefore, the group that had applied for a visa before had a slightly more favourable attitude.

**Table 6.24: Descriptive statistics: Attitude**

	<b>Attitude</b>
N	143
Mean	6.1738
Median	6.5714
Std. deviation	1.16997
Skewness	-2.863
Kurtosis	9.413

Source: Researcher's own construction

### 6.3.3.1.2 Subjective norms

#### **Travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination**

As indicated in Table 6.25, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.836, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than one was identified using Kaiser's criterion. This factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 3.296 and explained 58.00% of the total variance, thus indicating that the subjective norms construct was one-dimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of the factor was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. The reliability was considered satisfactory, as the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value was 0.858, which was above the standard threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016).

**Table 6.25: Subjective norms factor analysis (N=301)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
				1	
<b>Subjective norms</b>		0.836 <i>P &lt; 0.001</i>	58.00%		
	Q12.1: I would like to visit this destination because it is popular among my friends, colleagues, superiors, or family.			0.592	0.858
	Q12.2: Most people who are important to me would probably think it would be good to visit this destination.			0.767	
	Q12.3: Most people who are important to me approve that I take a holiday to this destination.			0.849	

Q12.4: Most people who are important to me support that I take a holiday to this destination.			0.745	
Q12.5: Most people who are important to me recommend that I take a holiday to this destination.			0.828	

Source: Researcher's own construction

The mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of subjective norms are shown in Table 6.26. For this variable, the respondents had an overall mean score of 5.5721 (SD = 1.22083). This mean score was computed on a seven-point Likert scale with (1) representing strongly disagree, (2) representing disagree, (3) representing somewhat disagree, (4) representing neutral, (5) representing somewhat agree, (6) representing agree, and (7) representing strongly agree. It can be seen in Table 6.26 that the subjective norms mean score was above the scale's midpoint of 4. This mean score demonstrated that the average response for this factor fell between 'somewhat agree' and 'agree'. To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established. The findings showed that the skewness values of subjective norms lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10. This indicated that a normal distribution could be assumed for subjective norms.

**Table 6.26: Descriptive statistics: Subjective norms**

	Subjective norms
N	301
Mean	5.5721
Median	5.8000
Std. deviation	1.22083
Skewness	-1.184
Kurtosis	1.603

Source: Researcher's own construction

### **Never travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination**

As indicated in Table 6.27, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.871, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than one was identified using Kaiser's criterion. This factor emerged with an eigenvalue of



3.626 and explained 66.66% of the total variance, thus indicating that the subjective norms construct was one-dimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of the factor was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. The reliability was considered satisfactory, as the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value was 0.894, which was above the standard threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016).

**Table 6.27: Subjective norms factor analysis (N=143)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
				1	
<b>Subjective norms</b>		0.871 <i>P&lt;0.001</i>	66.66%		
	Q12.1: I would like to visit this destination because it is popular among my friends, colleagues, superiors, or family.			0.574	0.894
	Q12.2: Most people who are important to me would probably think it would be good to visit this destination.			0.811	
	Q12.3: Most people who are important to me approve that I take a holiday to this destination.			0.884	
	Q12.4: Most people who are important to me support that I take a holiday to this destination.			0.869	
	Q12.5: Most people who are important to me recommend that I take a holiday to this destination.			0.900	

Source: Researcher's own construction

The mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of subjective norms are shown in Table 6.28. For this variable, the respondents had an overall mean score of 5.4517 (SD = 1.34933). This mean score was computed on a seven-point Likert scale with (1) representing strongly disagree, (2) representing disagree, (3) representing somewhat disagree, (4) representing neutral, (5) representing somewhat agree, (6) representing agree, and (7) representing strongly agree. It can be seen in Table 6.28 that the subjective norms mean score was above the scale's midpoint of 4. This mean score demonstrated that the average response for this factor fell between 'somewhat agree' and 'agree'. To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established. The findings showed that the skewness values of subjective norms lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10. The mean score for subjective norms for the group

that had applied for a visa before was slightly higher than for the group that had not applied for visas before. Therefore, the tourists from the group that had applied for a visa before placed a higher value on the perceptions of friends, colleagues, superiors, or family about their intention to visit their destination of choice.

**Table 6.28: Descriptive statistics: Subjective norms**

	Subjective norms
N	143
Mean	5.4517
Median	5.8000
Std. deviation	1.34933
Skewness	-1.334
Kurtosis	1.834

Source: Researcher's own construction

### 6.3.3.1.3 Perceived behavioural control

#### Travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination

As indicated in Table 6.29, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.733, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than one was identified using Kaiser's criterion. This factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 2.506 and explained 50.95% of the total variance (Field, 2013), thus indicating that the perceived behavioural control construct was one-dimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of the factor was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. The reliability was considered satisfactory, as the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value was 0.785, which was above the standard threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016).

**Table 6.29: Perceived behavioural control factor analysis (N=301)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
				1	
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>		0.733	50.95%		
		<i>P&lt;0.001</i>			
	Q13.1: Whether or not I visit this destination is completely up to me.			0.644	0.785
	Q13.2: I have enough time to travel to this destination.			0.797	
	Q13.3: I have enough financial resources to travel to this destination.			0.601	
	Q13.4: I am confident that if I want to, I can travel to this destination.			0.792	

Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 6.30 indicates the mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of perceived behavioural control. The mean score for perceived behavioural control of 6.0905 (SD = 0.92596), was measured on a seven-point Likert scale, anchored at (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) somewhat disagree, (4) neutral, (5) somewhat agree, (6) agree, and (7) strongly agree. It can be seen in Table 6.30 that the perceived behavioural control mean score was above the scale's midpoint of 4. This mean score demonstrated that the average response for this factor fell between 'agree' and 'strongly agree'. To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established. The findings showed that the skewness values of perceived behavioural control lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10. This indicated that a normal distribution could be assumed for perceived behavioural control.

**Table 6.30: Descriptive statistics: Perceived behavioural control**

	Perceived behavioural control
N	301
Mean	6.0905
Median	6.2500
Std. deviation	0.92596
Skewness	-1.516
Kurtosis	3.248

Source: Researcher's own construction

## Never travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination

As indicated in Table 6.31, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.797, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than one was identified using Kaiser's criterion. This factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 2.831 and explained 62.29% of the total variance, thus indicating that the perceived behavioural control construct was one-dimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of the factor was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. The reliability was considered satisfactory, as the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value was 0.844, which was above the standard threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016).

**Table 6.31: Perceived behavioural control factor analysis (N=143)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
				1	
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>		0.797 <i>P &lt; 0.001</i>	62.29%		
	Q13.1: Whether or not I visit this destination is completely up to me.			0.831	0.844
	Q13.2: I have enough time to travel to this destination.			0.845	
	Q13.3: I have enough financial resources to travel to this destination.			0.579	
	Q13.4: I am confident that if I want to, I can travel to this destination.			0.867	

Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 6.32 indicates the mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of perceived behavioural control. The mean score for perceived behavioural control of 5.7413 (SD = 1.21624), was measured on a seven-point Likert scale, anchored at (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) somewhat disagree, (4) neutral, (5) somewhat agree, (6) agree, and (7) strongly agree. It can be seen in Table 6.32 that the perceived behavioural control mean score was above the scale's midpoint of 4. This mean score demonstrated that the average response for this factor fell between 'somewhat agree' and 'agree'. To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established.

The findings showed that the skewness values of perceived behavioural control lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10. The mean score for perceived behavioural control for the group that had applied for a visa before was slightly higher than for the group that had not applied for visas before. Therefore, the group that had applied for a visa before had a slightly higher perception of control over their intention to visit their destination of choice.

**Table 6.32: Descriptive statistics: Perceived behavioural control**

	Perceived behavioural control
N	143
Mean	5.7413
Median	6.0000
Std. deviation	1.21624
Skewness	-2.095
Kurtosis	5.947

Source: Researcher's own construction

#### 6.3.3.1.4 Expectations about visa requirements

The scale for expectations about visa requirements included items derived from the literature and from the focus groups, since no established scale existed. Therefore, an EFA was conducted to determine the underlying dimensions of the data.

#### **Travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination**

As indicated in Table 6.33, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.956, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. Two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were identified using Kaiser's criterion. The first factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 10.426, explaining 47.78% of the total variance. A second factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 2.851, explaining 9.05% of the total variance. In total, the two factors accounted for 56.83% of the total variance, thus indicating that the visa requirements construct was not unidimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of the new factors was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. However, item 2 (Q14.2: I expect the visa

application process to be: Manual/Online) did not load on any of the factors; therefore, it was omitted.

**Table 6.33: Expectations about visa requirements factor analysis (N=301)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading		Cronbach's alpha
				1	2	
<b>Expectations about visa requirement</b>		0.956	56.83%			
		<i>P&lt;0.001</i>				
	Q14.8: I expect frontline officials (staff) to be: Rude/Friendly			0.353		0.937
	Q14.9: When applying for a visa I expect: To be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)/Not to be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)			0.526		
	Q14.11: I expect that there will be: No appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful/An appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful			0.471		
	Q14.12: During the visa application process, I expect frontline officials (staff) to: Infringe my privacy/Respect my privacy			0.736		
	Q14.13: During the visa application process, I expect that frontline officials (staff) will: Make me feel like a criminal/Make me feel like a legitimate tourist			0.702		
	Q14.14: I expect that the necessary documents for the visa application process will be: Difficult to complete/Easy to complete			0.818		
	Q14.16: I expect to be issued with a: Shorter validity visa than what I applied for/Longer validity visa than what I applied for			0.449		
	Q14.17: After a decision has been made regarding my visa application, I expect: My passport to be released with delay/My passport to be released without delay			0.791		
	Q14.18: I expect to wait a: Long/Short time for a visa appointment.			0.562		

Q14.19: I expect that the visa application process will be: Unfair/Fair			0.878		
Q14.20: I expect that the visa application process will be: Difficult/Easy to complete.			0.839		
Q14.21: I expect that the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate will: Postpone/Adhere to my booked appointment/interview time.			0.870		
Q14.1: I expect the visa application process to have a: Long processing time/Short processing time				0.774	0.657
Q14.3: I expect to make: Numerous visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa/Few visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa.				0.529	
Q14.4: I expect the costs of the visa application process to be: High/Low				0.789	
Q14.5: I expect that visa applications for this destination will have a: High rejection rate/Low rejection rate				0.466	
Q14.6: As part of the visa application, I expect to submit: Many documents/Few documents				0.721	
Q14.7: I expect the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to be: Overcrowded/Empty				0.493	
Q14.10: When applying for a visa I expect to: Spend a lot of time queuing/Spend no time queuing				0.455	
Q14.15: When applying for a visa, I expect: A delayed visa decision/An immediate visa decision				0.467	

Source: Researcher's own construction

Cronbach's alpha for factor 1 was above the acknowledged threshold of 0.7 (0.937), and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value for factor 2 was 0.657, which was above the acknowledged threshold of 0.60, implying that the convergent validity of the construct was still adequate (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The items that clustered on factor one (abbreviated as VR1 in this study) highlighted the expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness, while factor two (abbreviated as VR2 in this study) dealt with the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome. The factors were

differentiated by labelling VR1 as “expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness” while VR2 was labelled “expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome”. Table 6.34 indicates the items that fell under these two factors.

**Table 6.34: Expectations about visa requirements: items for two factors**

<b>Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness</b>	<b>Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome</b>
Q14.8: I expect frontline officials (staff) to be: Rude/Friendly	Q14.1: I expect the visa application process to have a: Long processing time/Short processing time
Q14.9: When applying for a visa I expect: To be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)/Not to be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)	Q14.3: I expect to make: Numerous visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa/Few visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa.
Q14.11: I expect that there will be: No appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful/An appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful	Q14.4: I expect the costs of the visa application process to be: High/Low
Q14.12: During the visa application process, I expect frontline officials (staff) to: Infringe my privacy/Respect my privacy	Q14.5: I expect that visa applications for this destination will have a: High rejection rate/Low rejection rate
Q14.13: During the visa application process, I expect that frontline officials (staff) will: Make me feel like a criminal/Make me feel like a legitimate tourist	Q14.6: As part of the visa application, I expect to submit: Many documents/Few documents
Q14.14: I expect that the necessary documents for the visa application process will be: Difficult to complete/Easy to complete	Q14.7: I expect the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to be: Overcrowded/Empty
Q14.15: When applying for a visa, I expect: A delayed visa decision/An immediate visa decision	Q14.10: When applying for a visa I expect to: Spend a lot of time queuing/Spend no time queuing
Q14.16: I expect to be issued with a: Shorter validity visa than what I applied for/Longer validity visa than what I applied for	
Q14.17: After a decision has been made regarding my visa application, I expect: My passport to be released with delay/My passport to be released without delay	
Q14.18: I expect to wait a: Long/Short time for a visa appointment.	
Q14.19: I expect that the visa application process will be: Unfair/Fair	
Q14.20: I expect that the visa application process will be: Difficult/Easy to complete.	
Q14.21: I expect that the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate will: Postpone/Adhere to my booked appointment/interview time.	

Source: Researcher’s own construction



The mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of expectations about visa requirements are shown in Table 6.35. The mean score for, expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness, was 5.6514 (SD = 1.14462), while the mean score for, expectations related to costs, appointment, and outcome, was 4.9051 (SD = 1.26203). These mean scores were computed using a seven-point semantic differential scale, where 1 to 3 implied a tendency towards the left-hand adjective, 4 implied neutral whilst 5 to 7 implied a tendency towards the right-hand adjective. It can be seen in Table 6.35 that the mean scores for the expectations about visa requirements items were above the scale's midpoint of 4. These mean scores demonstrated that the average response for expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness fell in 'a tendency towards the right-hand adjective', while the average response for expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment and outcome fell in between "neutral" and "a tendency towards the right adjective". To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established. These findings showed that the skewness values of the expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10. This indicated that a normal distribution could be assumed for the expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome.

**Table 6.35: Descriptive statistics: Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness, and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome**

	<b>Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness</b>	<b>Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome</b>
N	301	301
Mean	5.6514	4.9051
Median	5.9167	4.8571
Std. deviation	1.14462	1.26203
Skewness	-0.729	-0.262
Kurtosis	-0.063	-0.254

Source: Researcher's own construction

## Never travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination

In Table 6.36, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.905, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were identified using Kaiser's criterion. The first factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 9.614, explaining 43.82% of the total variance. A second factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 1.666, explaining 5.84% of the total variance. A third factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 1.396, explaining an additional 4.25% of the total variance. Together the three factors accounted for 53.91% of the total variance, indicating that the visa requirements construct was not unidimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of each of the identified new factors was calculated.

**Table 6.36: Expectations about visa requirements factor analysis (N=143)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading			Cronbach's alpha
				1	2	3	
<b>Expectations about visa requirements</b>		0.905	53.91%				
		<i>P &lt; 0.001</i>					
	Q14.6: As part of the visa application, I expect to submit: Many documents/Few documents			0.479			0.922
	Q14.14: I expect that the necessary documents for the visa application process will be: Difficult to complete/Easy to complete			0.812			
	Q14.15: When applying for a visa, I expect: A delayed visa decision/An immediate visa decision			0.473			
	Q14.17: After a decision has been made regarding my visa application, I expect: My passport to be released with delay/My passport to be released without delay			0.727			
	Q14.18: I expect to wait a: Long/Short time for a visa appointment.			0.895			
	Q14.19: I expect that the visa application process will be: Unfair/Fair			0.862			

Q14.20: I expect that the visa application process will be: Difficult/Easy to complete.			0.838		
Q14.21: I expect that the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate will: Postpone/Adhere to my booked appointment/interview time.			0.778		
Q14.1: I expect the visa application process to have a: Long processing time/Short processing time				0.725	0.835
Q14.3: I expect to make: Numerous visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa/Few visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa.				0.586	
Q14.4: I expect the costs of the visa application process to be: High/Low				0.667	
Q14.5: I expect that visa applications for this destination will have a: High rejection rate/Low rejection rate				0.629	
Q14.7: I expect the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to be: Overcrowded/Empty				0.572	
Q14.10: When applying for a visa I expect to: Spend a lot of time queuing/Spend no time queuing				0.335	
Q14.16: I expect to be issued with a: Shorter validity visa than what I applied for/Longer validity visa than what I applied for				0.364	
Q14.2: I expect the visa application process to be: Manual/Online					0.440
Q14.8: I expect frontline officials (staff) to be: Rude/Friendly					0.577
Q14.9: When applying for a visa I expect: To be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)/Not to be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)					0.393
Q14.11: I expect that there will be: No appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful/An appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful					0.327
Q14.12: During the visa application process, I expect frontline officials					0.644

(staff) to: Infringe my privacy/Respect my privacy						
Q14.13: During the visa application process, I expect that frontline officials (staff) will: Make me feel like a criminal/Make me feel like a legitimate tourist					0.651	

Source: Researcher's own construction

As the Cronbach's alpha coefficient values (0.922, 0.835, and 0.777) were above the acknowledged threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016), the reliabilities were considered satisfactory.

The items that clustered on factor one (abbreviated as VR1 in this study) highlighted the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents; the second factor (abbreviated as VR2 in this study) dealt with the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment; the third factor (abbreviated as VR3 in this study) denoted the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials. The factors were differentiated by labelling VR1 as "expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents"; VR2 was labelled "expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment"; and VR3 was labelled "expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials". Table 6.37 presents the items that fell under these three factors.

**Table 6.37: Expectations about visa requirements: items for three factors**

<b>Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents</b>	<b>Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment</b>	<b>Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials</b>
Q14.6: As part of the visa application, I expect to submit: Many documents/Few documents	Q14.1: I expect the visa application process to have a: Long processing time/Short processing time	Q14.2: I expect the visa application process to be: Manual/Online
Q14.14: I expect that the necessary documents for the visa application process will be: Difficult to complete/Easy to complete	Q14.3: I expect to make: Numerous visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa/Few visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa.	Q14.8: I expect frontline officials (staff) to be: Rude/Friendly
Q14.15: When applying for a visa, I expect: A delayed visa	Q14.4: I expect the costs of the visa application process to be: High/Low	Q14.9: When applying for a visa I expect: To be a victim of institutionalised discrimination

decision/An immediate visa decision		(based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)/Not to be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)
Q14.17: After a decision has been made regarding my visa application, I expect: My passport to be released with delay/My passport to be released without delay	Q14.5: I expect that visa applications for this destination will have a: High rejection rate/Low rejection rate	Q14.11: I expect that there will be: No appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful/An appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful
Q14.18: I expect to wait a: Long/Short time for a visa appointment.	Q14.7: I expect the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to be: Overcrowded/Empty	Q14.12: During the visa application process, I expect frontline officials (staff) to: Infringe my privacy/Respect my privacy
Q14.19: I expect that the visa application process will be: Unfair/Fair	Q14.10: When applying for a visa I expect to: Spend a lot of time queuing/Spend no time queuing	Q14.13: During the visa application process, I expect that frontline officials (staff) will: Make me feel like a criminal/Make me feel like a legitimate tourist
Q14.20: I expect that the visa application process will be: Difficult/Easy to complete.	Q14.16: I expect to be issued with a: Shorter validity visa than what I applied for/Longer validity visa than what I applied for	
Q14.21: I expect that the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate will: Postpone/Adhere to my booked appointment/interview time.		

Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 6.38 indicates the mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of expectations about visa requirements. The mean score for the expectations of visa requirements related to time, process, and documents was 5.9065 (SD = 1.18683); the mean score for the expectations of visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment was 5.1279 (SD = 1.23051); while the mean score for the expectations related to visa consular/frontline officials was 5.9977 (SD = 1.03139). These factors were measured using a seven-point semantic differential scale, where 1 to 3 implied a tendency towards the left-hand adjective, 4 implied neutral, while 5 to 7 implied a tendency towards the right-hand adjective. These mean scores demonstrated that the average response for the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents; the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment; and the expectations about

visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials fell on 'a tendency towards the right-hand adjective'. To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established. The findings showed that the skewness values of the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents; the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment; and the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10. Even though the group that had applied for a visa before and the group that had never applied for a visa before did not have the same factors, it seemed that the group that had not applied for visas before were more likely to expect lenient visa requirements than the group that had applied for visas before.

**Table 6.38: Descriptive statistics: Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents; expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment; and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/ frontline officials**

	Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment	Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/ frontline officials
N	143	143	143
Mean	5.9065	5.1279	5.9977
Median	6.2500	5.1429	6.1667
Std. deviation	1.18683	1.23051	1.03139
Skewness	-1.396	-0.486	-1.167
Kurtosis	1.621	-0.034	1.105

Source: Researcher's own construction

#### 6.3.3.1.5 Emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process

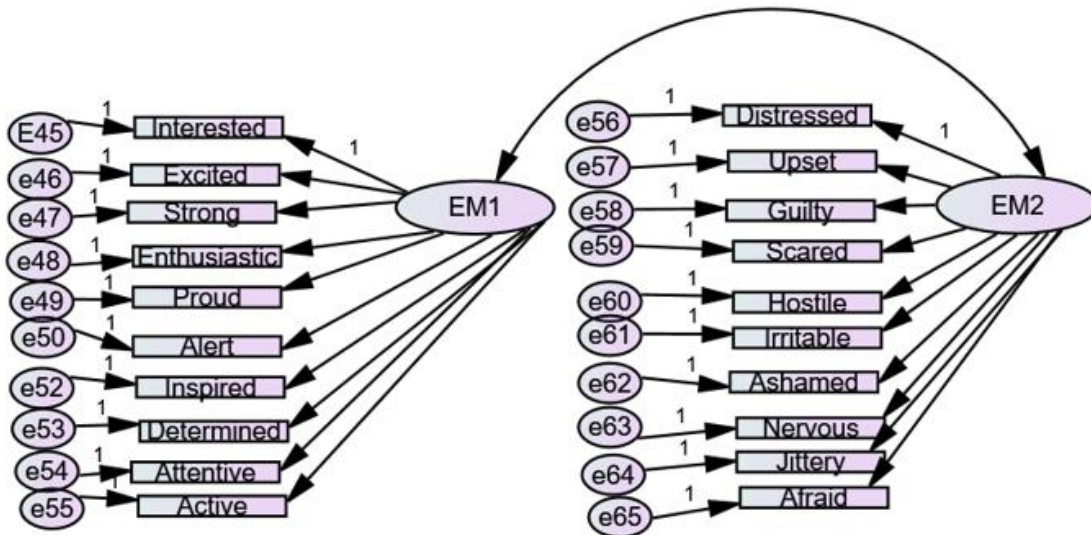
Since the positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS) scale that was used to measure the emotions that were triggered by the visa application process was a previously established instrument developed by Watson *et al.* (1988), a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to determine the data's goodness-of-fit to the model. A set of goodness-of-fit indices, as recommended by Hooper *et al.* (2008); Schreiber (2008); Schumacker and Lomax (2010), was used for both those who had previously applied for visas and those who had not.

Travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination

**Measurement model (CFA) of emotions triggered as a result of visa application process**

The measurement model (CFA) of the emotions triggered by the visa application process for the group that had previously applied for visas is provided in Figure 6.18. Table 6.39 shows the goodness-of-fit indices of the measurement model.

**Figure 6.18: Measurement model of emotions triggered as a result of visa application process for the group that had previously applied for a visa**



Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 6.39: Goodness-of-fit indices of the measurement model for the emotions triggered by the visa application process for the group that had previously applied for a visa**

Model	CMIN ( $x^2$ )	Df	P	CMIN/df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Measurement model	498.01	169	0.000	2.947	0.0739	0.913	0.902	0.913	0.081
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	<0.08	≥ 0.90	≥0.90	≥0.90	≤ 0.08

Source: Researcher's own construction

The model fit statistics in Table 6.39 showed an inadequately acceptable fit to the model data. In this sample, a RMSEA value of 0.081 indicated an unacceptable fit, as it was above the recommended threshold of 0.08. The CMIN/df value of 2.947 was lower than the conservative threshold of 3 that indicates an acceptable fit in accordance with Schumacker and Lomax (2010); Schumacker and Lomax (2004). The SRMR value of 0.0739 was lower than the recommended 0.08, and so indicated an adequate model fitting. All three indices – CFI (0.913), TLI (0.902), and IFI (0.913) – were all above the 0.90 threshold, indicating a good model fit. However, Lai and Green (2016:234) warned researchers against “automatically disregarding the model just because an index fails to meet the cut-off”. Thus, based on these indices, the data had a close but not acceptable fit to the model; and trying to improve the model might have unintentionally compromised the core portrayal of the original hypothesised model. It was therefore decided to conduct an EFA to determine the underlying dimensionality of the data.

### **EFA of the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process**

As indicated in Table 6.40, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.916, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. As can also be seen in Table 6.40, two factors with an eigenvalue greater than one were identified, using Kaiser’s criterion. The first factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 6.906, explaining 32.66% of the total variance. A second factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 5.115, explaining 23.28% of the total variance. Together the two factors accounted for 55.94% of the total variance, thus indicating that the construct of emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process was not unidimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of the new factors was calculated by using Cronbach’s alpha.



**Table 6.40: Emotions triggered as a result of visa application process factor analysis (N=301)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading		Cronbach's alpha
				1	2	
<b>Emotions triggered as a result of visa application process</b>		0.916	55.94%			
		<i>P&lt;0.001</i>				
	Q15.2: I expect the visa application process will make me feel distressed			0.513		0.938
	Q15.4: I expect the visa application process will make me feel upset			0.786		
	Q15.6: I expect the visa application process will make me feel guilty			0.845		
	Q15.7: I expect the visa application process will make me feel scared			0.834		
	Q15.8: I expect the visa application process will make me feel hostile			0.826		
	Q15.11: I expect the visa application process will make me feel irritable			0.773		
	Q15.13: I expect the visa application process will make me feel ashamed			0.852		
	Q15.15: I expect the visa application process will make me feel nervous			0.734		
	Q15.18: I expect the visa application process will make me feel jittery			0.772		
	Q15.20: I expect the visa application process will make me feel afraid			0.831		
	Q15.1: I expect the visa application process will make me feel interested				0.661	0.898
	Q15.3: I expect the visa application process will make me feel excited				0.698	
	Q15.5: I expect the visa application process will make me feel strong				0.725	
	Q15.9: I expect the visa application process will make me feel enthusiastic				0.539	
	Q15.10: I expect the visa application process will make me feel proud				0.769	
	Q15.12: I expect the visa application process will make me feel alert				0.531	
	Q15.14: I expect the visa application process will make me feel inspired				0.795	

Q15.16: I expect the visa application process will make me feel determined				0.751	
Q15.17: I expect the visa application process will make me feel attentive				0.668	
Q15.19: I expect the visa application process will make me feel active				0.806	

Source: Researcher's own construction

As the Cronbach's alpha coefficient values (0.938 and 0.898) were above the acknowledged threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016), the reliability was considered satisfactory.

The items that clustered on factor one (abbreviated as EM1 in this study) highlighted the negative emotions, while factor two (abbreviated as EM2 in this study) dealt with the positive emotions. The factors were differentiated by labelling EM1 as "negative emotions", while EM2 was labelled "positive emotions". Table 6.41 presents the items that fell under these two factors.

**Table 6.41: Emotions triggered as a result of visa application process: items for two factors**

<b>Negative emotions</b>	<b>Positive emotions</b>
Q15.2: I expect the visa application process will make me feel distressed	Q15.1: I expect the visa application process will make me feel interested
Q15.4: I expect the visa application process will make me feel upset	Q15.3: I expect the visa application process will make me feel excited
Q15.6: I expect the visa application process will make me feel guilty	Q15.5: I expect the visa application process will make me feel strong
Q15.7: I expect the visa application process will make me feel scared	Q15.9: I expect the visa application process will make me feel enthusiastic
Q15.8: I expect the visa application process will make me feel hostile	Q15.10: I expect the visa application process will make me feel proud
Q15.11: I expect the visa application process will make me feel irritable	Q15.12: I expect the visa application process will make me feel alert
Q15.13: I expect the visa application process will make me feel ashamed	Q15.14: I expect the visa application process will make me feel inspired
Q15.15: I expect the visa application process will make me feel nervous	Q15.16: I expect the visa application process will make me feel determined
Q15.18: I expect the visa application process will make me feel jittery	Q15.17: I expect the visa application process will make me feel attentive
Q15.20: I expect the visa application process will make me feel afraid	Q15.19: I expect the visa application process will make me feel active

Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 6.42 indicates the mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of the emotions triggered as a result of visa application process. The mean score for negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, was 3.9050 (SD = 0.79917), while the mean score for, positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, was 2.2146 (SD = 1.06683). These mean scores were computed on a five-point Likert scale with (1) representing very slightly or not at all, (2) representing a little, (3) representing moderately, (4) representing quite a bit, and (5) representing extremely. It can be seen in Table 6.42 that the mean score for the negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process was above the scale's midpoint of 3, while the mean score for the positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process was below the scale's midpoint of 3. These mean scores demonstrated that the average response for negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, fell between 'moderately' and 'quite a bit', while the average response for, positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, fell between 'a little' and 'moderately'. To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established. These findings showed that the skewness values of the negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process and the positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10. This indicated that a normal distribution could be assumed for the negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process and the positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

**Table 6.42: Descriptive statistics: Negative and positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process**

	<b>Negative emotions</b>	<b>Positive emotions</b>
N	301	301
Mean	3.9050	2.2146
Median	4.0000	1.9000
Std. deviation	0.79917	1.06683
Skewness	-0.613	0.825
Kurtosis	0.199	-0.307

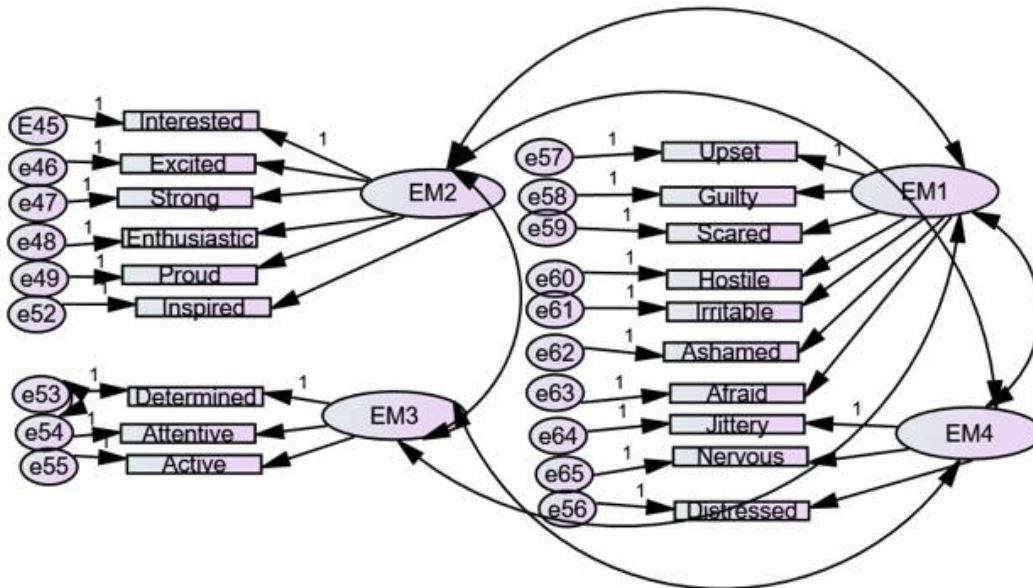
Source: Researcher's own construction

**Never travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination**

**Measurement model summarising the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process**

The measurement model of the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process for the group that had not previously applied for visas is given in Figure 6.19. Table 6.43 shows the goodness-of-fit indices of the measurement model.

**Figure 6.19: Measurement model of emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process for the group that had never applied for a visa**



Source: Researcher's own construction

The recommended fit indices, according to Hooper *et al.* (2008); Hu and Bentler (1999), were the comparative fit index (CFI)  $\geq 0.90$ , the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)  $\geq 0.90$ , the incremental fit index (IFI)  $\geq 0.90$ , the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)  $\leq 0.08$ , the standardised root mean square  $< 0.08$ , and the chi-square (CMIN)/ degrees of freedom (df)  $< 3$ . Table 6.43 shows the model's goodness-of-fit indices.

**Table 6.43: Goodness-of-fit indices of the measurement model for the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process**

Model	CMIN ( $\chi^2$ )	Df	P	CMIN/df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Measurement model	329.82	169	0.000	1.952	0.0786	0.877	0.862	0.879	0.082
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	< 0.08	$\geq 0.90$	$\geq 0.90$	$\geq 0.90$	$\leq 0.08$

Source: Researcher's own construction

The model fit statistics in Table 6.43 showed an inadequately acceptable fit to the model data. In this sample, an RMSEA value of 0.082 indicated an unacceptable fit, as it was above the recommended threshold of 0.08. The CMIN/df value of 1.952 was lower than the conservative threshold of 3, indicating an acceptable fit in accordance with Schumacker and Lomax (2010); Schumacker and Lomax (2004). The SRMR value of 0.0786 was lower than the recommended 0.08, therefore indicating an adequate model fitting. However, three indices – CFI (0.877), TLI (0.862), and IFI (0.879) – were below the 0.90 threshold for an adequate model fit. Thus, based on these indices, the data had a close but not acceptable fit to the model, and trying to improve the model might have unintentionally compromised the core portrayal of the original hypothesised model. It was therefore decided to conduct an EFA to determine the underlying dimensionality of the data.

### **EFA of the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process**

In Table 6.44, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.873, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. As can also be seen in Table 6.44, four factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 were identified using Kaiser's criterion. The first factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 6.568, explaining 30.78% of the total variance. A second factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 3.733, explaining 16.42% of the total variance. A third factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 1.190, explaining an additional 3.7% of the total variance. A fourth factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 1.037, explaining an additional 2.755% of the total variance. Together the four factors accounted for 53.66% of the total variance, indicating that the construct for emotions triggered as a result of visa application process was not unidimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of the new factors was calculated using

Cronbach's alpha. However, item 12 (Q15.12: I expect the visa application process will make me feel alert) did not load on factor 1, factor 2, factor 3, or factor 4' therefore, it was decided to omit item 12.

**Table 6.44: Emotions triggered as a result of visa application process factor analysis (N=143)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading				Cronbach's alpha
				1	2	3	4	
<b>Emotions triggered as a result of visa application process</b>		0.873	53.66%					
		<i>P&lt;0.001</i>						
	Q15.4: I expect the visa application process will make me feel upset			0.586				0.891
	Q15.6: I expect the visa application process will make me feel guilty			0.977				
	Q15.7: I expect the visa application process will make me feel scared			0.729				
	Q15.8: I expect the visa application process will make me feel hostile			0.643				
	Q15.11: I expect the visa application process will make me feel irritable			0.451				
	Q15.13: I expect the visa application process will make me feel ashamed			0.857				
	Q15.20: I expect the visa application process will make me feel afraid			0.639				
	Q15.1: I expect the visa application process will make me feel interested				0.876			0.860
	Q15.3: I expect the visa application process will make me feel excited				0.719			
	Q15.5: I expect the visa application process will make me feel strong				0.671			
	Q15.9: I expect the visa application process will make me feel enthusiastic				0.365			
	Q15.10: I expect the visa application process will make me feel proud				0.672			
	Q15.14: I expect the visa application process will make me feel inspired				0.799			
	Q15.16: I expect the visa application process will make me feel determined					0.636		0.769
	Q15.17: I expect the visa application process will make me feel attentive					0.707		

Q15.19: I expect the visa application process will make me feel active					0.421	
Q15.2: I expect the visa application process will make me feel distressed					0.442	0.670
Q15.15: I expect the visa application process will make me feel nervous					0.324	
Q15.18: I expect the visa application process will make me feel jittery					0.674	

Source: Researcher's own construction

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient values (0.891, 0.860, 0.769) for three of the factors were above the acknowledged threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient value of 0.670 for factor 4, which was above the acknowledged threshold of 0.60, implied that the convergent validity of the construct was still adequate (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

The items that clustered on factor one (abbreviated as EM1 in this study) highlighted the emotions of feeling upset; the second factor (abbreviated as EM2 in this study) dealt with the emotions of feeling excitement/enthusiasm; the third factor (abbreviated as EM3 in this study) denoted the emotions of feeling determined; and the fourth factor (abbreviated as EM4 in this study) represented the emotions of feeling distress. The factors were differentiated by labelling EM1 as "emotion of feeling upset"; EM2 was labelled "emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm"; EM3 was labelled "emotion of feeling determined"; and EM4 was labelled "emotion of feeling distress". Table 6.45 below shows the items that fell under these four factors. However, item 12 (Q15.12: I expect the visa application process will make me feel alert) did not load on factor 1, factor 2, factor 3, or factor 4; therefore, it was decided to omit item 12.

**Table 6.45: Items for four factors**

Emotion of feeling upset	Emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm	Emotion of feeling determined	Emotion of feeling distress
Q15.4: I expect the visa application process will make me feel upset	Q15.1: I expect the visa application process will make me feel interested	Q15.16: I expect the visa application process will make me feel determined	Q15.2: I expect the visa application process will make me feel distressed
Q15.6: I expect the visa application process will make me feel guilty	Q15.3: I expect the visa application process will make me feel excited	Q15.17: I expect the visa application process will make me feel attentive	Q15.18: I expect the visa application process will make me feel jittery

Q15.7: I expect the visa application process will make me feel scared	Q15.5: I expect the visa application process will make me feel strong	Q15.19: I expect the visa application process will make me feel active	
Q15.8: I expect the visa application process will make me feel hostile	Q15.9: I expect the visa application process will make me feel enthusiastic		
Q15.11: I expect the visa application process will make me feel irritable	Q15.10: I expect the visa application process will make me feel proud		
Q15.13: I expect the visa application process will make me feel ashamed	Q15.14: I expect the visa application process will make me feel inspired		
Q15.15: I expect the visa application process will make me feel nervous			
Q15.20: I expect the visa application process will make me feel afraid			

Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 6.46 indicates the mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process. The mean score for the emotion of feeling upset was 1.7273 (SD = 0.87060); the mean score for the emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm was 4.1585 (SD = 0.84807); the mean scores the emotion of feeling determined was 4.0862 (SD = 0.87005; and the mean score for the emotion of feeling distress was 2.3683 (SD = 0.97682). These factors were measured using a five-point Likert scale anchored at (1) representing very slightly or not at all, (2) representing a little, (3) representing moderately, (4) representing quite a bit, and (5) representing extremely.

It can be seen in Table 6.46 that the mean scores for the emotion of feeling upset and the emotion of feeling distress were below the scale's midpoint of 3, while the mean scores for emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm and the emotion of feeling determined were above the scale's midpoint of 3. On the one hand, the mean scores demonstrated that the average responses for the emotion of feeling upset fell between 'very slightly or not at all' and 'a little' and for the emotion of feeling distress fell between 'a little' and 'moderately'. On the other hand, the mean scores for the emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm and the emotion of feeling determined fell on 'quite a bit' and 'extremely'. To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established. The findings showed that



the skewness values for the emotion of feeling upset, the emotion of feeling excited/enthusiastic, the emotion of feeling determined and the emotion of feeling distress lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10.

**Table 6.46: Descriptive statistics: Upset, excitement/enthusiasm, determined and distressed emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process**

	Emotion of feeling upset	Emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm	Emotion of feeling determined	Emotion of feeling distress
	143	143	143	143
Mean	1.7273	4.1585	4.0862	2.3683
Median	1.4286	4.3333	4.3333	2.3333
Std. deviation	0.87060	0.84807	0.87005	0.97682
Skewness	1.508	-1.515	-0.811	0.420
Kurtosis	1.958	2.279	0.191	-0.462

Source: Researcher's own construction

#### 6.3.3.1.6 Intention to visit a destination of choice

#### **Travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination**

As indicated in Table 6.47, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.817, thus exceeding the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than one was identified using Kaiser's criterion. This factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 2.910 and explained 65.11% of the total variance, thus indicating that the intention to visit the destination of choice construct was one-dimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of the factor was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. The reliability was considered satisfactory, as the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value was 0.868, which was above the standard threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016).

**Table 6.47: Intention to visit destination of choice factor analysis (N=301)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
				1	
<b>Intention to visit destination of choice</b>		0.817	65.11%		
		<i>P&lt;0.001</i>			
	Q16.1: I plan to visit this destination in the near future.			0.858	0.868
	Q16.2: I am keen to visit this destination in the near future.			0.847	
	Q16.3: I intend to visit this destination in the near future.			0.901	
	Q16.4: I would prefer to visit this destination as opposed to other similar destinations			0.581	

Source: Researcher's own construction

The mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of intention to visit the destination of choice are shown in Table 6.48. For this variable, the respondents had an overall mean score of 6.0407 (SD = 0.98372). This mean score was computed on a seven-point Likert scale with (1) representing strongly disagree, (2) representing disagree, (3) representing somewhat disagree, (4) representing neutral, (5) representing somewhat agree, (6) representing agree, and (7) representing strongly agree. It can be seen in Table 6.48 that the intention to visit the destination of choice mean score was above the scale's midpoint of 4. This mean score demonstrated that the average response for this factor fell on 'agree'. To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established. The findings showed that the skewness values of intention to visit the destination of choice lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10. This indicated that a normal distribution could be assumed for intention to visit the destination of choice.

**Table 6.48: Descriptive statistics: Intention to visit the destination of choice**

	Intention to visit the destination of choice
N	301
Mean	6.0407
Median	6.2500
Std. deviation	0.98372
Skewness	-1.273
Kurtosis	2.164

Source: Researcher's own construction

## Never travelled internationally for holiday purposes where a visa was required for the destination

As indicated in Table 6.49, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.817, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Field, 2013); and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) for this construct (Bartlett, 1954), signifying that a factor analysis was appropriate. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than one was identified using Kaiser's criterion. This factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 2.871 and explained 63.9% of the total variance (Field, 2013), thus indicating that the construct of the intention to visit the destination of choice was one-dimensional. The internal consistency (reliability) of the factor was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. The reliability was considered satisfactory, as the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value was 0.856, which was above the standard threshold of 0.70 (DeVellis, 2016).

**Table 6.49: Intention to visit destination of choice factor analysis (N=143)**

Construct	Item description	KMO & Bartlett's test	% variance explained	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
				1	
<b>Intention to visit destination of choice</b>		0.715	63.90%		
		<i>P &lt; 0.001</i>			
	Q16.1: I plan to visit this destination in the near future.			0.856	0.856
	Q16.2: I am keen to visit this destination in the near future.			0.919	
	Q16.3: I intend to visit this destination in the near future.			0.806	
	Q16.4: I would prefer to visit this destination as opposed to other similar destinations			0.574	

Source: Researcher's own construction

The mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of intention to visit the destination of choice are shown in Table 6.50. For this variable, the respondents had an overall mean score of 6.1713 (SD = 0.92663). This mean score was computed on a seven-point Likert scale with (1) representing strongly disagree, (2) representing disagree, (3) representing somewhat disagree, (4) representing neutral, (5) representing somewhat agree, (6) representing agree, and (7) representing strongly agree. It can be seen in Table 6.50 that the intention to visit the destination of choice mean score was above the scale's midpoint of 4. This mean score demonstrated that the average response for this factor fell

between 'agree' and 'strongly agree'. To determine the extent to which the data was symmetrical, the distribution of values was established. The findings showed that the skewness values of intention to visit the destination of choice lay between -3 and +3, while kurtosis was between -10 and +10. The mean score for intention to visit the destination of choice for the group that had not applied for a visa before was slightly higher than for the group that had applied for visas before. Therefore, the tourists from the group that had not applied for a visa before showed a higher intention to visit the destination of choice.

**Table 6.50: Descriptive statistics: Intention to visit the destination of choice**

	Intention to visit the destination of choice
N	143
Mean	6.1713
Median	6.5000
Std. deviation	0.92663
Skewness	-1.230
Kurtosis	1.326

Source: Researcher's own construction

### 6.3.4 Correlation analysis of the constructs

Surbhi (2016) defined 'correlation' as "a statistical technique that represents the strength of the connection between pairs of variables". A correlation can be negative or positive. On the one hand, a positive correlation is considered to have occurred when the two variables move in the same direction, such that an increase in the values of one variable will result in a corresponding increase in the values of another variable, and a decrease in the values of one variable will result in a corresponding decrease in the values of another variable. On the other hand, a negative correlation is considered to have occurred when the two variables move in the opposite direction, such that an increase in the values of one variable will result in a corresponding decrease in the values of another variable. One of the commonly used measures of correlation in statistics is the Pearson correlation. The Pearson correlation coefficient measures the strength, size, and direction of a linear relationship between two variables (Peng, Han & Jia, 2022). In this study, the correlations that measured the size of the linear relationships were interpreted according to the guidelines of Lester (2007), as follows:

- Insubstantial or negligible: rho is less than 0.1 or rho is greater than -0.1 ( $r < 0.1$  or  $r > -0.1$ )
- Small/weak correlations: rho is between 0.1 and 0.3 or rho is between -0.3 and -0.1 ( $0.1 \leq r < 0.3$  or  $-0.1 \leq r < -0.3$ )
- Moderate correlations: rho is between 0.3 and 0.5 or rho is between -0.5 and -0.3 ( $0.3 \leq r < 0.5$  or  $-0.3 \leq r < -0.5$ )
- Strong correlations: rho is larger than 0.5 or rho is larger than -0.5 ( $r > 0.5$  or  $r > -0.5$ )

To provide clarity on the correlation analysis, the results for tourists who had applied for a visa before are provided in Table 6.51, while the results for tourists who had never applied for a visa before are provided in Table 6.52. It is evident from both Table 6.51 and Table 6.52 that the correlation coefficients between several factors were statistically significant at the 1% (0.01) level (2-tailed), while other factors were statistically significant at the 5% (0.05) level (2-tailed). Furthermore, the tables show that a Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted, and that the direction and strength of these correlations were also highlighted. It should be noted that only the Pearson's correlation of those variables that had a strong ( $r > 0.5$  or  $r > -0.5$ ) is given below for both those who had applied for a visa before and those who had never applied for a visa before. None of these correlations had a negative correlation; therefore, there were no significant negative relationships. However, the rest of the correlations had strong positive correlations. This indicated that a unit change in one variable would result in a positive unit change in the other variable.

#### Strong correlations between factors for tourists who had applied for a visa before

- Perceived behavioural control and attitude ( $r = 0.545, p < 0.05$ )
- Visit intention and attitude ( $r = 0.556, p < 0.05$ )
- Visit intention and perceived behavioural control ( $r = 0.640, p < 0.05$ )
- Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome; and expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness ( $r = 0.703, p < 0.05$ )

Strong correlations between factors for tourists who had never applied for a visa before

- Perceived behavioural control and attitude ( $r = 0.638, p < 0.05$ )
- Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment; and expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents ( $r = 0.707, p < 0.05$ )
- Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/ frontline officials; and expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents ( $r = 0.658, p < 0.05$ )
- Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/ frontline officials; and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment ( $r = 0.623, p < 0.05$ )
- Emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm and expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents ( $r = 0.573, p < 0.05$ )
- Emotion of feeling determined and emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm triggered as a result of the visa application process ( $r = 0.656, p < 0.05$ )
- Emotion of feeling distressed and upset emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process ( $r = 0.648, p < 0.05$ )

**Table 6.51: Correlation analysis of tourists who had applied for a visa**

		Attitude	Subjective norms	Perceived behavioural control	Visit intention	Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome	Negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process	Positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process
<b>Attitude</b>	Pearson correlation	1							
	Sig. (2-tailed)								
	N	301							
<b>Subjective norms</b>	Pearson correlation	0.361	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000**							
	N	301	301						
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>	Pearson correlation	0.545	0.350	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000**	0.000**						
	N	301	301	301					
<b>Visit intention</b>	Pearson correlation	0.556	0.376	0.640	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**					
	N	301	301	301	301				
<b>Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness</b>	Pearson correlation	0.282	0.120	0.369	0.433	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000**	0.038*	0.000**	0.000**				
	N	301	301	301	301	301			
<b>Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome</b>	Pearson correlation	0.149	0.065	0.283	0.325	0.703	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.010*	0.262	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**			
	N	301	301	301	301	301	301		

		Attitude	Subjective norms	Perceived behavioural control	Visit intention	Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome	Negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process	Positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process
<b>Negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process</b>	Pearson correlation	0.362	0.312	0.426	0.456	0.482	0.415	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**		
	N	301	301	301	301	301	301	301	
<b>Positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process</b>	Pearson correlation	-0.242	0.019	-0.261	-0.254	-0.443	-0.235	-0.097	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000**	0.745	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.093	
	N	301	301	301	301	301	301	301	301

Source: Researcher's own contribution

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)



**Table 6.52: Correlation analysis of tourists who had never applied for a visa**

		Attitude	Subjective norms	Perceived behavioural control	Visit intention	Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment	Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials	Emotions of feeling upset	Emotions of feeling excitement/enthusiasm	Emotions of feeling determined	Emotions of feeling distressed
<b>Attitude</b>	Pearson correlation	1										
	Sig. (2-tailed)											
	N	143										
<b>Subjective norms</b>	Pearson correlation	0.350	1									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000*										
	N	143	143									
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>	Pearson correlation	0.638	0.342	1								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000*	0.000**									
	N	143	143	143								
<b>Visit intention</b>	Pearson correlation	0.199	0.274	0.292	1							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.017*	0.001*	0.000**								
	N	143	143	143	143							
<b>Expectations about visa requirements</b>	Pearson correlation	0.078	0.198	0.171	0.258	1						

		Attitude	Subjective norms	Perceived behavioural control	Visit intention	Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment	Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/ frontline officials	Emotions of feeling upset	Emotions of feeling excitement/ enthusiasm	Emotions of feeling determined	Emotions of feeling distressed
related to time, process, and documents	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.356	0.018*	0.041*	0.002**							
	N	143	143	143	143	143						
Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment	Pearson correlation	0.048	0.194	0.174	0.356	0.707	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.573	0.020*	0.038*	0.000**	0.000**						
	N	143	143	143	143	143	143					
Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/ frontline officials	Pearson correlation	0.055	0.180	0.197	0.318	0.658	0.623	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.515	0.032*	0.018*	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**					
	N	143	143	143	143	143	143	143				
Emotions of feeling upset	Pearson correlation	-0.105	-0.119	-0.215	-0.209	-0.445	-0.282	-0.408	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.212	0.158	0.010*	0.012*	0.000**	0.001**	0.000**				
	N	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143			
Emotions of feeling excitement/enthusiasm	Pearson correlation	0.276	0.329	0.412	0.464	0.573	0.442	0.480	-0.315	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001*	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**			
	N	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143		
Emotions of feeling determined	Pearson correlation	0.283	0.243	0.382	0.406	0.348	0.271	0.257	-0.253	0.656	1	

		Attitude	Subjective norms	Perceived behavioural control	Visit intention	Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment	Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials	Emotions of feeling upset	Emotions of feeling excitement/enthusiasm	Emotions of feeling determined	Emotions of feeling distress
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001*	0.003**	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.001**	0.002**	0.002**	0.000**		
	N	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	
Emotions of feeling distress	Pearson correlation	0.064	-0.118	-0.036	-0.127	-0.376	-0.371	-0.311	0.648	-0.141	-0.064	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.448	0.160	0.667	0.130	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**	0.092	0.445	
	N	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143

Source: Researcher's own contribution

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

## 6.4 MEASUREMENT MODELS

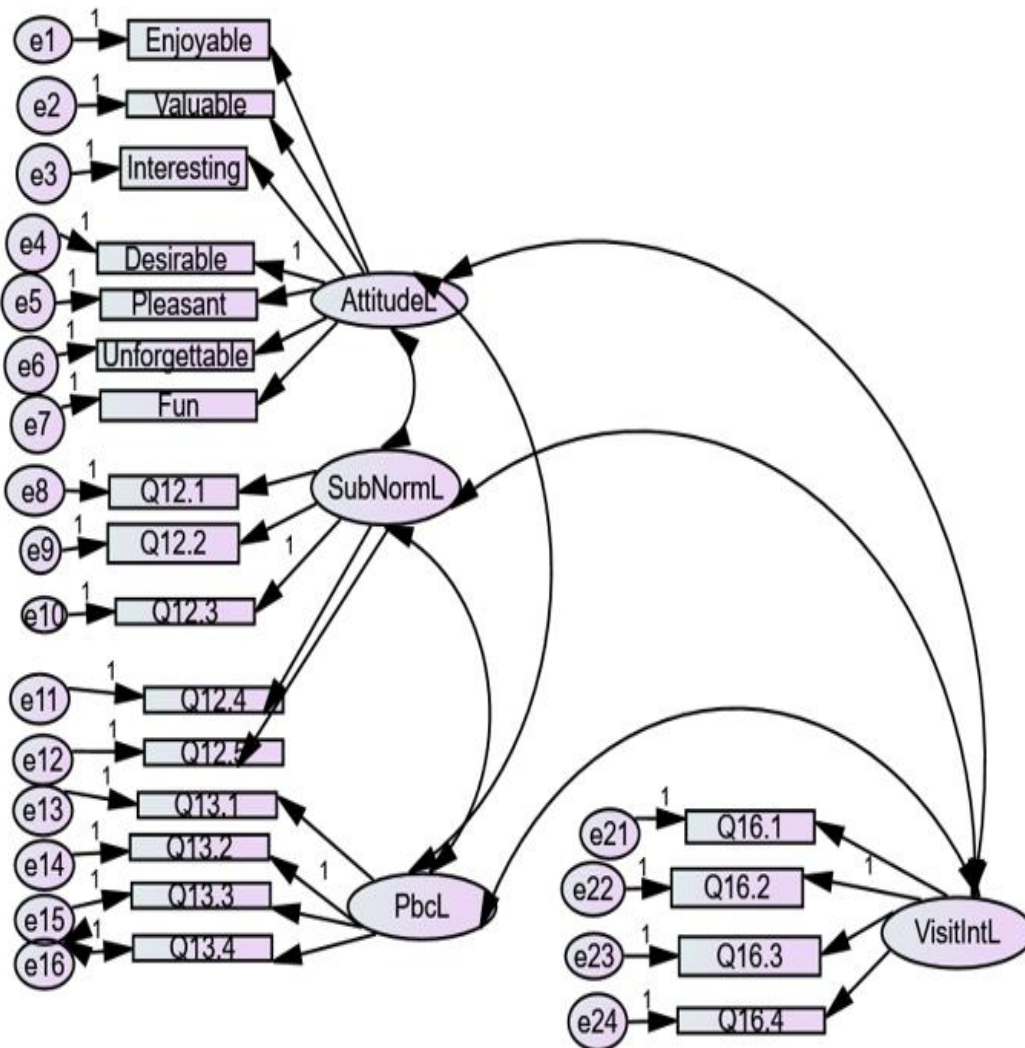
Structural equation modelling (SEM) consists of the measurement model and the structural model. The first conceptual model was composed of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, with paths to the intention to visit the destination of choice. The measurement model as it related to the first three hypotheses is presented first. The measurement model measures the latent variables or composite variables (Hoyle, 1995; Hoyle, 2011; Kline, 2010), while the structural model tests all of the hypothetical dependencies. To assess the fit of the measurement of attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and the intention to visit the destination of choice, a set of goodness-of-fit indices was used to examine whether the suggested model fitted the data that was used.

### 6.4.1 Measurement models for those who had previously applied for a visa

#### 6.4.1.1 Measurement model relating to the first three hypotheses

The measurement model for the first three hypotheses for the group that had previously applied for visas is provided in Figure 6.20. Table 6.53 shows the goodness-of-fit indices of the measurement model.

**Figure 6.20: Measurement model 1 with respect to the first three hypotheses for the group that had previously applied for a visa**



Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 6.53: Goodness-of-fit indices of measurement model 1 for the first three hypotheses for the group that had previously applied for a visa**

Model	CMIN ( $\chi^2$ )	Df	P	CMIN/df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Measurement model 1	488.100	165	0.000	2.958	0.050	0.920	0.908	0.920	0.081
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	< 0.08	≥ 0.90	≥0.90	≥ 0.90	≤ 0.08

Source: Researcher's own construction

The model fit statistics in Table 6.53 show an acceptable fit in terms of the CMIN/df value of 2.958 – less than conservative threshold of 3. The CFI (0.920), TLI (0.908), and IFI (0.920) were all higher than the recommended 0.90. The SRMR value of 0.050 was lower than the recommended 0.08, which was indicative of a good model fit; however, the RMSEA was 0.081. Given that the RMSEA was slightly above the recommended 0.08 in measurement model 1, there was a justification for determining whether the model fit could be improved.

An error covariance term was added to item Q13.3 and item Q13.4. Since Q13.3 states that “I have enough financial resources to travel to this destination” and Q13.4 states that “I am confident that if I want to, I can travel to this destination”, the addition of an error covariance term was justifiable. This was because the error covariance was large between the two items, over and above their relationship with perceived behavioural control. As such, it could be assumed that, if a person had sufficient financial resources, they would be confident about travelling to the specific destination if they wanted to.

As shown in Table 6.54, the improved measurement model 2 results showed a set of acceptable model fit statistics that were slightly stronger than those in model 1. The CMIN/df value of 2.826 was less than the conservative threshold of 3, while the CFI (0.926), TLI (0.914), and IFI (0.926) were above the recommended 0.90 threshold. The SRMR value was 0.0493, which was less than the recommended 0.08, and so was indicative of a good model fit. Finally, the RMSEA was 0.078, thus meeting the recommended acceptable threshold (lower than or equal to 0.08).

**Table 6.54: Goodness-of-fit indices of measurement models 1 and 2 for the first three hypotheses for the group that had previously applied for a visa**

Model	CMIN ( $x^2$ )	Df	P	CMIN/df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Measurement model 1	488.100	165	0.000	2.958	0.050	0.920	0.908	0.920	0.081
Measurement model 2	463.407	164	0.000	2.826	0.0493	0.926	0.914	0.926	0.078
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	< 0.08	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≤ 0.08

Source: Researcher's own construction

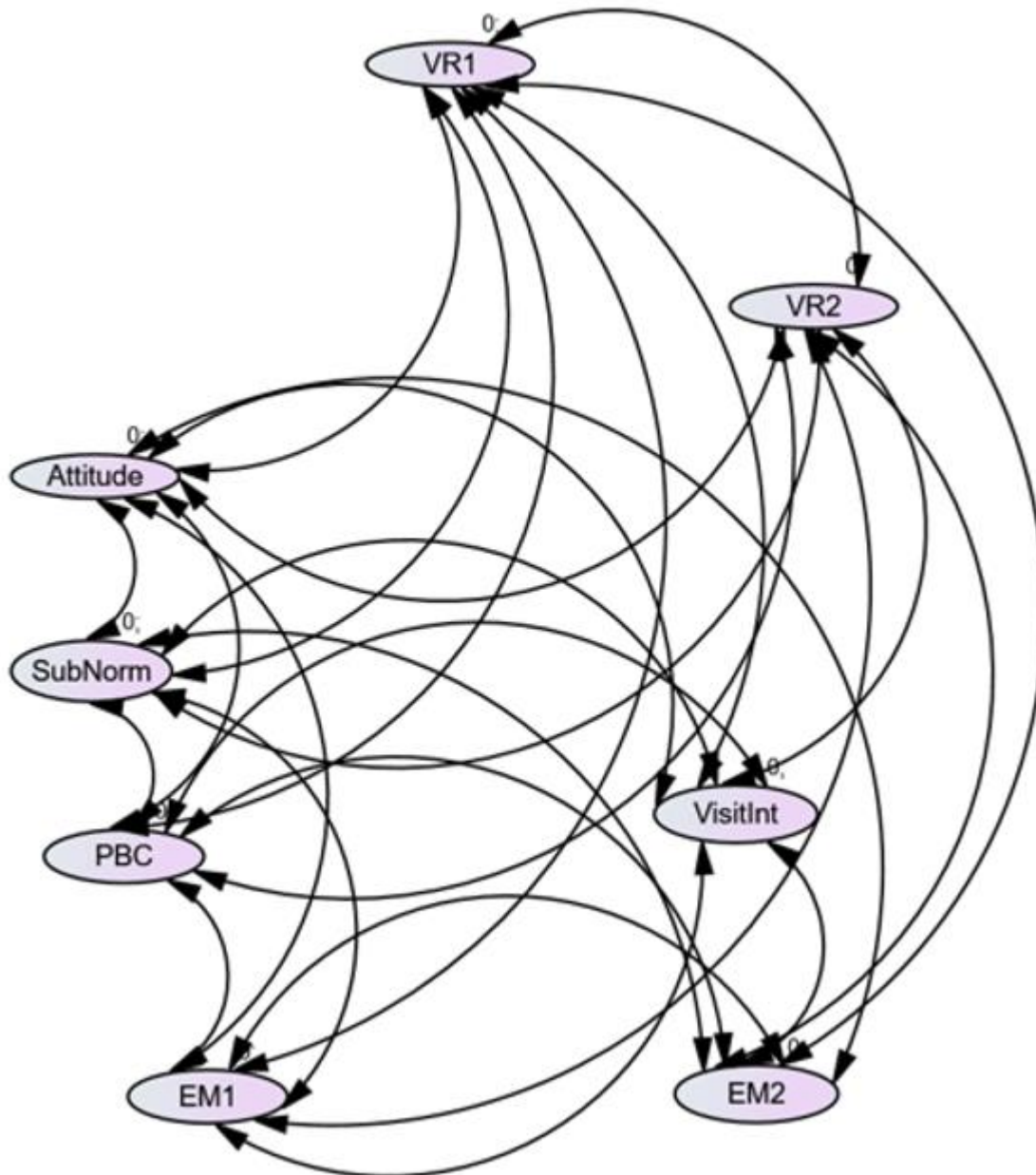
Overall, the fit indices suggested that measurement model 2 adequately fitted the data.

A similar process was followed in this section, on the measurement model that included expectations about visa requirements and emotions (the PANAS scale) and that was required for hypothesis 8 and for hypothesis 7 and hypothesis 9 respectively. However, owing to limitations of space, only the findings and conclusions summary of the remaining measurement and structural models are presented.

#### **6.4.1.2 Measurement model involving all constructs**

The measurement model for hypotheses seven, eight, and nine, in addition to the first three hypotheses, are conceptually shown in Figure 6.21 for the group that had previously applied for visas. In the exploratory factor analysis (section 6.3.3.1), two factors were identified for the expectations about the visa requirements. Therefore, hypothesis 7 (H<sub>7</sub>) and hypothesis 8 (H<sub>8</sub>) were split into two sub-hypotheses to accommodate the split of expectations about the visa requirements into two factors: H<sub>7a</sub>, H<sub>7b</sub> and H<sub>8a</sub>, H<sub>8b</sub>. Similarly, hypothesis nine (H<sub>9</sub>) was split into two sub-hypotheses to accommodate the split of triggered emotions into two factors. These two sub-hypotheses resulted in H<sub>9a</sub> and H<sub>9b</sub>.

**Figure 6.21: Full measurement model with respect to all the hypotheses for the group that had previously applied for a visa**



Source: Researcher's own construction

The fit statistics for the full measurement model are shown in Table 6.55. The CMIN/df value of 1.868 was lower than the conservative threshold of 3. The CFI (0.887), TLI (0.880), and IFI (0.887) were slightly lower than the recommended 0.90. The SRMR value of 0.0619 was lower than the recommended 0.08, thus indicating an adequate model fit. Concerning the loadings of each item in the constructs, all were above 0.5, and no additional modifications



were deemed permissible. However, Hu and Bentler (1999); Wisting, Wonderlich, Skrivarhaug, Dahl-Jørgensen and Rø (2019) stated that an index value above 0.8 for parsimony indices could be permissible. In the same vein, Wisting *et al.* (2019) suggested the following range of fit indices: a CFI above 0.95 implies a good fit, while above 0.90 implies a traditional fit and is sometimes permissible above 0.80. According to Lai and Green (2016), inconsistent fit indices have been found to be common in applications of SEM, and are not diagnostic of problems in the model's specification or data. Conclusively, the RMSEA was 0.054, which adhered to the recommended acceptable cut-off criterion of less than or equal to 0.08. Therefore, the full measurement model results showed an acceptable model fit.

**Table 6.55: Goodness-of-fit indices of the full measurement model for the group that had previously applied for a visa**

Model	CMIN ( $\chi^2$ )	df	P	CMIN/df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Full measurement model	3016.96	1615	0.000	1.868	0.0619	0.887	0.880	0.887	0.054
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	< 0.08	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≤ 0.08

Source: Researcher's own construction

### **Additional convergent validity and discriminant validity test**

Cronbach's alpha was provided for each construct in the preceding EFA. However, owing to criticism of Cronbach's alpha, additional reliability and validity measurements were provided. The following are some of the criticisms of Cronbach's alpha: when tau equivalence is violated, Cronbach's alpha can underestimate the true reliability by as much as 20%; psychological scales might contain discrete items, which would violate the Cronbach's alpha assumption of a continuous scale and normal distribution; Cronbach's alpha incorrectly ignores correlated errors, thus overestimating the reliability; and the violation of unidimensionality biases the Cronbach's alpha estimates (Green & Yang, 2009; Sijtsma, 2009). In addition to the reliability and validity measurements, the discriminant validity between constructs was assessed.

Table 6.56 indicates the values of composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and maximum shared variance (MSV) for each construct. The results show that only

perceived behavioural control (0.485) had an AVE value lower than the acceptable threshold of 0.5. Even though the AVE value was below 0.50, all of the CR values of the latent factors were above 0.7 for this measurement model, which suggested that all of the considered constructs were reliable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and demonstrated convergent validity. In support of Fornell and Larcker (1981), Malhotra and Dash (2011) argued that CR alone is adequate to prove reliability, as AVE is frequently too strict. Therefore, it was decided not to delete items from the perceived behavioural control construct.

**Table 6.56: Convergent and discriminant validity analysis for the group that had previously applied for a visa**

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	Sub Norm	Attitude	Visit Int	Pbc	VR2	VR1	EM1	EM2
Sub Norm	0,878	0,593	0,206	0,892	<b>0,770</b>							
Attitude	0,935	0,675	0,425	0,940	0,442***	<b>0,822</b>						
Visit Int	0,880	0,653	0,601	0,907	0,432***	0,601***	<b>0,808</b>					
Pbc	0,788	0,486	0,601	0,807	0,453***	0,652***	0,776***	<b>0,697</b>				
VR2	0,854	0,457	0,619	0,857	0,102	0,171*	0,368***	0,319***	<b>0,676</b>			
VR1	0,941	0,574	0,619	0,949	0,192**	0,300***	0,479***	0,420***	0,787***	<b>0,758</b>		
EM1	0,902	0,484	0,300	0,914	0,377***	0,383***	0,481***	0,485***	0,489***	0,547***	<b>0,696</b>	
EM2	0,938	0,606	0,226	0,945	-0,053	-0,251***	-0,320***	-0,317***	-0,270***	-0,475***	-0,131*	<b>0,779</b>

\*\*\*Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001)  
 \*\*Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)  
 \*Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)  
 Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)

Source: Researcher's own construction

## Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is the degree to which constructs are clearly distinct from other constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Kline, 2011; Malhotra, 2009; Zikmund *et al.*, 2013). To assess discriminant validity, the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) approach was used. According to Hair *et al.* (2014), the recommended strict HTMT threshold is lower than 0.85, while the liberal thresholds are lower than 0.9. In other words, any values above 0.9 imply that there is a discriminant validity deficiency. Table 6.57 indicates that all of the values of the constructs were below the strict threshold of 0.85. This suggested evidence of the discriminant validity of the constructs.

**Table 6.57: HTMT analysis for the group that had previously applied for a visa**

	Sub Norm	Attitude	Visit Int	PbcL	VR2	VR1	EM1	EM2
Sub Norm								
Attitude	0,414							
Visit Int	0,439	0,617						
Pbc	0,434	0,642	0,781					
VR2	0,080	0,169	0,379	0,339				
VR1	0,145	0,300	0,480	0,428	0,782			
EM1	0,359	0,396	0,519	0,509	0,473	0,527		
EM2	0,008	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	

Less than 0.85 = strict discriminant validity  
 More than 0.85 and less than 0.90 = liberal discriminant validity  
 More than 0.90 = deficient discriminant validity

Source: Researcher's own construction

## 6.4.2 Measurement models for those who had never previously applied for a visa

### 6.4.2.1 Measurement model relating to the first three hypotheses

The measurement model for the first three hypotheses for the group that had not previously applied for visas is provided in Figure 6.22. Table 6.58 shows the goodness-of-fit indices of the measurement model.

**Figure 6.22: Measurement model with respect to the first three hypotheses for the group that had never previously applied for a visa**



Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 6.58: Goodness-of-fit indices of the measurement model for the first three hypotheses for the group that had never previously applied for a visa**

Model	CMIN ( $\chi^2$ )	df	P	CMIN/df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Measurement model	273.259	165	0.000	1.656	0.063	0.952	0.945	0.952	0.068
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	<0.08	≥0.90	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≤ 0.08

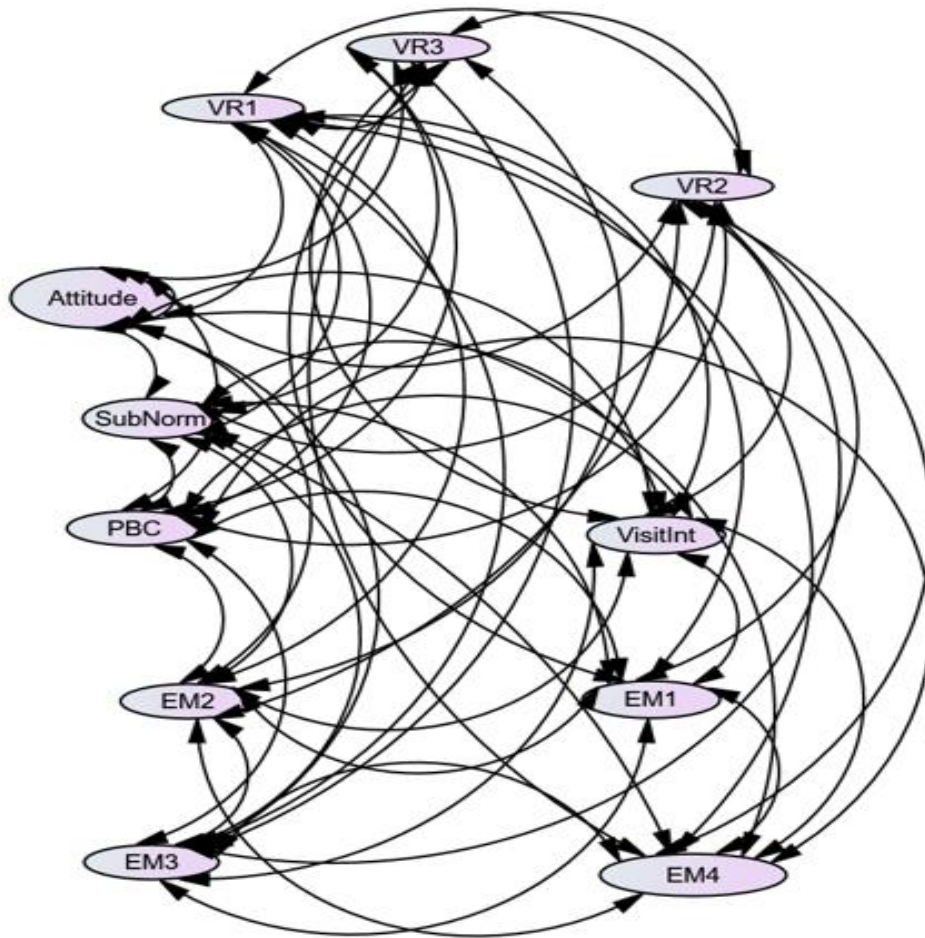
Source: Researcher's own construction

The model fit statistics in Table 6.58 show an acceptable fit, as the CMIN/df value of 1.656 was less than the conservative threshold of 3. CFI (0.952), TLI (0.908), and IFI (0.952) were all higher than the recommended 0.90. The SRMR value was 0.063, which was lower than the recommended 0.08, indicative of a model fit. The RMSEA value was 0.068, which adhered to the recommended acceptable cut off criterion of less than or equal to 0.08. As a result, there was no need to re-specify or modify the measurement model. Overall, the fit indices suggested that the measurement model fitted the data adequately.

#### **6.4.2.2 Measurement model involving all constructs**

The measurement model of the conceptual model encapsulating hypotheses seven, eight, and nine, in addition to the first three hypotheses, is shown conceptually in Figure 6.23 for the group that had not previously applied for visas. In the exploratory factor analysis (section 6.3.3.1), three factors were identified for expectations about visa requirements. Therefore, hypothesis 7 (H<sub>7</sub>) and hypothesis 8 (H<sub>8</sub>) were split into three sub-hypotheses to accommodate the split of visa requirements into three factors. These three sub-hypotheses resulted in additions to hypothesis 7 – H<sub>7a</sub>, H<sub>7b</sub>, and H<sub>7c</sub> – and hypothesis 8 – H<sub>8a</sub>, H<sub>8b</sub>, and H<sub>8c</sub> – respectively. Similarly, hypothesis nine (H<sub>9</sub>) was split into four sub-hypotheses to accommodate the split of triggered emotions, where four factors were identified. These four sub-hypotheses resulted in additions to hypothesis nine: H<sub>9a</sub>, H<sub>9b</sub>, H<sub>9c</sub>, and H<sub>9d</sub>.

**Figure 6.23: Full measurement model with respect to all the hypotheses for the group that had never previously applied for a visa**



Source: Researcher's own construction

The fit statistics for the full measurement model are shown in Table 6.59. The CMIN/df value of 1.642 was lower than the conservative threshold of 3. The SRMR value of 0.0743 was lower than the recommended threshold of 0.08, thus indicating an adequate model fitting. The CFI (0.840), TLI (0.828), and IFI (0.843) were slightly lower than the recommended threshold of 0.90. Studying the loadings of each item on the constructs, all were above 0.5, and no modifications were deemed necessary. However, as argued in section 6.4.1.2, the CFI, TLI, AND IFI values of above 0.8 were permissible. Finally, the RMSEA was 0.067, which adhered to the recommended acceptable cut-off criterion. The full measurement model results thus showed an acceptable model fit.

**Table 6.59: Goodness-of-fit indices of the full measurement model for the group that had never previously applied for a visa**

Model	CMIN ( $\chi^2$ )	df	P	CMIN/ df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Full measurement model	2432.12	1481	0.000	1.642	0.0743	0.840	0.828	0.843	0.067
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	< 0.08	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≤ 0.08

Source: Researcher's own construction

### **Additional convergent validity and discriminant validity test**

Cronbach's alpha was provided for each construct in the preceding EFA. As stated in section 6.3.3.1, the resulting reliability and validity measurements were provided. In addition, the discriminant validity between constructs was assessed.

Table 6.60 indicates the values of composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and maximum shared variance (MSV) for each construct. The results showed that the AVE values for most of the constructs were above 0.5, apart from the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment (0.411), the emotion of feeling determined (0.491), and the emotion of feeling distress (0.413). As all the CR values of the latent factors were above 0.7, which suggested that all of the considered constructs were reliable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and demonstrated convergent validity, no items were deleted to increase the AVE values.

**Table 6.60: Convergent and discriminant validity analysis for the group that had never previously applied for a visa**

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	Sub Norm	Attitude	Visit Int	Pbc	VR2	VR3	EM2	EM1	VR1	EM3	EM4
Sub Norm	0,907	0,666	0,151	0,931	<b>0,816</b>										
Attitude	0,948	0,722	0,542	0,958	0,389***	<b>0,850</b>									
Visit Int	0,902	0,757	0,308	0,954	0,330***	0,303***	<b>0,870</b>								
Pbc	0,863	0,619	0,542	0,893	0,349***	0,736***	0,463***	<b>0,787</b>							
VR2	0,829	0,411	0,636	0,834	0,211*	0,034	0,260**	0,133	<b>0,641</b>						
VR3	0,856	0,601	0,582	0,880	0,226*	0,112	0,385***	0,241*	0,654***	<b>0,775</b>					
EM2	0,867	0,525	0,659	0,881	0,372***	0,299**	0,555***	0,421***	0,509***	0,627***	<b>0,725</b>				
EM1	0,894	0,550	0,719	0,902	-0,145	-0,131	-0,240*	-0,267**	-0,303**	-0,515***	-0,364***	<b>0,741</b>			
VR1	0,929	0,620	0,636	0,936	0,221*	0,070	0,196*	0,127	0,798***	0,763***	0,645***	-0,487***	<b>0,788</b>		
EM3	0,743	0,491	0,659	0,747	0,329**	0,330**	0,501***	0,525***	0,383**	0,387**	0,812***	-0,312**	0,435***	<b>0,701</b>	
EM4	0,669	0,413	0,719	0,720	-0,208†	0,033	-0,154	-0,055	-0,540***	-0,425***	-0,270*	0,848***	-0,541***	-0,177	<b>0,642</b>

\*\*\*Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001)

\*\*Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)

\*Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)

Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)

Source: Researcher's own construction

## Discriminant validity

The HTMT approach was considered when assessing the model's discriminant validity. Table 6.61 indicates that all of the values of the constructs of the measurement model were below the strict threshold of 0.85. This suggested evidence of the discriminant validity of the constructs.



**Table 6.61: HTMT analysis for the group that had never previously applied for a visa**

	Sub Norm	Attitude	Visit Int	Pbc	VR2	VR3	EM2	EM1	VR1	EM3	EM4
Sub Norm											
Attitude	0,388										
Visit Int	0,337	0,264									
Pbc	0,383	0,722	0,402								
VR2	0,224	0,055	0,353	0,193							
VR3	0,256	0,123	0,457	0,284	0,692						
EM2	0,376	0,306	0,591	0,471	0,512	0,647					
EM1	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000				
VR1	0,217	0,079	0,272	0,176	0,792	0,787	0,636	0,000			
EM3	0,297	0,333	0,496	0,481	0,333	0,365	0,801	0,000	0,414		
EM4	0,000	0,079	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,843	0,000	0,000	

Less than 0.85 = strict discriminant validity  
 More than 0.85 and less than 0.90 = liberal discriminant validity  
 More than 0.90 = deficient discriminant validity

Source: Researcher's own construction

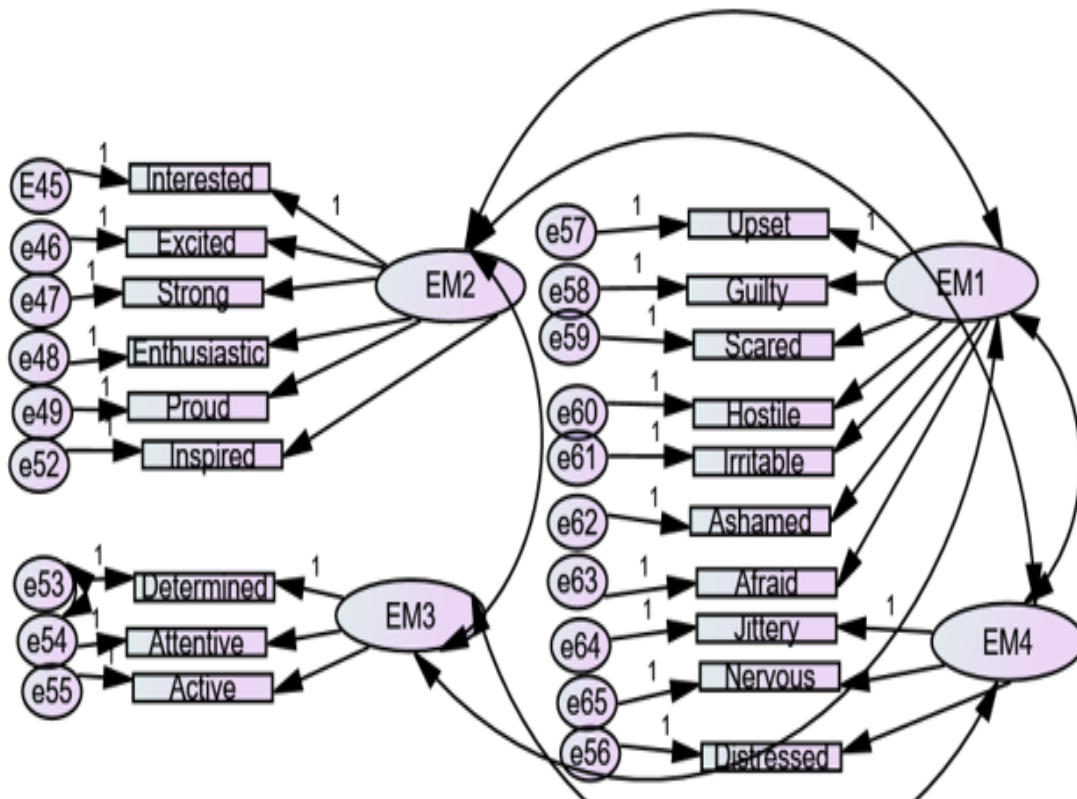
Based on the results of the measurement model, a second-order factor model was investigated to determine whether the emotions triggered (the PANAS scale) could be presented as a second-order factor model, which would enable the direct testing of hypothesis 7 and hypothesis 9, as the emotion triggered would be used as a higher-level construct.

### 6.4.3 Second-order model

Second-order models were considered for the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process (shown in Figure 6.24 and Figure 6.25) to determine whether the structural models could be simplified and the originally stipulated hypotheses could be used. According to Hong and Thong (2013), the advantage of using a higher-order model is its flexibility, meaning that it can include additional lower-level factors when needed. In line with this view, another advantage of using a higher-order model, according to Hair et al. (2019), is that, when it comes to indices with parsimony (low degrees of freedom), it performs better.

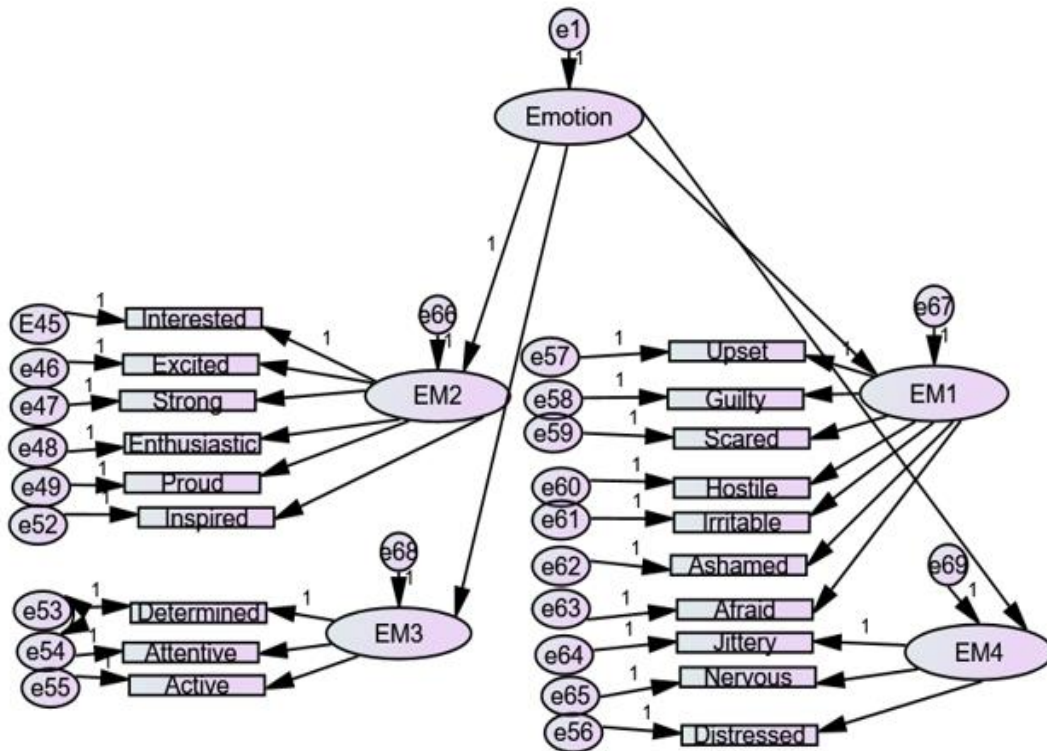
The target coefficient (T) is “the ratio of [the] chi-square value from the first-order model to that of a second-order model” (Hong & Thong, 2013:287). The target coefficient oscillates between 0 and 1; thus values of 0.90 and above indicate that a large portion of the correlations among lower-order factors is accounted for by higher-order factors (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985; Marsh & Hocevar, 1988). Thus, a second order model can be used if the target coefficient is 0.9 or more.

**Figure 6.24: First-order model with respect to emotions triggered as a result of visa application process factor for the group that had never previously applied for a visa**



Source: Researcher’s own construction

**Figure 6.25: Second-order model with respect to emotions triggered as a result of visa application process factor for the group that had never previously applied for a visa**



Source: Researcher's own construction

Figure 6.25 represents a second-order model with four lower-order constructs – namely, the emotion of feeling upset, the emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm, the emotion of feeling determined, and the emotion of feeling distress. Table 6.62 shows the second-order measurement model.

**Table 6.62: Second-order measurement model for hypotheses seven and nine for the group that had never previously applied for a visa**

Model	CMIN ( $\chi^2$ )
Model (second-order)	352.4
Model (first-order)	272.6

Source: Researcher's own construction

The values in Table 6.62 indicate that the target coefficient of the second-order model was found to be 0.774 after dividing the first-order by the second-order – that is, 272.6/352.4 – and thus not above 0.9. This result suggested that the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process factor could not be used as a higher-order construct. Therefore, the second-order construct of the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application construct could not be used; instead, the first-order model's results for the final structural model were used.

## 6.5 CONCLUSION

The focal point of this chapter was to present the detailed research findings and the results obtained from the empirical study, based on the research objectives and postulated hypotheses. As mentioned before, the first purpose of the focus groups was to ensure that the list of expectations about visa requirements identified in the literature review, which would be tested in the quantitative questionnaire, was exhaustive. During the focus groups, certain expected visa requirements emerged from the responses and were summarised in Table 6.10. Next to the expectations about visa requirements identified during the focus groups, the items generated from the literature and included in the questionnaire were given. Two additional visa requirements were identified during the focus groups – namely, a manual application process instead of online, and applying for a longer validity visa, only to be issued with a shorter validity visa. These two items were added to the items listed in Table 2.5 in section 2.7.3 of the literature review, and were included in the scale to be tested in the questionnaire. The second purpose of the focus groups was to verify the applicability of the PANAS emotional scale, developed by Watson *et al.* (1988), in the context of visa applications. During the focus groups, certain emotions emerged from the responses, and were summarised in Table 6.18. It was clear that no additional emotions were identified during the focus groups and that the PANAS emotional scale was indeed appropriate to be used.

The chapter then discussed the results from the quantitative questionnaire. The results were based on the responses from 444 respondents spread across South Africa. The results were presented in three stages, starting with the descriptive statistics, followed by validity and reliability (exploratory factor analysis) and the results of the measurement models. Of the

444 respondents, 301 confirmed that they had travelled internationally before for holiday purposes and had required a visa for the destination, while 143 respondents confirmed that they had never travelled internationally before for holiday purposes to a destination where they required a visa.

The chapter then discussed the descriptive statistics with respect to the study's constructs – namely, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, expectations about visa requirements, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and intention to visit a destination of choice. This was followed by a discussion of the constructs' validity and reliability. In this section, the focus was on exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Before performing the EFA, there was a need to establish whether there was a difference between the group that had never applied for a visa before and the group that had applied for a visa before. Independent sample t-tests were performed to test whether the differences between the two groups were statistically significant. Since some items' statistical significance was below 0.05 ( $p < 0.05$ ) for perceived behavioural control, expectations about visa requirements, and emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, it was decided to model these two groups (those who had applied for a visa before to travel and those who had never applied for a visa before to travel) separately for all the constructs. EFAs were performed on the following constructs: attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, expectations about visa requirements, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and intention to visit destination of choice.

The chapter concluded with the measurement models for the first three hypotheses and for all of the constructs for the group that had applied for a visa before. This process was repeated for the group that had never applied for a visa before.

The next chapter discusses the structural models.

## CHAPTER 7: STRUCTURAL MODELS

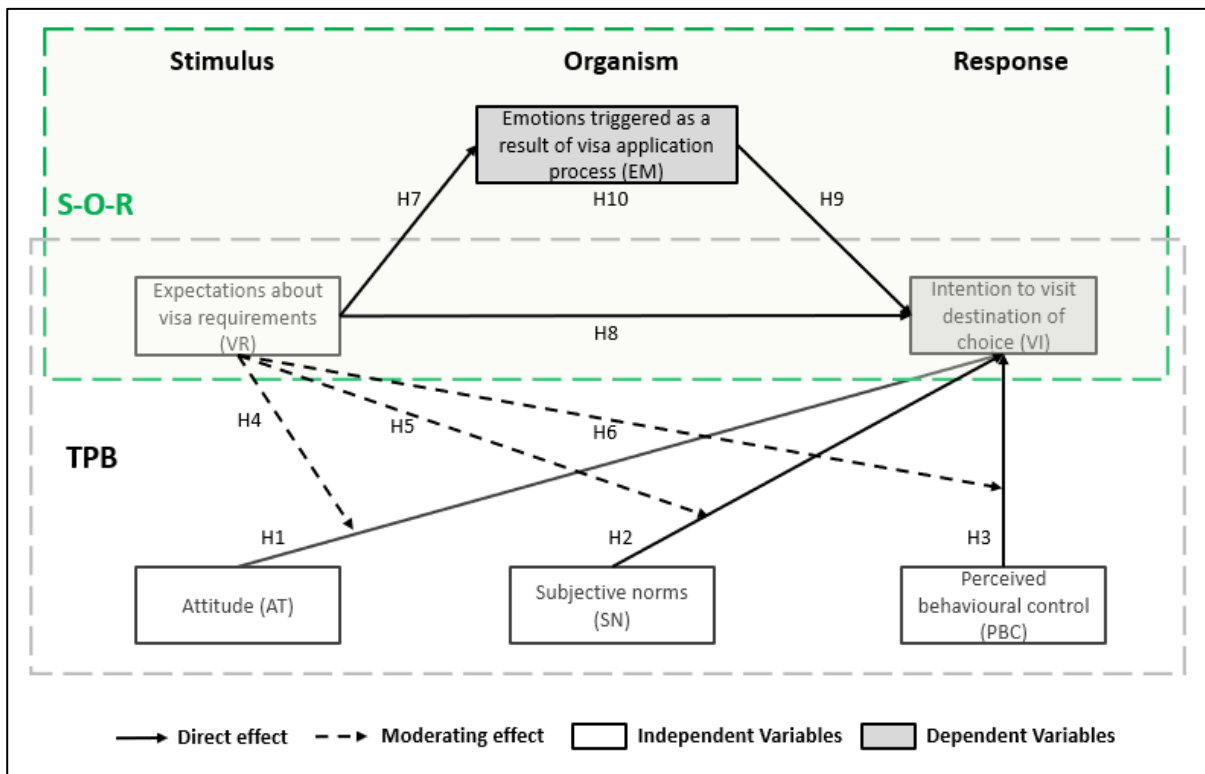
### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the findings from the focus groups as well as the descriptive statistics from the self-administered online questionnaire. It also presented the measurement models that measured the latent variables (Hoyle, 1995; Hoyle, 2011; Kline, 2010). This chapter builds on the previous chapter by presenting the structural models with the purpose of testing all the hypothetical dependencies. In other words, Chapter 6 discussed the measurement models that focused on the relationships between the measured and latent constructs, while this chapter looks at the magnitude and nature of the relationships between the constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2019).

### 7.2 PROPOSED MODEL

Several hypotheses were developed in this research study to depict the influence of visa requirements on a tourist's intention to visit a destination. The proposed model was structured according to these hypotheses, since they served as the foundation. All hypotheses were tested at a 5% significance level. Figure 7.1 illustrates the original conceptual model and its hypotheses developed from the literature.

**Figure 7.1: Proposed conceptual model with hypothesised relationships**



Source: Researcher's own construction

## 7.3 STRUCTURAL MODELS AND RESULTS FOR THE GROUP THAT HAD APPLIED FOR A VISA BEFORE

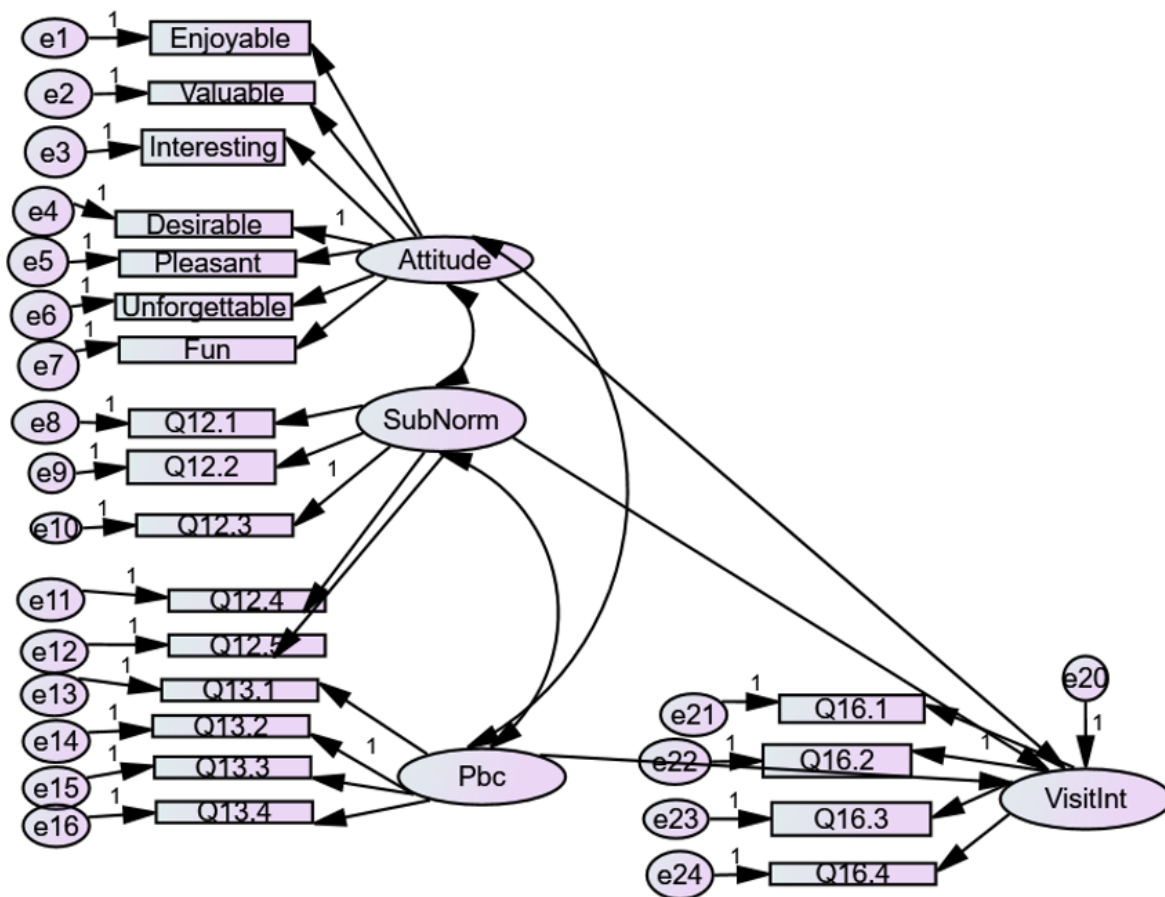
According to Hair *et al.* (2014), a structural model entails structural paths or relationships between latent variables. These structural paths or relationships represent all of the hypotheses proposed in the research methodology. In other words, the structural model tests all the hypothetical dependencies.

### 7.3.1 Structural model summarising the first three hypotheses

The structural model for the first three hypotheses for the group that had applied for visas before is provided in Figure 7.2 depicts not only the structural paths between the constructs, but also the covariance relationships between the exogenous latent variables. Attitude is represented by seven items (Q11.1-Q11.7), subjective norms by five items (Q12.1-Q12.5), perceived behavioural control by four items (Q13.1-Q13.4), and intention to visit the destination of choice by four items (Q16.1-Q16.4). To test whether the data fitted the

proposed model, goodness-of-fit indices were employed (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000). The structural model 1 and modified structural model 2 goodness-of-fit indices are provided in Table 7.1.

**Figure 7.2: Structural model as postulated with respect to the first three hypotheses for the group that had applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 7.1: Goodness-of-fit indices of structural model 1 and model 2 for the first three hypotheses for the group that had applied for a visa before**

Model	CMIN ( $\chi^2$ )	Df	P	CMIN/df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Structural Model 1	488.1	165	0.000	2.958	0.054	0.920	0.908	0.920	0.081
Structural Model 2	463.407	164	0.000	2.826	0.0493	0.926	0.914	0.926	0.078
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	< 0.08	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≤ 0.08

Source: Researcher's own construction



According to the set of indices in Table 7.1, CFI (0.920), TLI (0.920), and IFI (0.920) were good, as they were above 0.90; however, RMSEA was just slightly above 0.80 and CMIN/df (2.958) was below the conservative threshold of 3 (Hooper *et al.*, 2008; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Given that RMSEA was slightly above the recommended 0.08 in structural model 1, it was justified to explore whether structural model 1 could be improved.

To improve the model, the following were considered: (a) adding error covariances that could be theoretically justified; (b) removing paths that were not statistically significant; and (c) removing items with loadings lower than 0.5. Item Q16.4 was removed, as its loading was below 0.5 (Hair *et al.*, 2014).

When structural model 2 was fitted to the data, it showed adequate fit. The RMSEA value of 0.078 was below 0.08, which did indicate an acceptable fit. The three indices CFI (0.926), TLI (0.914), and IFI (0.926) were above the 0.90 threshold, which indicated an acceptable fit. The CMIN/df value of 2.826 was less than the conservative threshold of 3, which indicated an acceptable fit; and SRMR (0.0493) was below the threshold of 0.08 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). As the model fitted the data, structural model 2 was an improvement over structural model 1 in representing the relationships within the first three hypotheses. As a result, the relationships shown in structural model 2 (Figure 7.2) were interpreted.

According to Byrne (2010), three conditions must be met when assessing parameter estimates: feasibility, statistical significance, and suitability of the standard errors. Table 7.2 provides each of the paths, the standardised regression weights, and the associated statistical significance. In simple terms, standardised regression weights signify relative importance. In particular, Table 7.2 presents the standardised regression weights for structural model 2; the results showed a weak positive relationship between attitude and intention to visit the destination of choice, statistically significant at the 5% level of significance ( $\beta = 0.144, p < 0.05$ ). Similarly, a weak positive relationship existed between subjective norms and intention to visit the destination of choice, not statistically significant at the 5% level of significance ( $\beta = 0.053, p > 0.05$ ). The relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice was positive, strong, and highly significant ( $\beta = 0.657, p < 0.001$ ). In simpler terms, Table 7.2 indicates that perceived

behavioural control ( $\beta = 0.657$ ) was the strongest statistically significant positive predictor of intention to visit the destination of choice. This was followed by attitude ( $\beta = 0.144$ ).

**Table 7.2: Standardised regression weights for the first three hypotheses for the group that had applied for a visa before**

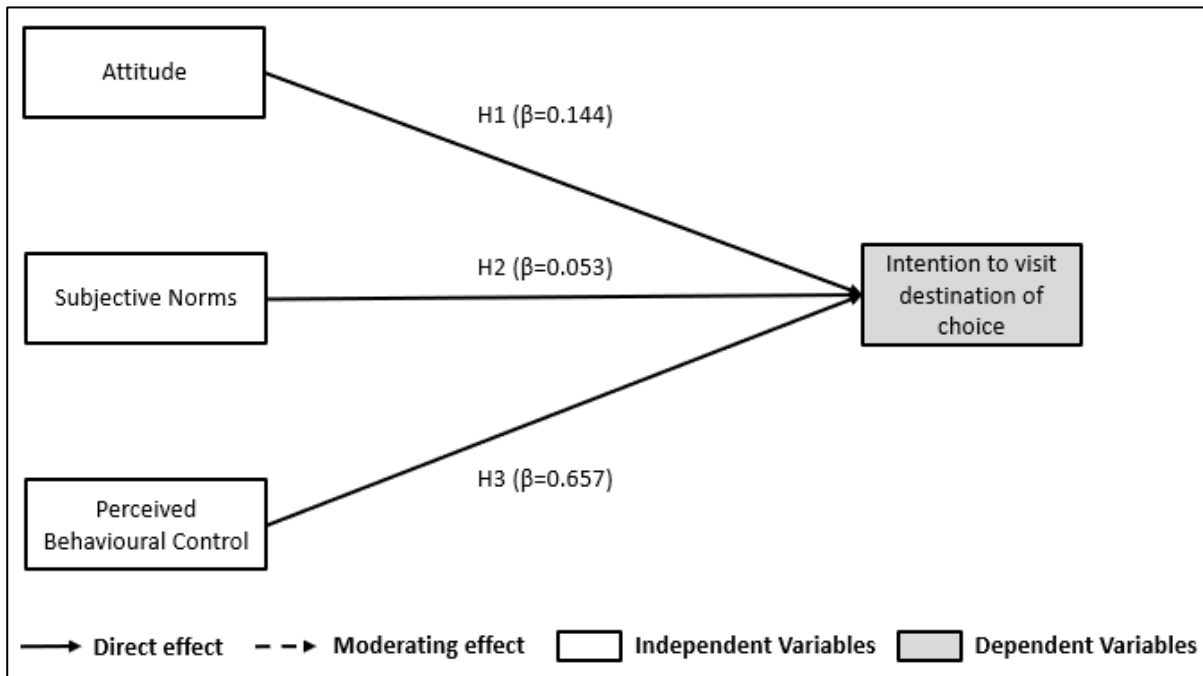
Standardised Regression Weights	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	p-value	Label	Decision
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Attitude	,144	,064	,040	$H_1$	Supported
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Subjective Norms	,053	,045	,343	$H_2$	Not supported
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Perceived behavioural control	,657	,095	***	$H_3$	Supported

\*\*\*Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001)  
 \*\*Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)  
 \*Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)  
 Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)

Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 7.2 summarises the results of the first three hypotheses ( $H_1$ ,  $H_2$  and  $H_3$ ) as illustrated in Figure 7.3.

**Figure 7.3: Hypothesised relationships diagram based on first three hypotheses for the group that had applied for a visa before**



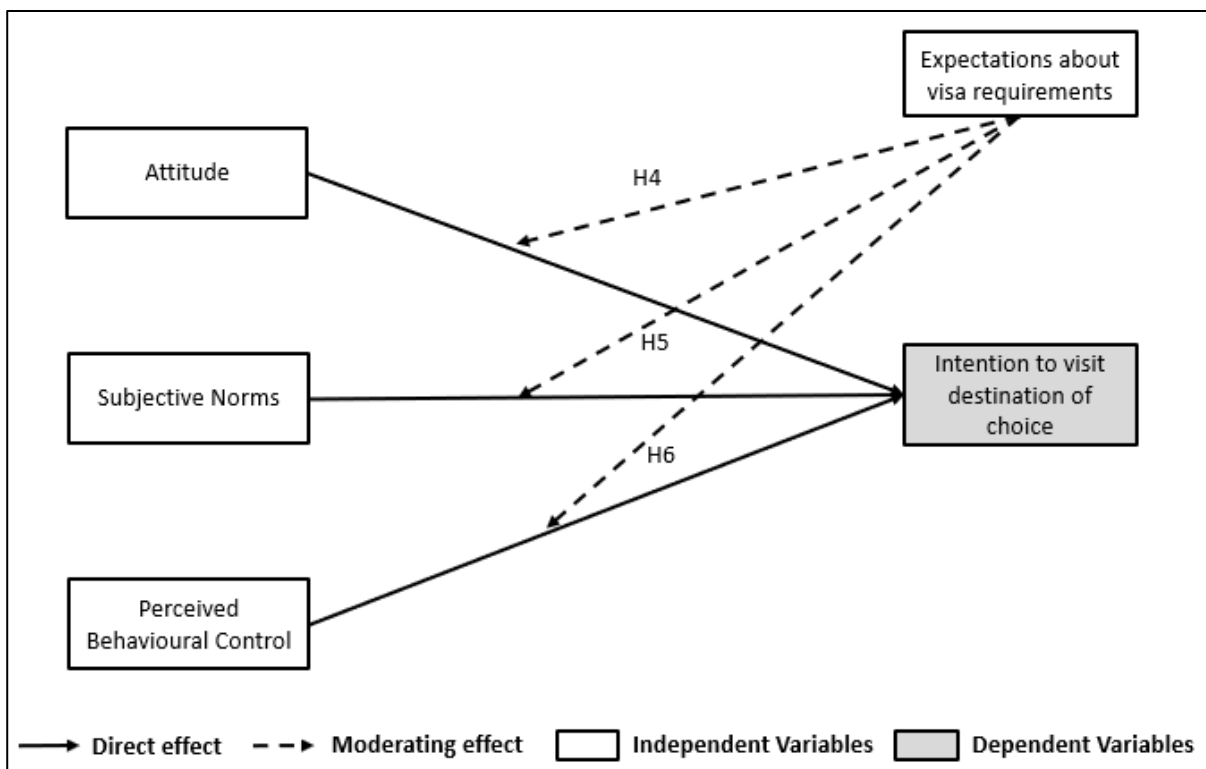
Source: Researcher's own construction

Therefore, hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 3 were supported, while hypothesis 2 was not supported.

### 7.3.2 Structural model summarising hypotheses four, five, and six

‘Expectations about visa requirements’ was hypothesised as a potential moderator in the relationship between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit the destination of choice, as illustrated in Figure 7.4. Hence, hypotheses four, five, and six (H<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>5</sub>, and H<sub>6</sub>) were tested.

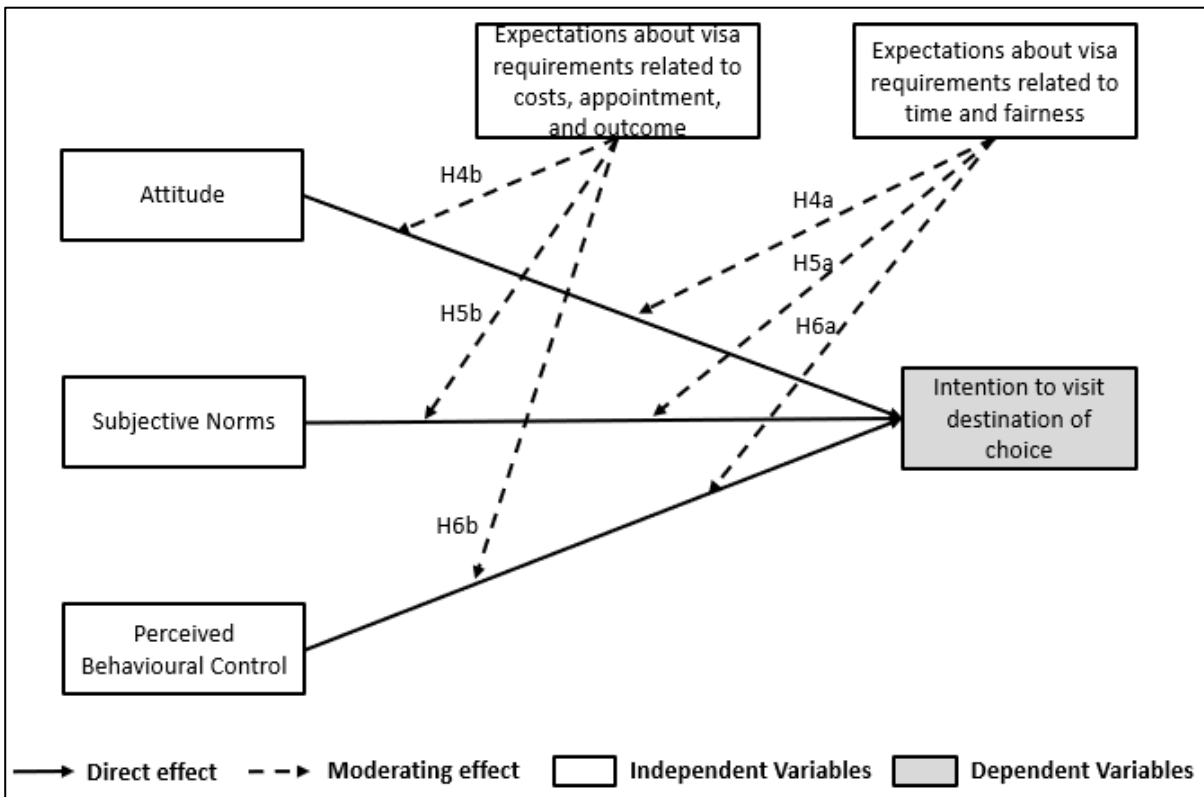
**Figure 7.4: Hypothesised relationships diagram based on expectations about visa requirements as a moderator for the group that had applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher’s own construction

In the exploratory factor analysis in section 6.3.3.1, two factors emerged for expectations about visa requirements for the group that had applied for visas before. Therefore, hypotheses H<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>5</sub>, and H<sub>6</sub> were split into two sub-hypotheses each (H<sub>4a</sub>, H<sub>4b</sub>, H<sub>5a</sub>, H<sub>5b</sub>, H<sub>6a</sub>, H<sub>6b</sub>). The refined structural model with expectations about visa requirements sub-hypotheses is illustrated in Figure 7.5.

**Figure 7.5: Refined hypothesised relationships diagram based on two visa requirements sub-hypotheses as a moderator for the group that had applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

### 7.3.2.1 Testing hypotheses 4, 5, and 6

To assess the effect of the moderating variable in the model, the multi-group CFA method was used (Awang, 2012). In the case where the results were inconclusive, Hayes' process macro was used (Abu-Bader & Jones, 2021; Hayes, Montoya & Rockwood, 2017; Song, Jung, Park & Yu, 2022). However, the multi-group CFA was a preferable approach, as it considers the latent variable model, while Hayes uses the composite variables (factor-based variables). When applying the multi-group CFA, the researcher performed the following steps:

- The moderating variable was split into two groups (lower values versus higher values) based on the median of the moderator variable (expectations about visa requirements). Steps b) and c) were then conducted on the dataset with the low and high values of the moderator respectively.

- (b) The model without constraining any path was the unconstrained model. Thereafter the path of interest was identified and constrained with regression weight parameter = 1. This model was labelled ‘constrained model’, while the other one was labelled ‘unconstrained model’, and the chi-squared model fit statistic was recorded.
- (c) If the chi-squared difference between the constrained and unconstrained models is more than 3.84, then moderation exists on the path between the independent variable and the dependent variables; otherwise, if it is less than 3.84, then no moderation exists in the path.

The estimates for both constrained and unconstrained using the first dataset (lower values of expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness) and then using the second dataset (higher values of expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness) are presented in Table 7.3 and Table 7.4 respectively.

**Table 7.3 Chi-squared estimates for expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness (low value dataset) for the group that had applied for a visa before**

Relationships	Constrained Model $\chi^2$	Unconstrained Model $\chi^2$	$\chi^2$ Differences	Label	Moderation Effect
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Attitude	427.7	369.5	58.2	$H_{4\alpha 1}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Subjective Norms	432.7	369.5	63.2	$H_{5\alpha 1}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Perceived Behavioural Control	378	369.5	8.5	$H_{6\alpha 1}$	Yes

Source: Researcher’s own construction

**Table 7.4: Chi-squared estimates for expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness (high value dataset) for the group that had applied for a visa before**

Relationships	Constrained Model $\chi^2$	Unconstrained Model $\chi^2$	$\chi^2$ Differences	Label	Moderation Effect
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Attitude	432.8	337.1	95.7	$H_{4\alpha 2}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Subjective Norms	489.2	337.1	152.1	$H_{5\alpha 2}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Perceived Behavioural Control	339.1	337.1	2	$H_{6\alpha 2}$	No

Source: Researcher’s own construction

In addition, the estimates for both the constrained and unconstrained models using the first dataset (lower values of expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome) and then using the second dataset (higher values of expectations about visa

requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome) are presented in Table 7.5 and Table 7.6 respectively.

**Table 7.5: Chi-squared estimates for expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome (low value dataset) for the group that had applied for a visa before**

Relationships	Constrained Model $\chi^2$	Unconstrained Model $\chi^2$	$\chi^2$ Differences	Label	Moderation Effect
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Attitude	460.5	409.8	50.7	$H_{4b1}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Subjective Norms	442.1	409.8	32.3	$H_{5b1}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Perceived Behavioural Control	416.8	409.8	7	$H_{6b1}$	Yes

Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 7.6: Chi-squared estimates for expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome (high value dataset) for the group that had applied for a visa before**

Relationships	Constrained Model $\chi^2$	Unconstrained Model $\chi^2$	$\chi^2$ Differences	Label	Moderation Effect
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Attitude	460.4	349.5	110.9	$H_{4b2}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Subjective Norms	519.1	349.5	169.6	$H_{5b2}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Perceived Behavioural Control	350.2	349.5	0.7	$H_{6b2}$	No

Source: Researcher's own construction

One could conclude that, since the chi-squared differences in Table 7.3 and Table 7.5 were all above the 3.84 threshold, the lower values of expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness, and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome were both moderators between attitude and intention to visit the destination of choice, subjective norms, and intention to visit the destination of choice, and between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice. According to Table 7.4 and Table 7.6, the higher values of expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome were both moderators between attitude and intention to visit the destination of choice, as well as between subjective norms and intention to visit the destination of choice. However, the chi-squared differences between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice were below the threshold of 3.84 for higher values of expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome. This

implies that there was conclusive evidence that expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome had a moderating effect on the relationship between 1) attitude and visit intentions and 2) subjective norms and visit intentions. However, there was no conclusive evidence to say that expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome were moderators between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice. As a result, the approach developed by Hayes (2017) was used to determine whether a moderation effect existed for the relationship between perceived behaviour control and intention to visit.

### 7.3.2.2 Hayes' approach

Following Hayes' approach, using the Hayes process macro in SPSS v27, moderation was tested between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice only, and the *p*-values below were obtained for the interaction term (Table 7.7 and Table 7.8). A statistically significant interaction term indicates that a moderation effect was present.

**Table 7.7: Hayes' approach to expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness for the group that had applied for a visa before**

Relationships	<i>P</i> -values	Label
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Perceived Behavioural Control	0.4355	$H_{6a}$

\*\*\*Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001)  
 \*\*Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)  
 \*Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)  
 Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)

Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 7.8: Hayes approach for expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome for the group that had applied for a visa before**

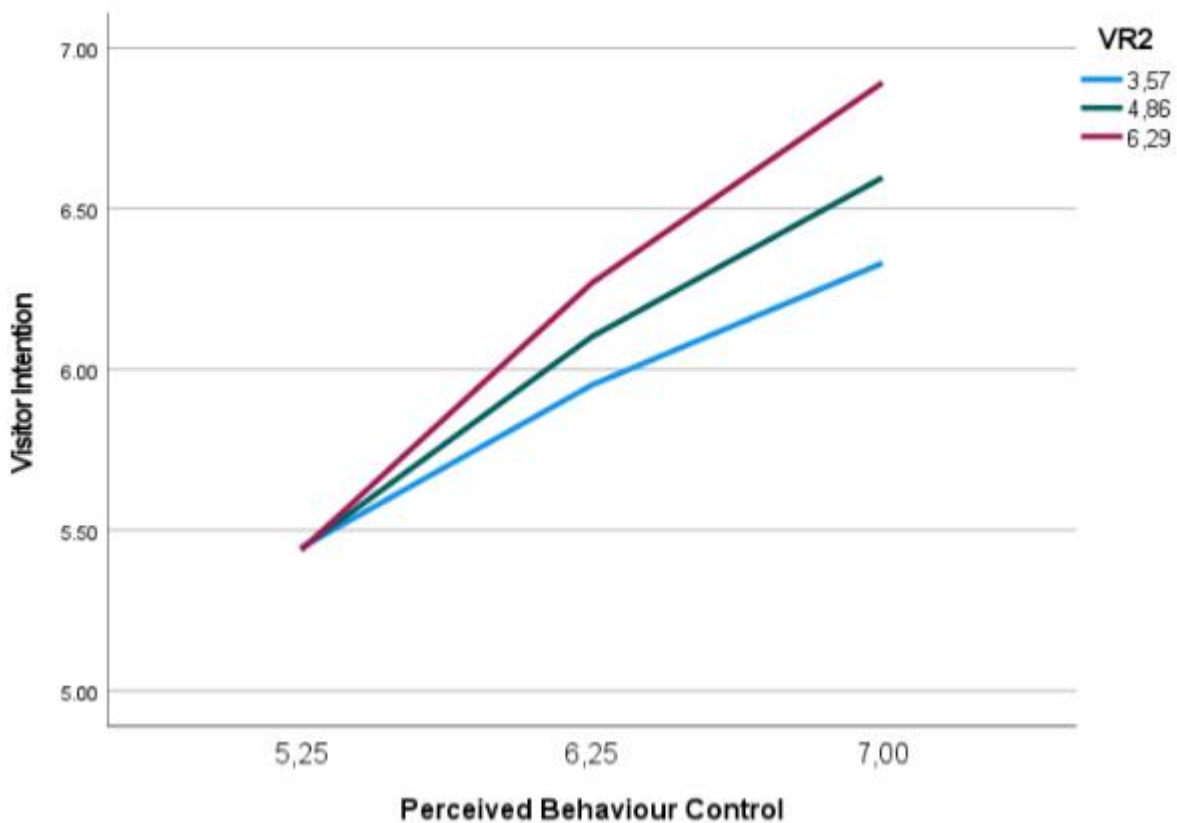
Relationships	<i>P</i> -values	Label
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Perceived Behavioural Control	0.0039***	$H_{6b}$

\*\*\*Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001)  
 \*\*Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)  
 \*Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)  
 Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)

Source: Researcher's own construction

In this case, expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness were not a moderator between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice, as the  $p$ -value for the interaction term was 0.4355, and so was not statistically significant at the 5% level. However, expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome were a moderator between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice, as the  $p$ -value for the interaction term was 0.0039, and so was statistically significant at the 5% level. These moderation results can also be seen in the graphs in Figure 7.6, where expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome had different slopes and so were not parallel.

**Figure 7.6: Hayes graphs: Perceived behavioural control for the group that had applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

Having used both the multi-group CFA approach and Hayes' approach to assess the effect of the moderating variable in the model, the following summarises the results of hypotheses H<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>5</sub>, and H<sub>6</sub>:



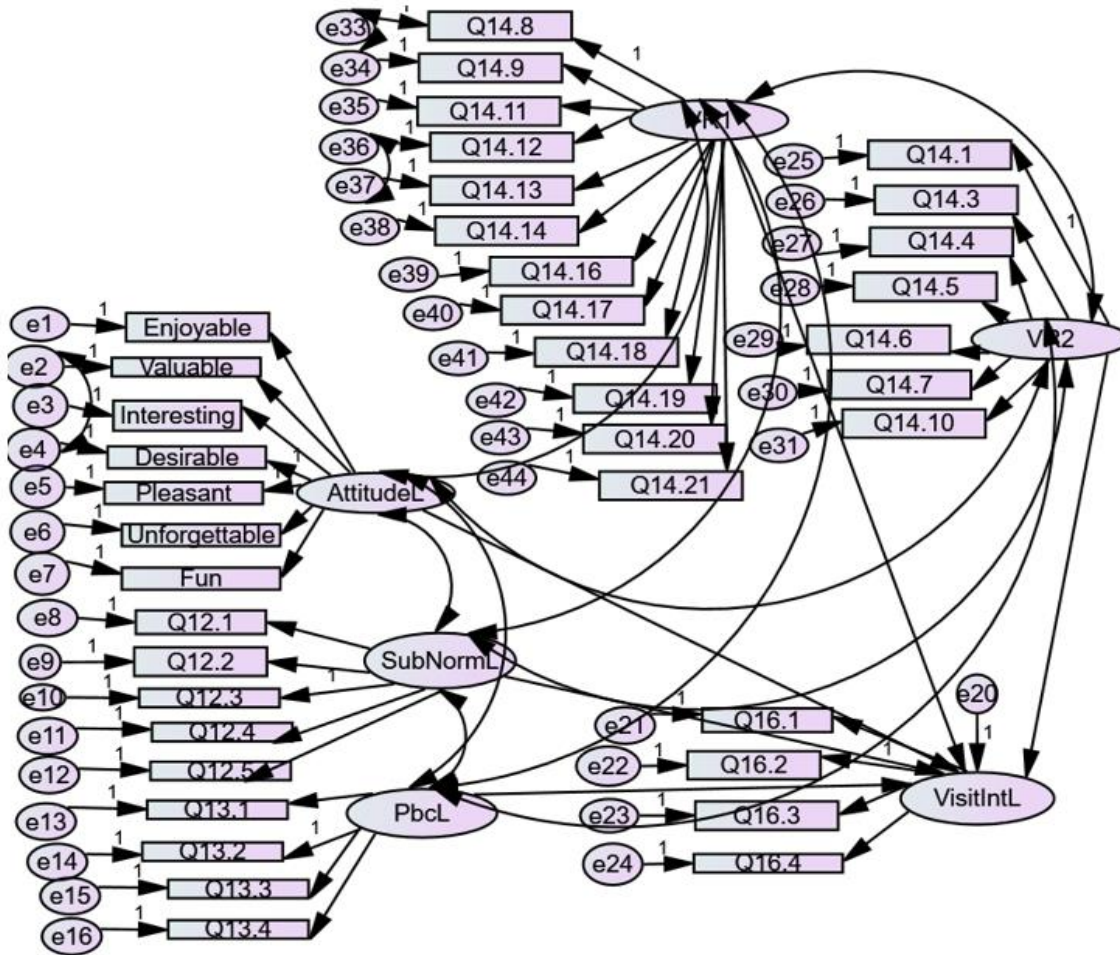
- 1) Hypothesis 4 that visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination. For the sub-hypotheses H<sub>4a</sub> and H<sub>4b</sub>, expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome were both moderators between attitude and intention to visit the destination of choice. This means that H<sub>4</sub> (composed of sub-hypotheses H<sub>4a</sub> and H<sub>4b</sub>) was supported.
- 2) Hypothesis 5 states that the visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination. For the sub-hypotheses H<sub>5a</sub> and H<sub>5b</sub>, expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome were both moderators between subjective norms and intention to visit the destination of choice. This means that H<sub>5</sub> (composed of sub-hypotheses H<sub>5a</sub> and H<sub>5b</sub>) was supported.
- 3) Hypothesis 6 states that the visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination. Sub-hypothesis H<sub>6a</sub> – expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness – was not a moderator between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice. On the other hand, sub-hypothesis H<sub>6b</sub> – expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome – was a moderator between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice. This means that sub-hypothesis H<sub>6a</sub> was not supported but that sub-hypothesis H<sub>6b</sub> was supported.

### **7.3.1 Structural model summarising hypothesis eight**

The structural model for hypothesis 8 is presented in Figure 7.7 for the constructs using Q11.1-Q11.7 (attitude), Q12.1-Q12.5 (subjective norms), Q13.1-Q13.4 (perceived behavioural control), Q14.1-Q14.21 (expectations about visa requirements, split into expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome), and Q16.1-Q16.4 (intention to visit the destination of choice) for the observed variables. The SEM approach was used

to test the model for consistency. The structural model's goodness-of-fit indices are provided in Table 7.9.

**Figure 7.7: Structural model as originally hypothesised with respect to hypothesis eight for the group that had applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

As shown in Table 7.9, the structural model's results for hypothesis 8 showed acceptable model fit statistics, as the CMIN/df value of 2.160 was lower than the conservative threshold of 3. The CFI (0.900) and IFI (0.900) were equal to the recommended threshold of 0.90, while the TLI (0.891) was close to the 0.900 threshold. The SRMR value was 0.0634, below the recommended threshold of 0.08, thus indicative of an adequate model fitting. Finally, the RMSEA was 0.062, which met the recommended acceptable cut-off criterion of less than or equal to 0.08.

**Table 7.9: Goodness-of-fit indices of the structural model for hypothesis eight for the group that had applied for a visa before**

Model	CMIN ( $\chi^2$ )	df	P	CMIN/df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Structural model	1479.48	685	0.000	2.160	0.0634	0.900	0.891	0.900	0.062
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	< 0.08	$\geq 0.90$	$\geq 0.90$	$\geq 0.90$	$\leq 0.08$

Source: Researcher's own construction

Therefore, based on the fit indices presented in Table 7.9, the structural model for hypothesis 8 provided a satisfactory model fit.

Table 7.10 provides each of the paths, the standardised regression weights, and the statistical significance for hypothesis 8's structural model. On the one hand, the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and intention to visit the destination of choice was positive, although weak and significant at the 5% level of significance ( $\beta = 0.194, p < 0.05$ ). On the other hand, the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and intention to visit the destination of choice was negative but weak and not statistically significant at the 5% level of significance ( $\beta = -0.010, p > 0.05$ ). The results reported in Table 7.10 summarise the results for hypothesis 8 ( $H_8$ ).

**Table 7.10: Standardised regression weights for hypothesis eight for the group that had applied for a visa before**

Standardised Regression Weights			Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	p-value	Label	Decision
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness	,194	,079	,022	$H_{8a}$	Supported
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome	-,010	,064	,901	$H_{8b}$	Not Supported

\*\*\*Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001)

\*\*Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)

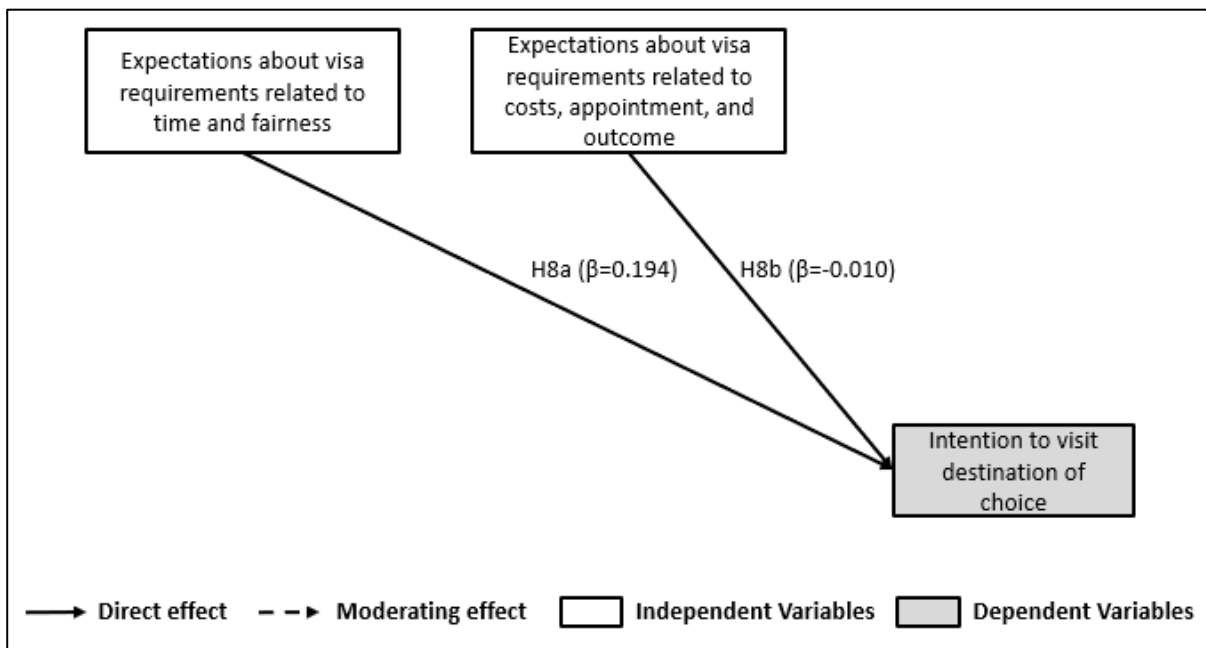
\*Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)

Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)

Source: Researcher's own construction

Hypothesis 8 ( $H_8$ ) was split into two sub-hypotheses ( $H_{8a}$ ,  $H_{8b}$ ) to accommodate the split of expectations about visa requirements into two factors. The refined structural model with the visa requirements sub-hypotheses is illustrated in Figure 7.8.

**Figure 7.8: Refined hypothesised relationships diagram based on two visa requirements sub-hypotheses for the group that had applied for a visa before**



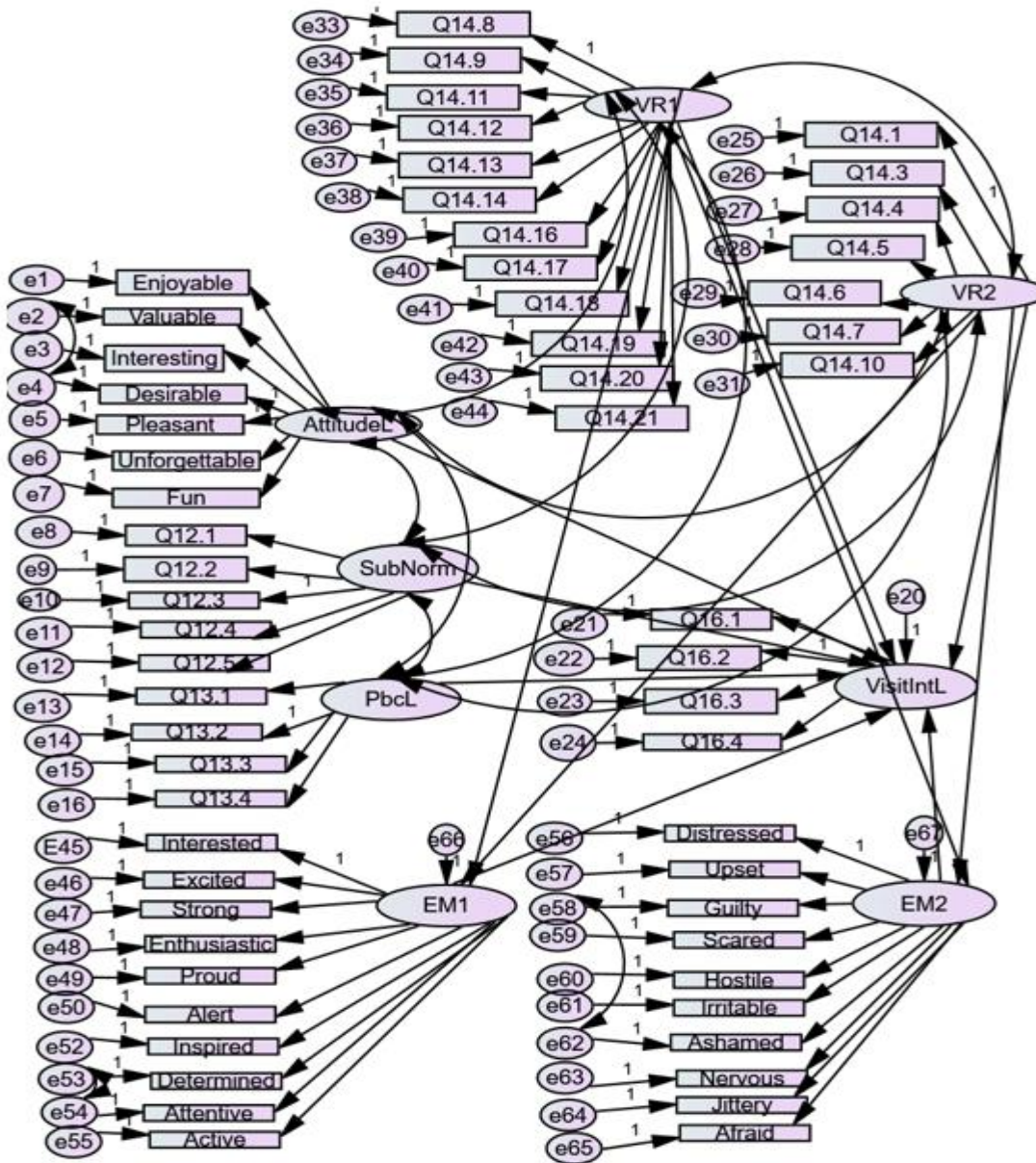
Source: Researcher's own construction

Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>8a</sub>) was supported, while hypothesis (H<sub>8b</sub>) was not supported.

### 7.3.2 Structural model summarising hypotheses seven and nine

Hypothesis 7 states that there is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, while hypothesis 9 states that there is a relationship between the emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination. The structural model was presented in Figure 7.9 for the constructs using Q11.1-Q11.7 (attitude), Q12.1-Q12.5 (subjective norms), Q13.1-Q13.4 (perceived behavioural control), Q14.1-Q14.21 (expectations about visa requirements, split into expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome), Q15.1-Q15.20 (emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, split into negative emotions and positive emotions), and Q16.1-Q16.4 (intention to visit the destination of choice) for the observed variables. The structural model goodness-of-fit indices are provided in Table 7.11.

**Figure 7.9: Structural model with respect to hypotheses seven and nine for the group that had applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

In Table 7.11, the RMSEA value of 0.057 indicated an acceptable value (below 0.08), while the CMIN/df value of 1.978 (<3) and the SRMR value of 0.0634, which were lower than the recommended threshold of 0.08, indicated an adequate model fitting. However, three indices – CFI (0.871), TLI (0.865), and IFI (0.872) – were slightly below the 0.90 threshold. In studies by Bentler (1990) and Lai and Green (2016), these values were considered permissible. Thus, based on these indices, the hypothesised model had an acceptable fit to the model

data, and trying to improve the model might have unintentionally compromised the core portrayal of the original hypothesised model.

**Table 7.11: Goodness-of-fit indices of the structural model for hypotheses seven and nine for the group that had applied for a visa before**

Model	CMIN ( $x^2$ )	df	P	CMIN/ df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Structural model	3222.88	1629	0.000	1.978	0.0634	0.871	0.865	0.872	0.057
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	< 0.08	$\geq 0.90$	$\geq 0.90$	$\geq 0.90$	$\leq 0.08$

Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 7.12 below provides each of the paths, the standardised regression weights, and the statistical significance for the structural model for hypothesis 7 and hypothesis 9. The results showed that the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process was positive and moderate and statistically significant ( $\beta = 0.408, p < 0.001$ ). Similarly, the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and positive emotions triggered as a result of visa application process was negative, but strong and statistically significant ( $\beta = -0.701, p < 0.001$ ). However, the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and negative emotions triggered as a result of visa application process was positive but weak, and not statistically significant ( $\beta = 0.176, p > 0.05$ ). In addition, the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and positive emotions triggered as a result of visa application process was positive but weak, and statistically significant ( $\beta = 0.288, p < 0.05$ ). The relationship between negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process and intention to visit the destination of choice was positive but very weak and not statistically significant at the 5% level of significance ( $\beta = 0.089, p > 0.05$ ). Similarly, the relationship between positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process and intention to visit the destination of choice was negative but very weak and not statistically significant at the 5% level of significance ( $\beta = -0.053, p > 0.05$ ).

However, expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness ( $\beta = -0.701$ ) were the strongest statistically significant predictor of positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process. Likewise, expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness ( $\beta = 0.408$ ) was the strongest statistically significant predictor of negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

**Table 7.12: Standardised regression weights for hypotheses seven and nine for the group that had applied for a visa before**

Standardised Regression Weights		Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	p-value	Label	Decision
Negative emotions triggered as a result of visa application process	<--- Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness	,408	,071	***	$H_{7a1}$	Supported
Positive emotions triggered as a result of visa application process	<--- Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness	-,701	,084	***	$H_{7a2}$	Supported
Negative emotions triggered as a result of visa application process	<--- Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome	,176	,060	,074	$H_{7b1}$	Not supported
Positive emotions triggered as a result of visa application process	<--- Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome	,288	,059	,007	$H_{7b2}$	Supported
Intention to visit destination of choice	<--- Positive emotions triggered as a result of visa application process	-,053	,073	,321	$H_{9a}$	Not supported
Intention to visit destination of choice	<--- Negative emotions triggered as a result of visa application process	,089	,070	,107	$H_{9b}$	Not supported

\*\*\*Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001)

\*\*Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)

\*Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)

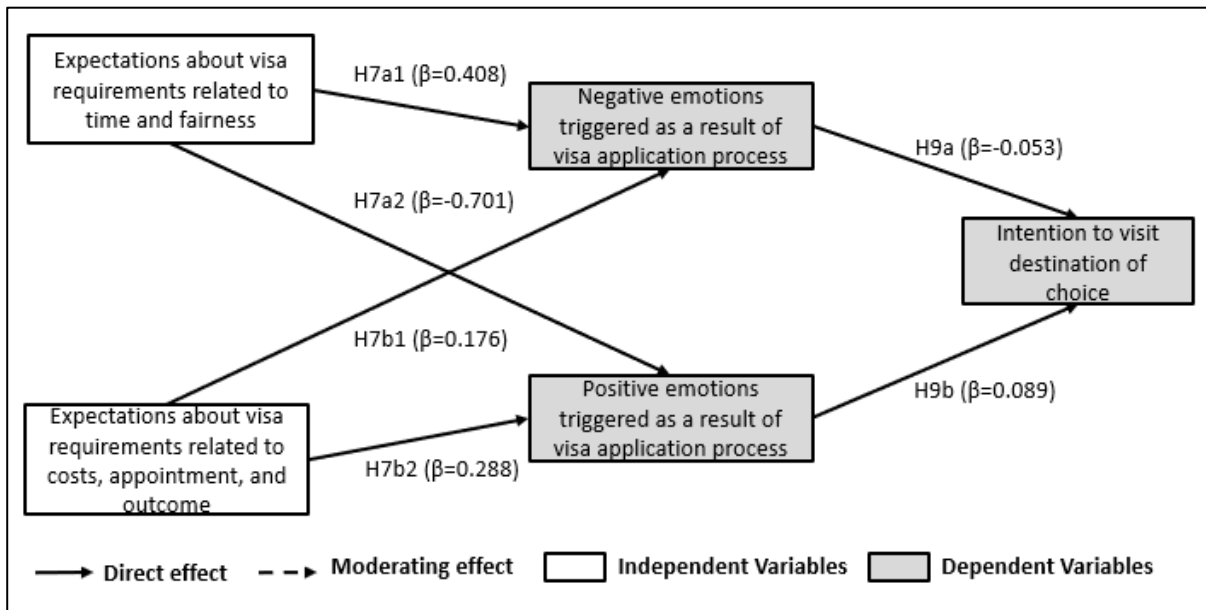
Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)

Source: Researcher's own construction

The results reported in Table 7.12 summarise the results for hypothesis 7 and hypothesis 9 (H7, and H9) as illustrated in Figure 7.10

Hypothesis 7 ( $H_7$ ) was split into two sub-hypotheses ( $H_{7a}$ ,  $H_{7b}$ ) to accommodate the split of expectations about visa requirements into two factors. These two sub-hypotheses were further split into four additional sub-hypotheses:  $H_{7a1}$ ,  $H_{7a2}$ ,  $H_{7b1}$ ,  $H_{7b2}$ . Hypothesis nine ( $H_9$ ) was split into two sub-hypotheses ( $H_{9a}$ ,  $H_{9b}$ ) to accommodate the split of emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process into two factors. Sub-hypotheses  $H_{9a}$  and  $H_{9b}$  did not have additional sub-hypotheses. The refined structural model with the visa requirements and emotions sub-hypotheses is illustrated in Figure 7.10.

**Figure 7.10: Refined hypothesised relationships diagram based on two visa requirements and two emotions sub-hypotheses for the group that had applied for a visa before**



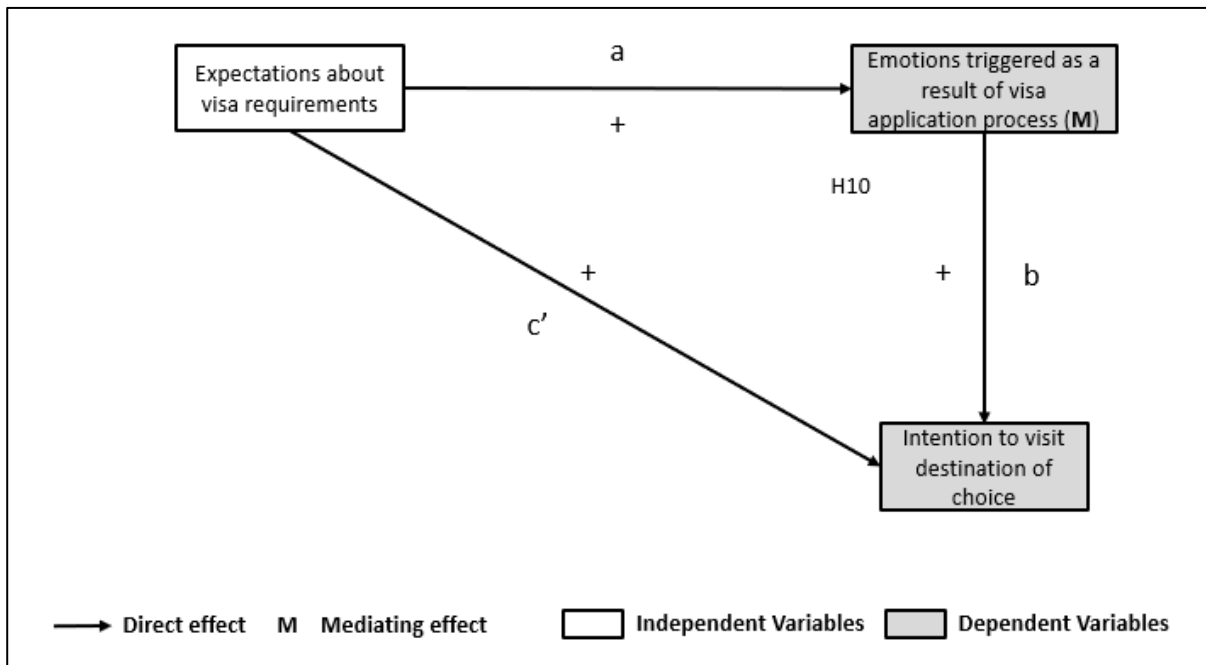
Source: Researcher's own construction

### 7.3.3 Results for hypothesis ten

Figure 7.11 is a visual portrayal of the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process as a mediator between expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit the destination of choice. In other words, Figure 7.11 seeks to describe a mediating model to assess research hypothesis 10 ( $H_{10}$ ), whether a tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between visa requirements expectations and intention to visit a destination. Visa requirements as a stimulus variable was measured by expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness, with thirteen items, and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome, with seven items, while visit intention was measured with four items. It was highlighted in section 6.3.3.1.4 that item 2 (Q14.2: I expect the visa application process to be: Manual/Online) did not load on any of the factors: expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness; and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome; therefore, it was omitted. Hence, for the group that had applied for visas before, 20 items were assessed instead of 21 items as per the research scale.



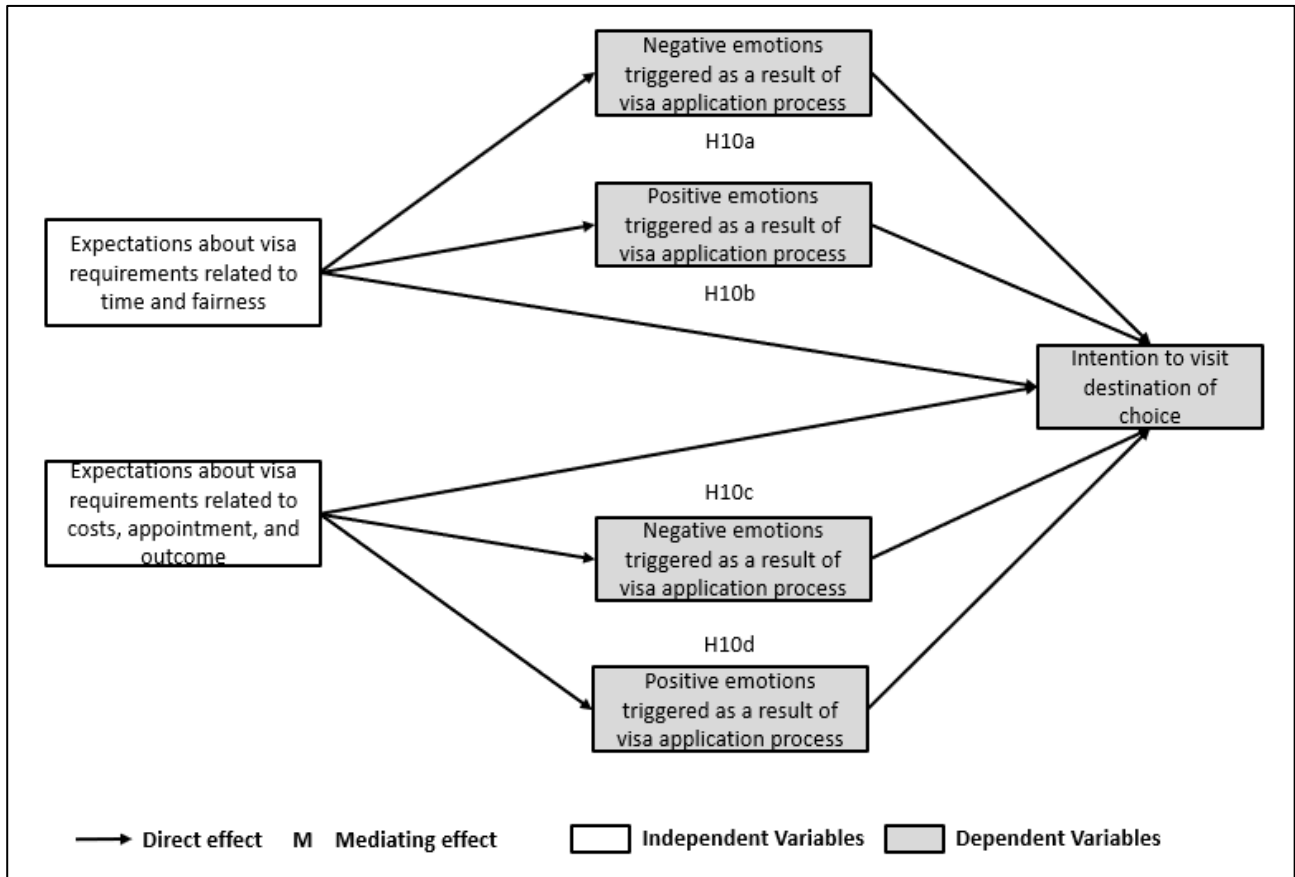
**Figure 7.11: Hypothesised path diagram based on emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process as a mediator between expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit the destination of choice for the group that had applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

The mediation was tested using the bias-corrected percentile method (with bootstrapping) for the standardised indirect effect. For example, a 95% confidence interval lower percentile is denoted by '2.5<sup>th</sup>', while the upper percentile is denoted by '97.5<sup>th</sup>'. When a confidence interval includes 0, it means that the outcome will not be statistically significant at the 5% level of significance (Hayes, 2017); likewise, if it does not include 0, it is statistically significant. A mediation effect is observed if the indirect effect is statistically significant.

**Figure 7.12: Refined hypothesised relationships based on two emotions triggered as a result of visa application process as mediators between two expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit the destination of choice for the group that had applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

The indirect effect was examined for sub-hypotheses H<sub>10a</sub>, H<sub>10b</sub>, H<sub>10c</sub>, and H<sub>10d</sub> using the bootstrapping method (Hair *et al.*, 2019). Since the bias-corrected 95% confidence interval included 0 for expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome, one could conclude that the indirect effects for sub-hypotheses H<sub>10a</sub>, H<sub>10b</sub>, H<sub>10c</sub>, and H<sub>10d</sub> were statistically not significant. Therefore, the mediation hypothesis was not supported.

- 1) The results showed an insignificant mediating role of negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10a</sub>) was not supported.

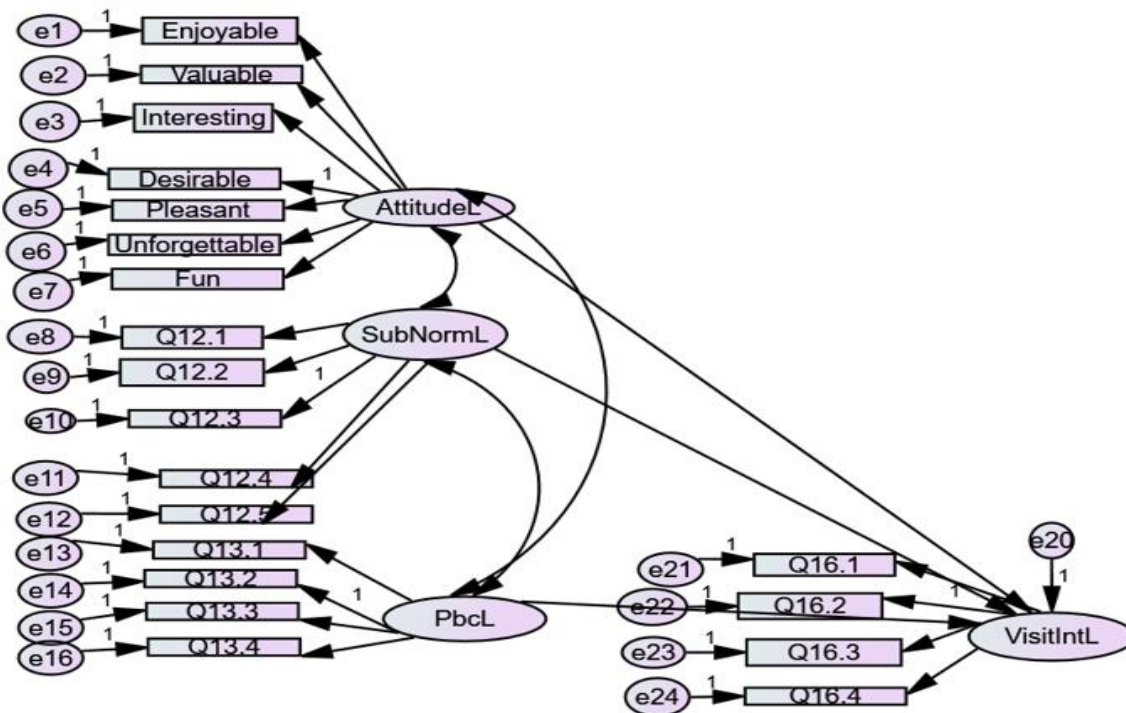
- 2) The results showed an insignificant mediating role of positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10b</sub>) was not supported.
- 3) The results showed an insignificant mediating role of negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10c</sub>) was not supported.
- 4) The results showed an insignificant mediating role of positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10d</sub>) was not supported.

## **7.4 STRUCTURAL MODELS AND RESULTS FOR THE GROUP THAT HAD NEVER APPLIED FOR A VISA BEFORE**

### **7.4.1 Structural model summarising the first three hypotheses**

The structural model for the first three hypotheses for the group that had never applied for visas before is provided in Figure 7.13. The structural model's goodness-of-fit indices are provided in Table 7.13. Figure 7.13 depicts not only the structural paths between the constructs, but also the covariance relationships between the latent variables. The structural model is presented in Figure 7.13 for the four constructs using Q11.1-Q11.7 (attitude), Q12.1-Q12.5 (subjective norms), Q13.1-Q13.4 (perceived behavioural control), and Q16.1-Q16.4 (intention to visit a destination) for the observed variables. The SEM approach was used to test the model for consistency. To test whether the proposed model imitated the sample matrix, goodness-of-fit indices were employed (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000).

**Figure 7.13: Structural model as postulated with respect to the first three hypotheses for the group that had never applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 7.13: Goodness-of-fit indices of the structural model for the first three hypotheses for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Model	CMIN ( $x^2$ )	Df	P	CMIN/df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Structural Model 1	273.259	165	0.000	1.656	0.063	0.952	0.945	0.952	0.068
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	< 0.08	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≤0.08

Source: Researcher's own construction

According to the set of indices in Table 7.13, the structural model adequately fitted the model data. The RMSEA value of 0.068 was below 0.08, which indicated an acceptable fit. All three indices – CFI (0.952), TLI (0.945), and IFI (0.952) – were above the 0.90 threshold, which indicated an acceptable fit. The CMIN/df value of 1.656 was below the conservative threshold of 3, which indicated an acceptable fit; also with SRMR (0.063) below the threshold of 0.08 in accordance with Schumacker and Lomax (2010); Schumacker and Lomax (2004). The relationships shown in the structural model (Figure 7.13) were interpreted.

Table 7.14 presents the standardised regression weights for the structural model. In contrast to the group who had applied for visas before, the results showed a negative weak relationship between attitude and intention to visit the destination of choice, which was therefore not statistically significant ( $\beta = -0.146, p > 0.05$ ). Similarly, a positive weak relationship existed between subjective norms and intention to visit the destination of choice, which was statistically significant ( $\beta = 0.210, p < 0.05$ ). This result was in contrast to the group who had applied for visas before, as the relationship between subjective norms and intention to visit the destination of choice was found to be not statistically significant at the 5% level of significance. The relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice was positive, moderate, and highly significant ( $\beta = 0.494, p < 0.001$ ). In other words, Table 7.14 indicates that perceived behavioural control ( $\beta = 0.494$ ) was the strongest statistically significant positive predictor of visit intention, followed by subjective norms ( $\beta = 0.210$ ).

**Table 7.14: Standardised regression weights for the first three hypotheses for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Standardised Regression Weights	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	p-value	Label	Decision
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Attitude	-,146	,111	,254	$H_{1i}$	Not supported
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Subjective Norms	,210	,069	,016	$H_{2i}$	Supported
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Perceived behavioural control	,494	,124	***	$H_{3i}$	Supported

\*\*\*Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001)

\*\*Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)

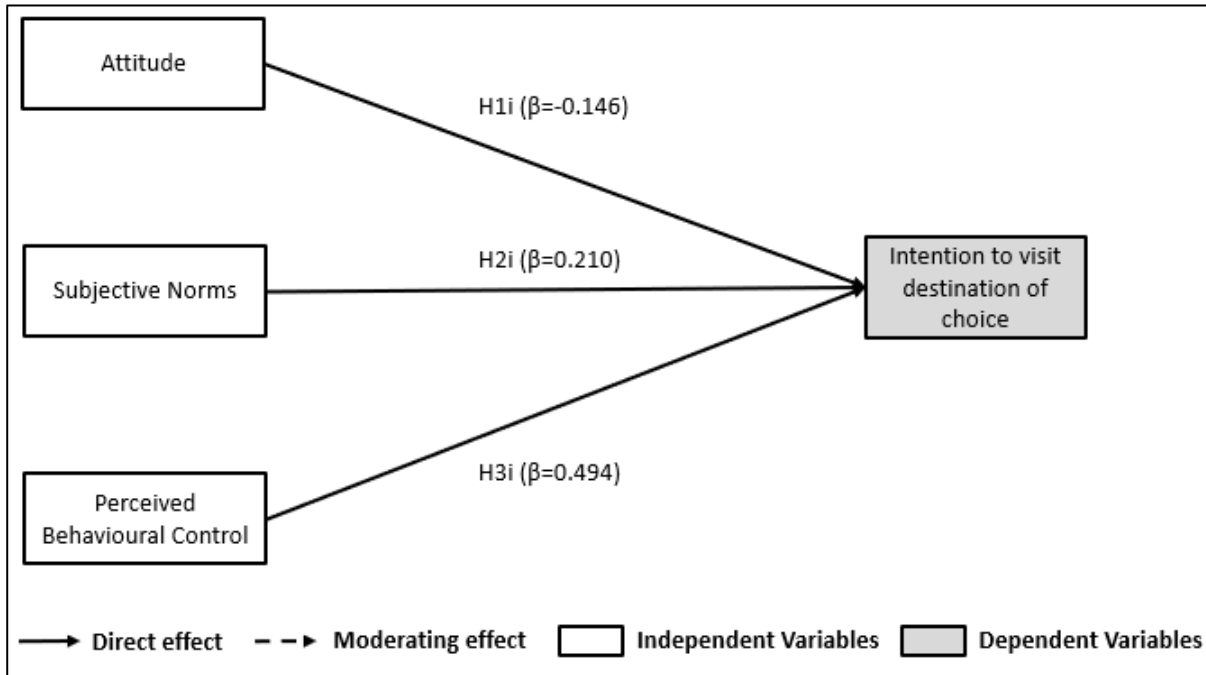
\*Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)

Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)

Source: Researcher's own construction

The results reported in Table 7.14 represent a summary of the results of the first three hypotheses ( $H_{1i}$ ,  $H_{2i}$ , and  $H_{3i}$ ), as illustrated in Figure 7.14.

**Figure 7.14: Hypothesised relationships diagram based on first three hypotheses for the group that had never applied for a visa before**



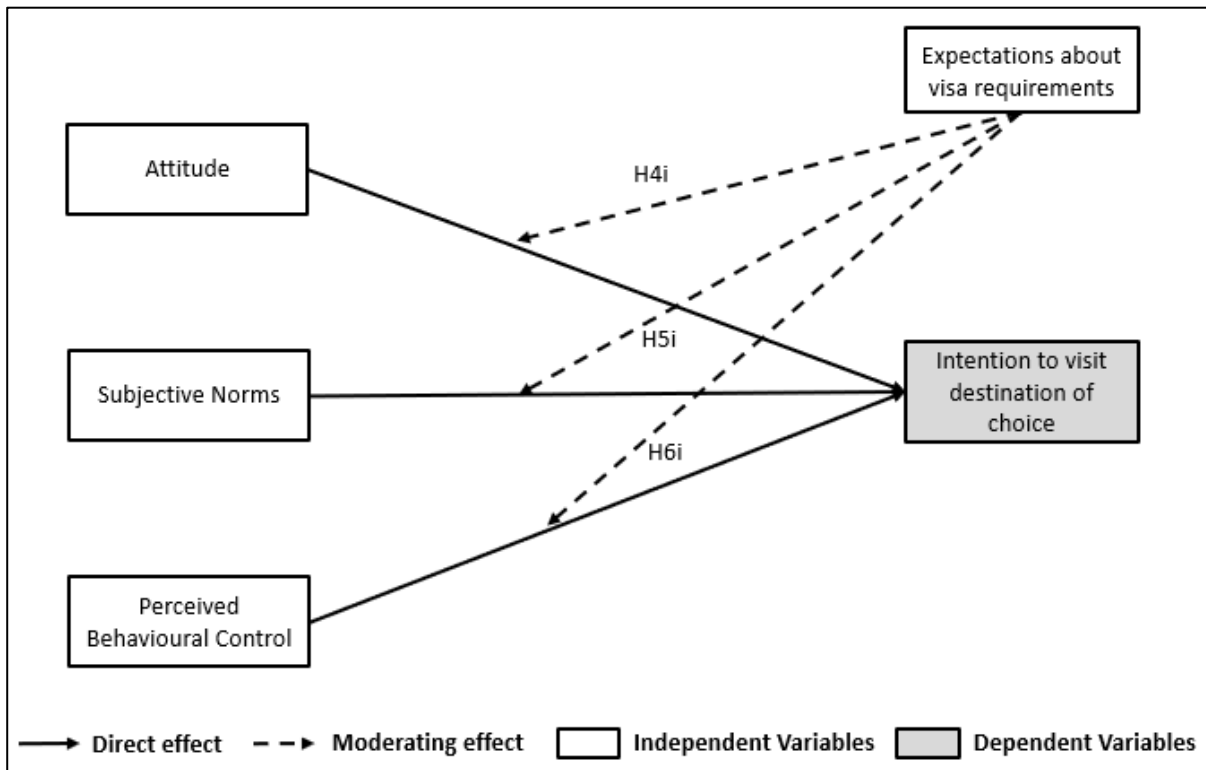
Source: Researcher's own construction

Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{1i}$ ) was not supported, while both hypothesis ( $H_{2i}$ ) and hypothesis ( $H_{3i}$ ) were supported.

#### 7.4.2 Structural model summarising hypotheses four, five, and six

Expectations about visa requirements was hypothesised as a potential moderator in the relationship between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit the destination of choice, as illustrated in Figure 7.15 Hence, hypotheses four, five and six ( $H_{4i}$ ,  $H_{5i}$  and  $H_{6i}$ ) were tested.

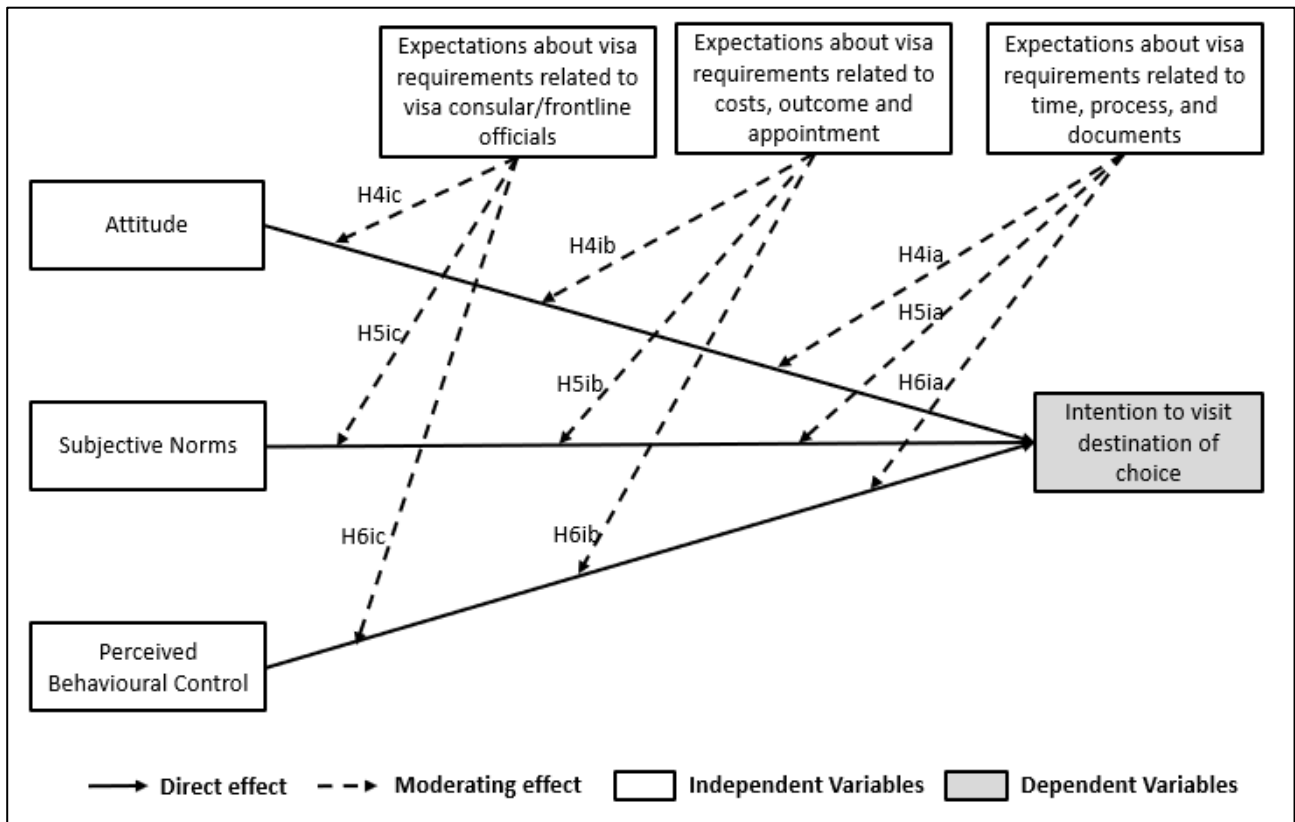
**Figure 7.15: Hypothesised relationships diagram based on expectations about visa requirements as a moderator for the group that had never applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

In the exploratory factor analysis in section 6.3.3.1, three factors were identified for the group who had never applied for visas before. Therefore, hypotheses (H<sub>4i</sub>, H<sub>5i</sub> and H<sub>6i</sub>) were each split into three sub-hypotheses (H<sub>4ia</sub>, H<sub>4ib</sub>, H<sub>4ic</sub>, H<sub>5ia</sub>, H<sub>5ib</sub>, H<sub>5ic</sub>, H<sub>6ia</sub>, H<sub>6ib</sub>, H<sub>6ic</sub>) to accommodate the split of expectations about visa requirements into three factors. The refined structural model with the expectations about visa requirements sub-hypotheses is illustrated in Figure 7.16.

**Figure 7.16: Refined hypothesised relationships diagram based on three visa requirements sub-hypotheses as a moderator for the group that had never applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

#### **7.4.2.1 Testing hypotheses 4, 5, and 6**

A similar process as in section 7.3.2.1 was followed to assess the effect of the moderating variable using the multi-group CFA method. The estimates for both constrained and unconstrained using the first dataset (lower values for expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents) and then using the second dataset (higher values for expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents) are presented in Table 7.15 and Table 7.16 respectively.



**Table 7.15: Chi-squared estimates for expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents (low value dataset) for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Relationships			Constrained Model $\chi^2$	Unconstrained Model $\chi^2$	$\chi^2$ Differences	Label	Moderation Effect
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Attitude	288.6	273.4	15.2	$H_{4ia1}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Subjective Norms	282.6	273.4	9.2	$H_{5ia1}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Perceived Behavioural Control	273.5	273.4	0.1	$H_{6ia1}$	No

Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 7.16: Chi-squared estimates for expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents (high value dataset) for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Relationships			Constrained Model $\chi^2$	Unconstrained Model $\chi^2$	$\chi^2$ Differences	Label	Moderation Effect
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Attitude	312.8	254.1	58.7	$H_{4ia2}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Subjective Norms	297.5	254.1	43.4	$H_{5ia2}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Perceived Behavioural Control	273.2	254.1	19.1	$H_{6ia2}$	Yes

Source: Researcher's own construction

In addition, the estimates for both constrained and unconstrained using the first dataset (lower values for expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment) and then using the second dataset (higher values for expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment) are presented in Table 7.17 and Table 7.18.

**Table 7.17: Chi-squared estimates for expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment (low value dataset) for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Relationships			Constrained Model $\chi^2$	Unconstrained Model $\chi^2$	$\chi^2$ Differences	Label	Moderation Effect
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Attitude	259.4	236	23.4	$H_{4ib1}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Subjective Norms	260.4	236	24.4	$H_{5ib1}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Perceived Behavioural Control	236.1	236	0.1	$H_{6ib1}$	No

Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 7.18: Chi-squared estimates for expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment (high value dataset) for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Relationships	Constrained Model $X^2$	Unconstrained Model $X^2$	$X^2$ Differences	Label	Moderation Effect
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Attitude	331.6	268.6	63	$H_{4ib2}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Subjective Norms	325.1	268.6	56.5	$H_{5ib2}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Perceived Behavioural Control	291.1	268.6	22.5	$H_{6ib2}$	Yes

Source: Researcher's own construction

Furthermore, the estimates for both constrained and unconstrained using the first dataset (lower values for expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials) and then using the second dataset (higher values for expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials) are presented in Table 7.19 and Table 7.20 respectively.

**Table 7.19: Chi-squared estimates for expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials (low value dataset) for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Relationships	Constrained Model $X^2$	Unconstrained Model $X^2$	$X^2$ Differences	Label	Moderation Effect
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Attitude	332.4	278.5	53.9	$H_{4ic1}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Subjective Norms	315.4	278.5	36.9	$H_{5ic1}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Perceived Behavioural Control	280.5	278.5	2	$H_{6ic1}$	No

Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 7.20: Chi-squared estimates for expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials (high value dataset) for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Relationships	Constrained Model $X^2$	Unconstrained Model $X^2$	$X^2$ Differences	Label	Moderation Effect
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Attitude	290.8	266.5	24.3	$H_{4ic2}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Subjective Norms	314.2	266.5	47.7	$H_{5ic2}$	Yes
Intention to visit destination of choice <--- Perceived Behavioural Control	280.9	266.5	14.4	$H_{6ic2}$	Yes

Source: Researcher's own construction

One could conclude that, since the chi-squared differences in Table 7.16, Table 7.18, and Table 7.20 were all above the threshold of 3.84, the higher values of expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents, expectations about visa

requirements related costs, outcome, and appointment, and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials were all moderators between attitude and intention to visit the destination of choice, subjective norms and intention to visit the destination of choice, and perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice. According to Table 7.15, Table 7.17, and Table 7.19, the lower values of expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents, expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment, and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials were moderators between attitude and intention to visit the destination of choice, as well as between subjective norms and intention to visit the destination of choice. Nevertheless, the chi-squared differences between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice were below the threshold of 3.84 for the lower values of expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents, expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment, and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials. This implies that there was conclusive evidence that expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents, expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment, and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials had a moderating effect on the relationship between 1) attitude and visit intentions, and 2) subjective norms and visit intentions. However, there was no conclusive evidence to say that expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents, expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment, and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials were moderators between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice. As a result, the approach developed by Hayes (2017) was used to determine whether a moderation effect existed for the relationship between perceived behaviour control and intention to visit.

#### **7.4.2.2 Hayes' approach**

Following Hayes' approach, using Hayes' process macro in SPSS v27, moderation was tested only between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice, and *p*-values were obtained for the interaction term (Table 7.21, Table 7.22, and

Table 7.23). A statistically significant interaction term indicated that a moderation effect was present.

**Table 7.21: Hayes' approach for expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Relationships		<i>P-values</i>	Label
Intention to visit destination of choice	<--- Perceived Behavioural Control	0.9588	$H_{\delta ia}$
***Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001) **Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01) *Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05) Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)			

Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 7.22: Hayes' approach for expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Relationships		<i>P-values</i>	Label
Intention to visit destination of choice	<--- Perceived Behavioural Control	0.8151	$H_{\delta ib}$
***Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001) **Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01) *Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05) Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)			

Source: Researcher's own construction

**Table 7.23: Hayes' approach for expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Relationships		<i>P-values</i>	Label
Intention to visit destination of choice	<--- Perceived Behavioural Control	0.0626	$H_{\delta ic}$
***Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001) **Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01) *Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05) Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)			

Source: Researcher's own construction

In this case, expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents, expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment, and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials were not moderators between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of

choice, as the  $p$ -values for the interaction term were 0.9588, 0.8151, and 0.0626 respectively, and so were statistically not significant at the 5% level.

Having used both the multi-group CFA approach and Hayes' approach to assess the effect of the moderating variable in the model, the following summarises the results for hypotheses H<sub>4i</sub>, H<sub>5i</sub>, and H<sub>6i</sub>.

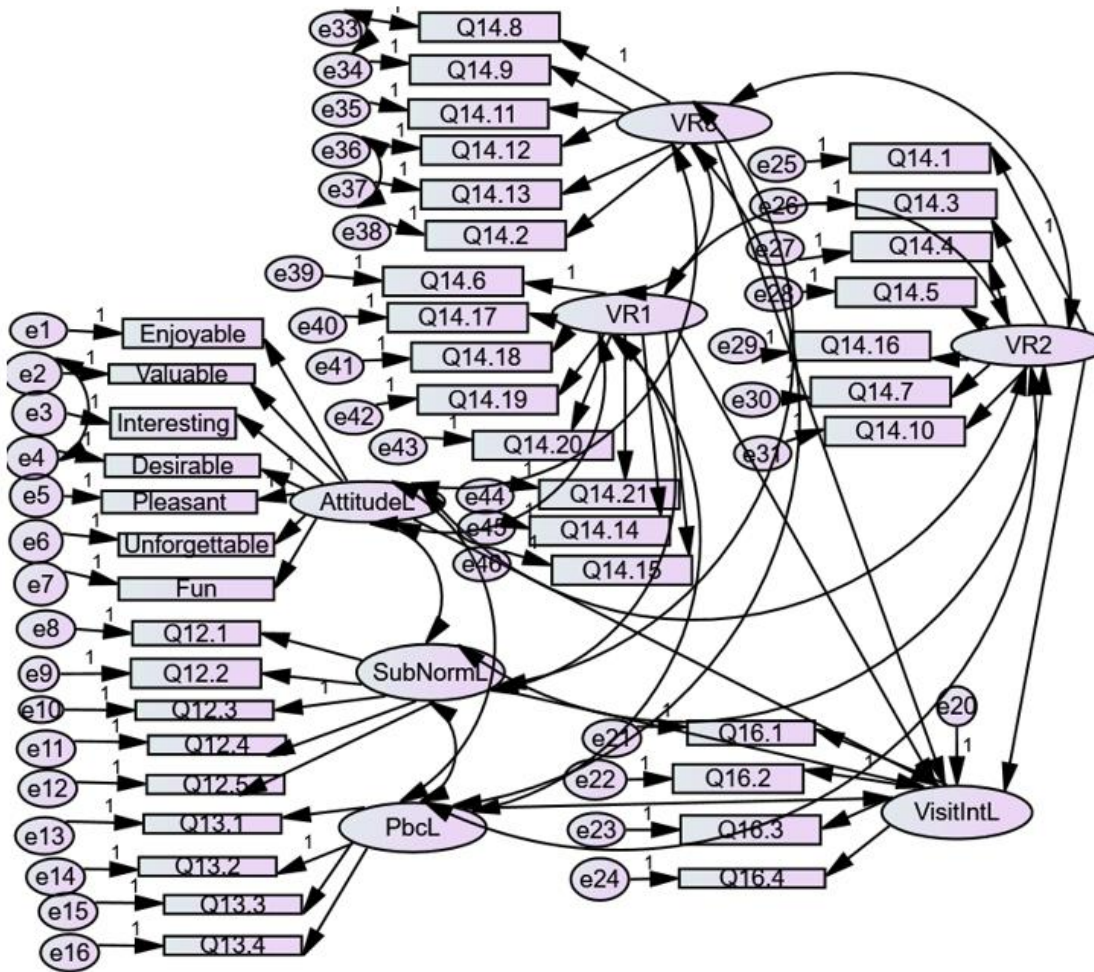
- 1) The fourth hypothesis states that visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination. For the sub-hypotheses H<sub>4ia</sub>, H<sub>4ib</sub>, and H<sub>4ic</sub>, expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents, expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment, and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials were moderators between attitude and intention to visit the destination of choice. This means that the fourth hypothesis H<sub>4i</sub> (composed of sub-hypotheses H<sub>4ia</sub>, H<sub>4ib</sub>, and H<sub>4ic</sub>) was supported.
- 2) Hypothesis 5 states that visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination. For the sub-hypotheses H<sub>5ia</sub>, H<sub>5ib</sub>, and H<sub>5ic</sub>, expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents, expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment, and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials were moderators between subjective norms and intention to visit the destination of choice. This means that the fifth hypothesis H<sub>5i</sub> (composed of sub-hypotheses H<sub>5ia</sub>, H<sub>5ib</sub>, and H<sub>5ic</sub>) was supported.
- 3) Hypothesis 6 states that visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination. Sub-hypothesis H<sub>6ia</sub> – expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents – was not a moderator between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice. Similarly, sub-hypothesis H<sub>6ib</sub> – expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment – was not a moderator between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice; and sub-hypothesis H<sub>6ic</sub> – expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials – was not a moderator between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit the destination of choice. This meant that

hypothesis 6 ( $H_{6i}$ ) (composed of sub-hypotheses  $H_{6ia}$ ,  $H_{6ib}$ , and  $H_{6ic}$ ) was not supported.

### **7.4.3 Structural model summarising hypothesis eight**

The structural model for hypothesis 8 is presented in Figure 7.17 below for the constructs using Q11.1-Q11.7 (attitude), Q12.1-Q12.5 (subjective norms), Q13.1-Q13.4 (perceived behavioural control), Q14.1-Q14.21 (expectations about visa requirements, split into expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents; expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment; and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials), and Q16.1-Q16.4 (intention to visit the destination of choice) for the observed variables. The SEM approach was used to test the model for consistency. The structural model goodness-of-fit indices are provided in Table 7.24.

**Figure 7.17: Structural model as originally hypothesised with respect to hypothesis eight for the group that had never applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 7.24 below shows the goodness-of-fit indices for structural model 1 and the improved structural model 2, structural model 3, and structural model 4. According to the set of constructs, structural model 1 did not adequately fit the model data. The RMSEA was acceptable at 0.073; however, the CFI (0.866), TLI (0.854), and IFI (0.868) were not above 0.90, signifying that the model fit was inadequate. The CMIN/df value of 1.758 was less than the conservative threshold of 3, in accordance with Schumacker and Lomax (2010); Schumacker and Lomax (2004). Since the CFI (0.866), TLI (0.854), and IFI (0.868) were below 0.90, there was a need to respecify or modify structural model 1 to fit the sample data better.

To improve the model, the following were considered: (a) modification of additional covariances; (b) removing paths that were non-statistically significant; and (c) removing items with loadings of less than 0.5. However, a theoretical justification needed to underpin this improvement, and the improved model should still depict the original structural model. Item Q14.2 was removed, as its loading was below 0.5 (Hair *et al.*, 2014).

Structural model 2 also did not adequately fit the model data. The RMSEA was acceptable at 0.074; however, the CFI (0.870), TLI (0.859), and IFI (0.872) were not above 0.90, signifying that the model fit was inadequate. The CMIN/df value of 1.768 was less than the conservative threshold of 3, in accordance with Schumacker and Lomax (2010); Schumacker and Lomax (2004). Since the CFI (0.870), TLI (0.859), and IFI (0.872) were below 0.90, there was a need to respecify or modify structural model 2 to fit the sample data better.

Structural model 3 also did not adequately fit the model data. The RMSEA was acceptable at 0.071; however, the CFI (0.884), TLI (0.873), and IFI (0.886) were not above 0.90, signifying that the model fit was inadequate. The CMIN/df value of 1.710 was less than the conservative threshold of 3 in accordance with Schumacker and Lomax (2010); Schumacker and Lomax (2004). Since the CFI (0.884), TLI (0.873), and IFI (0.886) were below 0.90, there was a need to respecify or modify structural model 3 to fit the sample data better.

When, finally, structural model 4 was fitted to the data, the goodness-of-fit did not support the structural model, as the CFI (0.891), TLI (0.881), and IFI (0.893) were still below 0.90, but only just. The RMSEA (0.068) indicated acceptable model fit; the CMIN/df indicated acceptable model fit, as the value of 1.665 was less than the conservative threshold of 3; and the SRMR (0.0634) was below the threshold of 0.08. A decision was made to accept this model fit, as any further improvements to it could have compromised the core portrayal of the original structural model.



**Table 7.24: Goodness-of-fit indices of the structural models for hypothesis eight for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Model	CMIN ( $\chi^2$ )	df	P	CMIN/df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Structural model 1	1329.26	756	0.000	1.758	0.0634	0.866	0.854	0.868	0.073
Structural model 2	1267.56	717	0.000	1.768	0.0634	0.870	0.859	0.872	0.074
Structural model 3	1159.51	678	0.000	1.710	0.0634	0.884	0.873	0.886	0.071
Structural model 4	1128.70	678	0.000	1.665	0.0634	0.891	0.881	0.893	0.068
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	< 0.08	$\geq 0.90$	$\geq 0.90$	$\geq 0.90$	$\leq 0.08$

Source: Researcher's own construction

Therefore, based on the fit indices presented in Table 7.24, the structural model for hypothesis 8 provided a satisfactory model fit; thus, one could conclude that the observed data fitted the model.

Table 7.25 provides each of the paths, the standardised regression weights, and the statistical significance for the structural model for hypothesis 8. The results showed a moderate, negative relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit the destination of choice, and it was not significant at the 5% level of significance ( $\beta = -0.344, p > 0.05$ ). The relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and intention to visit the destination of choice was positive and weak and not significant ( $\beta = 0.153, p > 0.05$ ). And the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit the destination of choice was moderate and positive and significant at the 5% level of significance ( $\beta = 0.430, p < 0.05$ ).

In simpler terms, Table 7.25 indicates expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials ( $\beta = 0.430$ ) was the strongest, positive, statistically significant predictor of visit intention, while expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents ( $\beta = -0.344$ ) and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment ( $\beta = 0.153$ ) were not statistically significant predictors of intention to visit the destination of choice. In addition, Table 7.25 indicates that there was a positive relationship between intention to visit the destination of choice and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and expectations about

visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials; at the same time, a negative relationship between intention to visit the destination of choice and expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents was also observed.

**Table 7.25: Standardised regression weights for hypothesis eight for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Standardised Regression Weights		Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	p-value	Label	Decision
Intention to visit destination of choice	Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents	-,344	,173	,083	$H_{8ia}$	Not supported
Intention to visit destination of choice	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment	,153	,163	,403	$H_{8ib}$	Not supported
Intention to visit destination of choice	Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials	,430	,205	,025	$H_{8ic}$	Supported

\*\*\*Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001)

\*\*Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)

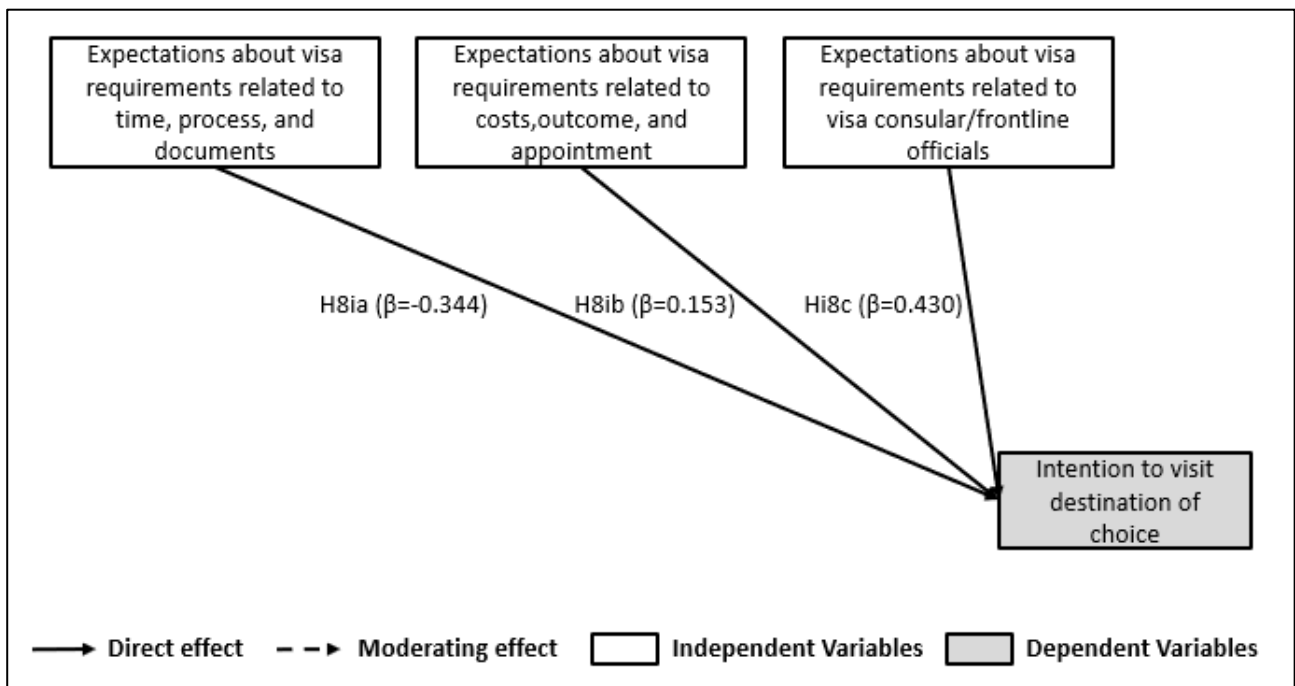
\*Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)

Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)

Source: Researcher's own construction

Hypothesis 8 was split into three sub-hypotheses to accommodate the split of visa requirements into three factors for those who had not applied for visas. These three sub-hypotheses resulted in additions to hypothesis 8:  $H_{8a}$ ,  $H_{8b}$ ,  $H_{8c}$ . The refined structural model with the visa requirements sub-hypotheses is illustrated in Figure 7.18.

**Figure 7.18: Refined hypothesised relationships diagram based on three expectations about visa requirements sub-hypotheses for the group that had never applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

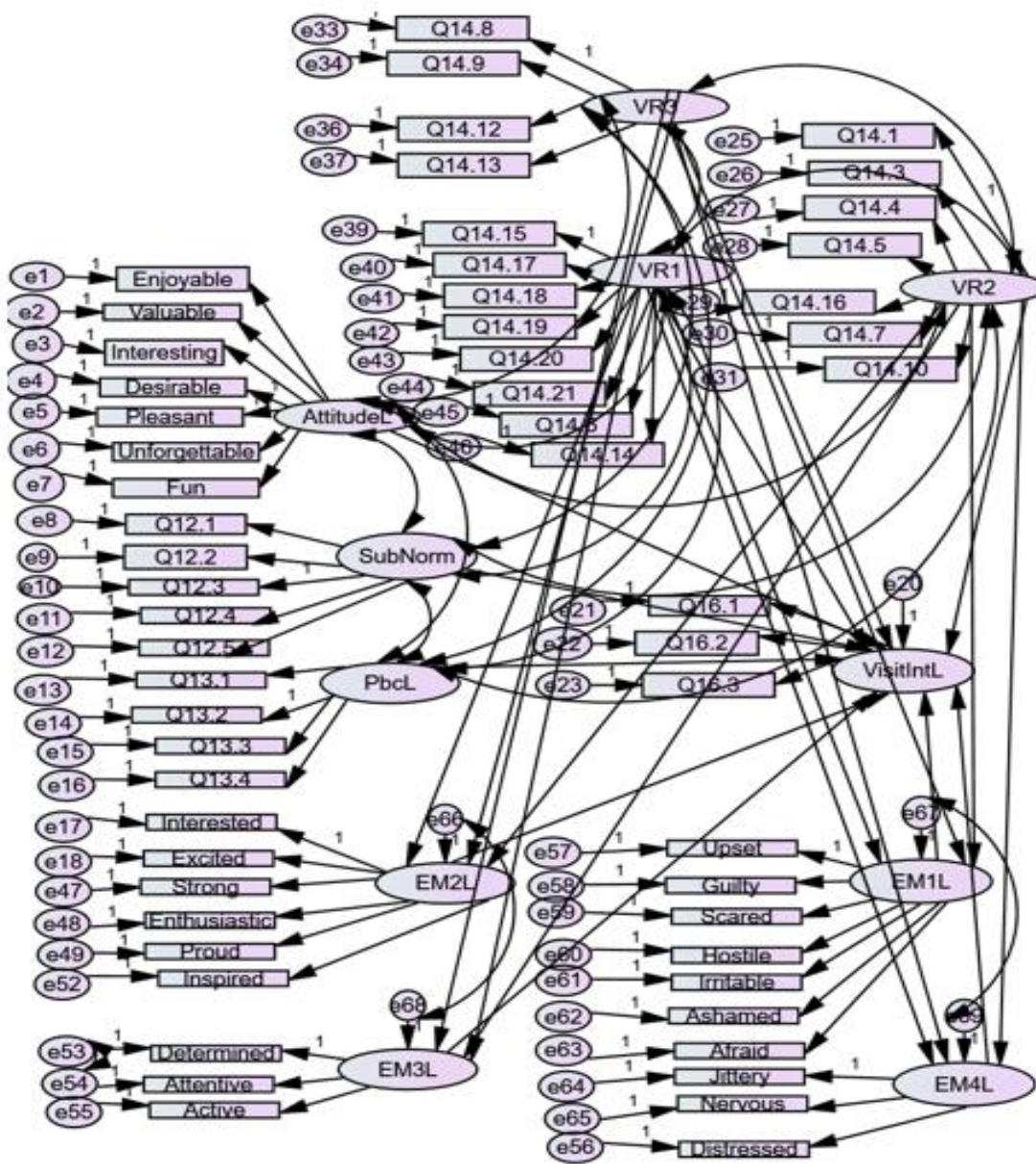
Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{8ia}$ ) and hypothesis ( $H_{8ib}$ ) were not supported, while hypothesis ( $H_{8ic}$ ) was supported.

#### 7.4.4 Structural model summarising hypotheses seven and nine

Hypothesis 7 states that there is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, while hypothesis nine states that there is a relationship between the emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination. The structural model is presented in Figure 7.19 for the constructs using Q11.1-Q11.7 (attitude), Q12.1-Q12.5 (subjective norms), Q13.1-Q13.4 (perceived behavioural control), Q14.1-Q14.21 (expectations about visa requirements, split into expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents; expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment; and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials), Q15.1-

Q15.20 (emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, split into emotion of feeling upset, emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm, emotion of feeling determined, and emotion of feeling distress), and Q16.1-Q16.4 (intention to visit the destination of choice) for the observed variables. The structural model goodness-of-fit indices are provided in Table 7.26.

**Figure 7.19: Structural model as originally hypothesised with respect to hypotheses seven and nine for the group that had never applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

The model fit statistics showed that hypothesised model 1 did not adequately fit the model data. In this sample, the RMSEA value of 0.074 indicated an acceptable fit. However, three indices – CFI (0.787), TLI (0.775), and IFI (0.790) – were below the 0.90 threshold for a good model fit. The CMIN/df value of 1.784 was less than the conservative threshold of 3, which indicated an acceptable fit, in accordance with Schumacker and Lomax (2010); Schumacker and Lomax (2004). Based on these indices, there was a meaningful justification to modify structural model 1 to fit the sample data better.

To improve the model, the following were considered: (a) modification of additional covariances; (b) removing paths that were not statistically significant; and (c) removing items with factor loadings lower than 0.5. However, a theoretical justification needed to underpin this improvement, and the improved model should still depict the original structural model. Items Q14.2 and Q16.4 were removed, as the loadings were below 0.5 (Hair *et al.*, 2014).

Structural model 2 also did not adequately fit the model data. The RMSEA value of 0.068 was below 0.08, which did indicate an acceptable fit. The SRMR value of 0.0868 was also above the 0.08 threshold, which did not indicate an acceptable fit. Also, three indices – CFI (0.835), TLI (0.825), and IFI (0.837) – were slightly below the 0.90 threshold, which did not indicate an acceptable fit. The CMIN/df value of 1.654 was less than the conservative threshold of 3, which indicated an acceptable fit, in accordance with Schumacker and Lomax (2010); Schumacker and Lomax (2004). Thus, based on these indices, structural model 2 did not have an acceptable fit to the model data because the CFI, TLI and IFI values were all below the 0.9 threshold and the SRMR was above the 0.08 threshold. Thus, there was enough evidence not to accept structural model 2 as an acceptable fit to the model data.

When the final structural model (model 3) was fitted to the data, the goodness-of-fit did not support it, as the CFI (0.824), TLI (0.813), and IFI (0.827) were still below the 0.90 threshold for a good model fit. The RMSEA (0.070) indicated acceptable model fit. The CMIN/df value of 1.698 was less than the conservative threshold of 3, which indicated an acceptable fit, in accordance with Schumacker and Lomax (2010); Schumacker and Lomax (2004). However, since trying to improve the model might have unintentionally compromised the core portrayal of the original structural model, it was decided to accept this model fit.

**Table 7.26: Goodness-of-fit indices of the structural model for hypotheses seven and nine for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Model	CMIN ( $x^2$ )	df	P	CMIN/ df	SRMR	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Structural model 1	2997.19	1680	0.000	1.784	0.0634	0.787	0.775	0.790	0.074
Structural model 2	2487.53	1504	0.000	1.654	0.0868	0.835	0.825	0.837	0.068
Structural model 3	2546.98	1500	0.000	1.698	0.0883	0.824	0.813	0.827	0.070
Recommended fit indices	-	-	-	<3	< 0.08	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≤ 0.08

Source: Researcher's own construction

Table 7.27 below provides each of the paths, the standardised regression weights, and the statistical significance for the structural model for hypothesis 7 and hypothesis 9. Table 7.27 indicates that the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and emotions of feeling excitement/enthusiasm as a result of the visa application process was moderate, positive and statistically significant at the 5% level of significance ( $\beta = 0.364, p < 0.05$ ). The relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and emotions of feeling distress as a result of the visa application process was negative, moderate and statistically significant ( $\beta = -0.392, p < 0.05$ ). The relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and emotions of feeling upset as a result of the visa application process was negative, moderate and statistically significant ( $\beta = -0.375, p < 0.05$ ). The relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and emotions of feeling excitement/enthusiasm as a result of the visa application process was positive, moderate and statistically significant ( $\beta = 0.387, p < 0.01$ ). The relationship between emotions of feeling excitement/enthusiasm as a result of the visa application process and intention to visit a destination was positive, moderate and statistically significant ( $\beta = 0.479, p < 0.05$ ).

**Table 7.27: Standardised regression weights for hypotheses seven and nine for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Standardised Regression Weights			Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	p-value	Label	Decision
Upset emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents	-,349	,158	,058	$H_{7ia1}$	Not supported
Excitement/enthusiasm emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents	,364	,132	,031	$H_{7ia2}$	Supported
Determined emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents	,289	,138	,183	$H_{7ia3}$	Not supported
Distress emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents	-,219	,127	,293	$H_{7ia4}$	Not supported
Upset emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment	,182	,114	,237	$H_{7ib1}$	Not supported
Excitement/enthusiasm emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment	-,030	,092	,825	$H_{7ib2}$	Not supported
Determined emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment	,011	,098	,952	$H_{7ib3}$	Not supported
Distress emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment	-,392	,096	,031	$H_{7ib4}$	Supported
Upset emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials	-,375	,151	,012	$H_{7ic1}$	Supported
Excitement/enthusiasm emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials	,387	,127	,005	$H_{7ic2}$	Supported
Determined emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials	,186	,129	,280	$H_{7ic3}$	Not supported
Distress emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	<---	Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials	-,006	,118	,973	$H_{7ic4}$	Not supported
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Upset emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	-,061	,446	,885	$H_{9ia}$	Not supported
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Excitement/enthusiasm emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	,479	,271	,041	$H_{9ib}$	Supported
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Determined emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	,037	,278	,850	$H_{9ic}$	Not supported
Intention to visit destination of choice	<---	Distress emotion triggered as a result of visa application process	,008	,667	,985	$H_{9id}$	Not supported

\*\*\*Significance at 0.1% level of significance (p-value < 0.001)

\*\*Significance at 1% level of significance (p-value < 0.01)

\*Significance at 5% level of significance (p-value < 0.05)

Significance at 10% level of significance (p-value < 0.1)

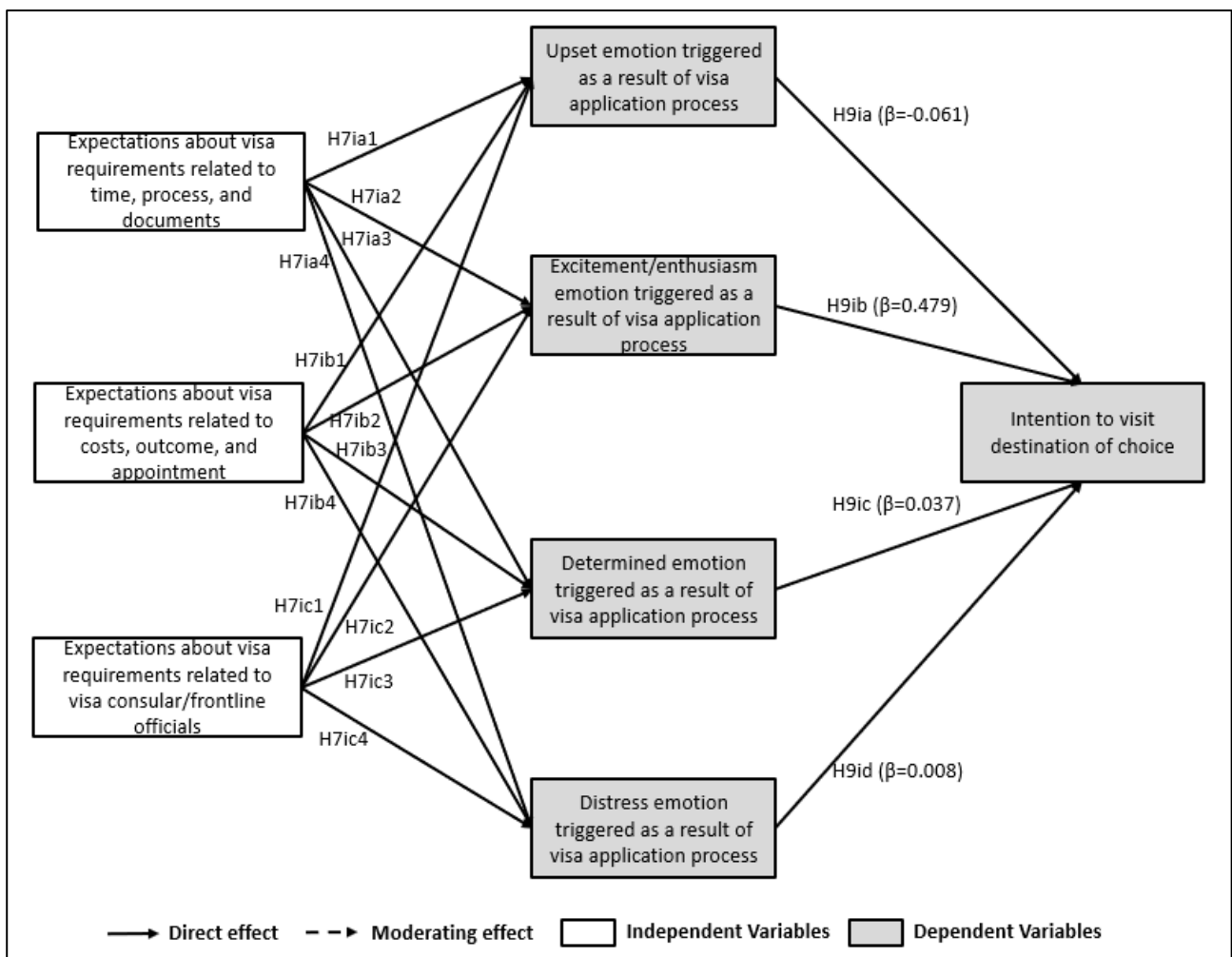
Source: Researcher's own construction

The results reported in Table 7.27 represent a summary of the results for hypothesis 7 and hypothesis 9 ( $H_{7i}$ , and  $H_{9i}$ ). Hypothesis 7 states that there is a relationship between the expectations that tourists have of visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, while hypothesis nine states that there is a relationship between the emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

Hypothesis 7 ( $H_{7i}$ ) was split into three sub-hypotheses ( $H_{7ia}$ ,  $H_{7ib}$ ,  $H_{7ic}$ ) to accommodate the split of expectations about visa requirements into three factors. These three sub-hypotheses were further split into twelve additions to hypothesis 7i:  $H_{7ia1}$ ,  $H_{7ia2}$ ,  $H_{7ia3}$ ,  $H_{7ia4}$ ,  $H_{7ib1}$ ,  $H_{7ib2}$ ,  $H_{7ib3}$ ,  $H_{7ib4}$ ,  $H_{7ic1}$ ,  $H_{7ic2}$ ,  $H_{7ic3}$ ,  $H_{7ic4}$ .

Similarly, hypothesis nine ( $H_{9i}$ ) was split into four sub-hypotheses ( $H_{9ia}$ ,  $H_{9ib}$ ,  $H_{9ic}$ ,  $H_{9id}$ ) to accommodate the split of emotions triggered as a result of visa application process into four factors. These sub-hypotheses  $H_{9ia}$ ,  $H_{9ib}$ ,  $H_{9ic}$ , and  $H_{9id}$  did not have additional sub-hypotheses. The refined structural model with visa requirements and emotions sub-hypotheses is illustrated in Figure 7.20.

**Figure 7.20: Refined hypothesised relationships diagram based on two visa requirements and two emotions sub-hypotheses for the group that had never applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

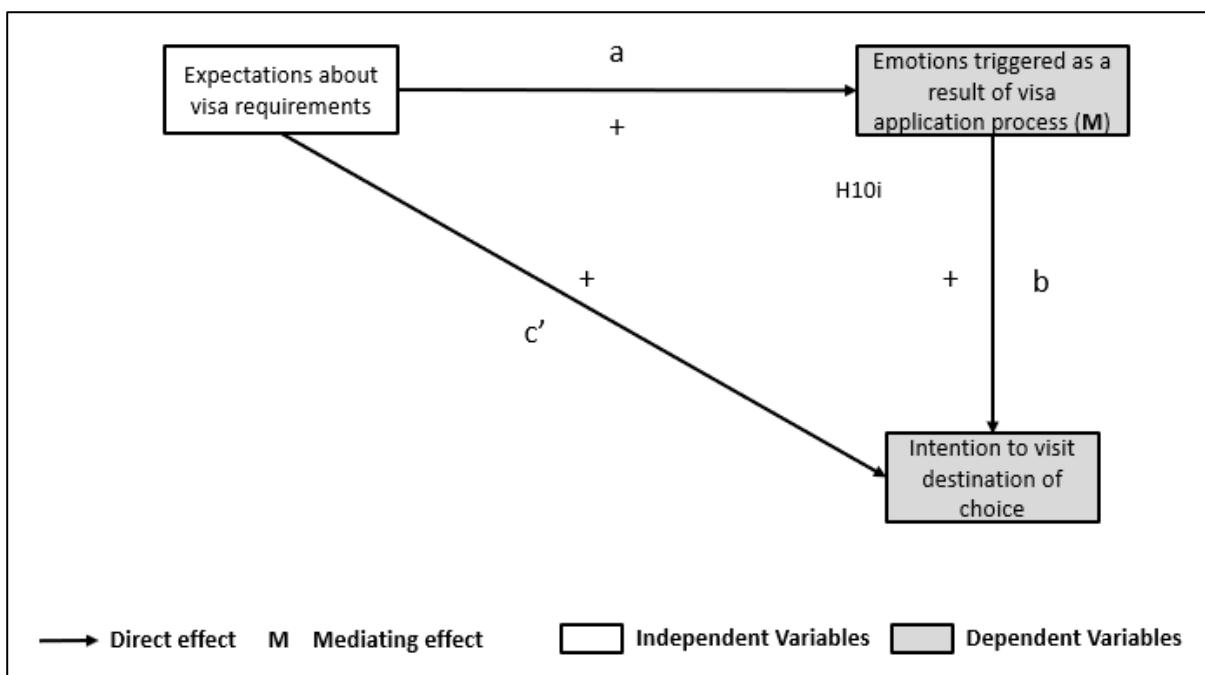
### 7.4.5 Results for hypothesis ten

The results reported in Table 7.28 below summarise the results for hypothesis 10 ( $H_{10i}$ ), as illustrated in Figure 7.22. Hypothesis 10 states that a tourist's emotions that are triggered as



a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination, as shown in Figure 7.22. Visa requirements as a stimulus variable was measured by expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents with eight items; expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment with seven items; and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials with six items; while intention to visit the destination of choice was measured by four items. Emotions triggered as a result of the visa application was measured by emotion of feeling upset with eight items, emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm with six items, emotion of feeling determined with three items, and emotion of feeling distress with two items.

**Figure 7.21: Hypothesised path diagram based on emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process as a mediator between expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit the destination of choice for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

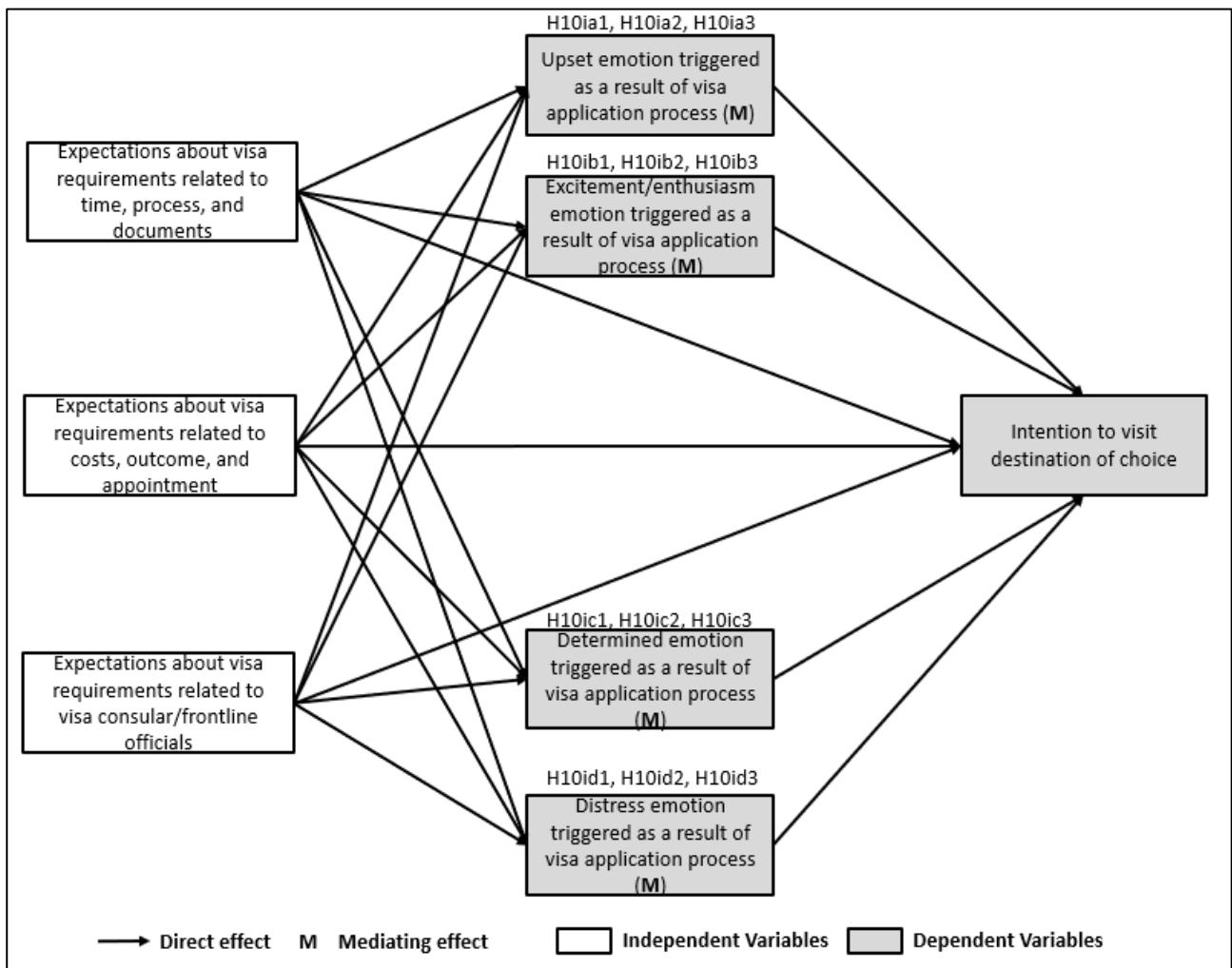


Source: Researcher's own construction

Hypothesis 10 ( $H_{10i}$ ) was split into four sub-hypotheses ( $H_{10ia}$ ,  $H_{10ib}$ ,  $H_{10ic}$ ,  $H_{10id}$ ) to accommodate the split of emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process into four factors. These four sub-hypotheses were further split into twelve additional sub-

hypotheses: H<sub>10ia1</sub>, H<sub>10ia2</sub>, H<sub>10ia3</sub>, H<sub>10ib1</sub>, H<sub>10ib2</sub>, H<sub>10ib3</sub>, H<sub>10ic1</sub>, H<sub>10ic2</sub>, H<sub>10ic3</sub>, H<sub>10id1</sub>, H<sub>10id2</sub>, H<sub>10id3</sub>. In order to test the significance of the added sub-hypotheses H<sub>10ia1</sub>, H<sub>10ia2</sub>, H<sub>10ia3</sub>, H<sub>10ib1</sub>, H<sub>10ib2</sub>, H<sub>10ib3</sub>, H<sub>10ic1</sub>, H<sub>10ic2</sub>, H<sub>10ic3</sub>, H<sub>10id1</sub>, H<sub>10id2</sub>, and H<sub>10id3</sub>, as shown in Figure 7.22, a mediation analysis was carried out using the bootstrapping method (Hair *et al.*, 2019). The test was constructed on a 95% bias-corrected confidence interval and 1 000 samples of bootstrap. Hayes (2017) stated that the indirect effect is significant, and that mediation is supported if the confidence interval does not include 0.

**Figure 7.22: Refined hypothesised relationships based on four emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process as a mediator between three expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit the destination of choice for the group that had never applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

The results in Table 7.28 showed that:

- 1) Hypothesis (H<sub>10ia1</sub>) states that a tourist's upset emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination. The results showed an insignificant mediating role of upset emotions triggered as a result of visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10ia1</sub>) was not supported.
- 2) Hypothesis (H<sub>10ia2</sub>) states that a tourist's upset emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and intention to visit a destination. The results showed an insignificant mediating role of upset emotions triggered as a result of visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10ia2</sub>) was not supported.
- 3) Hypothesis (H<sub>10ia3</sub>) states that a tourist's upset emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination. The results showed an insignificant mediating role of upset emotions triggered as a result of visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10ia3</sub>) was not supported.
- 4) Hypothesis (H<sub>10ib1</sub>) states that a tourist's excitement/enthusiasm emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination. The results showed a significant mediating role of excitement/enthusiasm emotions triggered as a result of visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10ib1</sub>) was supported.
- 5) Hypothesis (H<sub>10ib2</sub>) states that a tourist's excitement/enthusiasm emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between

expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and intention to visit a destination. The results showed a significant mediating role of excitement/enthusiasm emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10ib2</sub>) was supported.

- 6) Hypothesis (H<sub>10ib3</sub>) states that a tourist's excitement/enthusiasm emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination. The results showed a significant mediating role of excitement/enthusiasm emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10ib3</sub>) was supported.
- 7) Hypothesis (H<sub>10ic1</sub>) states that a tourist's determined emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination. The results showed a significant mediating role of determined emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10ic1</sub>) was supported.
- 8) Hypothesis (H<sub>10ic2</sub>) states that a tourist's determined emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and intention to visit a destination. The results showed a significant mediating role of determined emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10ic2</sub>) was supported.
- 9) Hypothesis (H<sub>10ic3</sub>) states that a tourist's determined emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit

a destination. The results showed a significant mediating role of determined emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10ic3</sub>) was supported.

- 10) Hypothesis (H<sub>10id1</sub>) states that a tourist's distress emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination. The results showed an insignificant mediating role of distress emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10id1</sub>) was not supported.
- 11) Hypothesis (H<sub>10id2</sub>) states that a tourist's distress emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and intention to visit a destination. The results showed an insignificant mediating role of distress emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10d2</sub>) was not supported.
- 12) Hypothesis (H<sub>10id3</sub>) states that a tourist's distress emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination. The results showed an insignificant mediating role of distress emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the linkage between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit the destination of choice; thus, hypothesis (H<sub>10id3</sub>) was not supported.

Note in Table 7.28:

**VR1:** Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents

**VR2:** Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment

**VR3:** Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials

**EM1:** Upset emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process

**EM2:** Excitement/enthusiasm emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process

**EM3:** Determined emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process

**EM4:** Distress emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process

**VI:** Intention to visit the destination of choice

**Table 7.28: Structural parameter estimates based on emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process as a mediator between expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit the destination of choice for the group that had never applied for a visa before**

Relationships	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Confidence interval		P-value	Label	Conclusion
			Lower bound	Upper bound			
VR1 > EM1 > VI	0.161	0.041	-0.044	0.136	0.000	H10ia1	No Mediation
VR2 > EM1 > VI	0.243	0.025	-0.011	0.085	0.001	H10ia2	No Mediation
VR3 > EM1 > VI	0.250	0.035	-0.024	0.123	0.000	H10ia3	No Mediation
VR1 > EM2 > VI	-0.009	0.210	0.079	0.337	0.000	H10ib1	Mediation
VR2 > EM2 > VI	0.141	0.127	0.043	0.221	0.000	H10ib2	Mediation
VR3 > EM2 > VI	0.111	0.175	0.070	0.306	0.000	H10ib3	Mediation
VR1 > EM3 > VI	0.104	0.098	0.035	0.178	0.000	H10ic1	Mediation
VR2 > EM3 > VI	0.200	0.068	0.020	0.134	0.001	H10ic2	Mediation
VR3 > EM3 > VI	0.205	0.080	0.019	0.159	0.002	H10ic3	Mediation
VR1 > EM4 > VI	0.191	0.010	-0.040	0.065	0.000	H10id1	No Mediation
VR2 > EM4 > VI	0.270	-0.002	-0.047	0.046	0.000	H10id2	No Mediation
VR3 > EM4 > VI	0.277	0.009	-0.034	0.065	0.000	H10id3	No Mediation

Source: Researcher's own construction

## 7.5 CONCLUSION

The focal point of this chapter was to present structural models and the results obtained from the empirical study, based on the research objectives and postulated hypotheses. The chapter began with a discussion of the proposed theoretical model, followed by the presentation of the structural models and all the hypotheses testing results for the group that had applied for a visa before. The chapter ended with the presentation of the structural models and all the hypotheses testing results for the group that had never applied for a visa before. The next chapter provides a discussion of the research conclusions.

# CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 8.1 INTRODUCTION

When tourists select an international destination to visit, the ease of obtaining a visa is seen as an important consideration. However, when the visa application process is perceived as burdensome and emotionally stressful, it can discourage tourists from participating in international tourism. Research to date has paid little attention to the relationship between visa requirements and visit intention. Another aspect that is overlooked in the literature is the influence of the visa application process on a tourist's emotions, as well as whether these emotional responses that were triggered as a result of the visa application process influence the tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice.

Using the theory of planned behaviour and the stimulus-organism-response model, this study aims to understand the relationships between visa requirements expectations, the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, and a tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice. More specifically, the research study investigates the moderating effect of expectations about visa requirements on the relationships between the TPB-based predictor variables (subjective norms, attitude, perceived behavioural control) and the intention to visit a destination of choice, and the mediating effect of the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and the intention to visit a destination of choice by using the S-O-R model. To achieve this aim, the following seven research objectives guide this study to achieve its purpose:

- 1) To explore the requirements of obtaining a visa during the visa application process.
- 2) To assess the emotions that tourists experience during the visa application process.
- 3) To measure the relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination.



- 4) To investigate the moderating effect of visa requirements expectations on the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination.
- 5) To measure the relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.
- 6) To establish whether a relationship exists between a tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.
- 7) To examine the mediating effect of the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination.
- 8) To compare the group that has applied for visas before, against the group that has not applied for visas before.

This study adopted a mixed-methods sequential exploratory design (qualitative research and quantitative research) under a post-positivist paradigm. The target population for the qualitative phase was South African citizens living in South Africa and aged eighteen years or older, who had applied for visas before, and those who had never applied for visas before for holiday purposes. The target population for the quantitative phase was South African citizens living in South Africa and aged eighteen years or older who planned to travel internationally in the next three years. Therefore, individuals who had applied for visas before and those who had never applied for visas before were included in both target populations. Purposive sampling was used in the qualitative phase, while in the quantitative phase, convenience sampling was used to collect data from the respondents. The primary data collection method for the qualitative phase was focus group interviews, while for the quantitative phase, an online self-administered questionnaire was developed.

In terms of data analysis for the qualitative phase, content analysis was used to analyse the narrative data from the focus groups. For the quantitative phase, a structural equation modelling (SEM) approach was used to test the study's proposed conceptual model.

This chapter summarises the thesis by demonstrating how the research objectives were achieved, whether the hypotheses were supported, and how the study might contribute to

theory, practice, management, and the wider visa requirements setting. This chapter revisits and interprets the main research aims and objectives before discussing the hypotheses testing. The chapter then addresses the theoretical and practical contributions of the study. Finally, the chapter reflects on the research's limitations, makes suggestions for future research, and offers concluding remarks.

## **8.2 ACHIEVEMENT OF THE STUDY'S RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The research objectives described below were formulated to support the achievement of the study aim. Using the TPB and S-O-R model, the study aimed to understand the relationships between visa requirements expectations, the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, and a tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice. More specifically, the research study investigated the moderating effect of expectations about visa requirements on the relationships between the TPB-based predictor variables (subjective norms, attitude, and perceived behavioural control) and intention to visit a destination of choice, and the mediating effect of emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit a destination of choice by using the S-O-R model.

### **Objective 1: To explore the requirements of obtaining a visa during the visa application process**

The literature discusses several requirements for obtaining a visa during the visa application process. For example, Duerrmeier Rizzi (2014) mentioned the visa processing/ application time, the cost of visas, the required embassy visits, the chance of denial, and the number of documents required. Several additional requirements were identified in the literature, and were summarised in Table 2.5. To measure the influence of expectations about visa requirements on a tourist's emotions and their visit intention, as well as the moderating effect of expectations about visa requirements on the relationship between the TPB-based predictor variables and intention to visit a destination of choice, an exhaustive list of requirements was needed. Since it was unclear whether the list summarised in Table 2.5. was exhaustive, focus groups were conducted to explore expectations about visa requirements further.

Certain expected visa requirements emerged from the responses during the focus groups, and were summarised in Table 6.10 in Chapter 6. Two additional visa requirements that were not mentioned in the literature were identified during the focus groups: a manual application process instead of online, and applying for a longer validity visa, only to be issued with a shorter validity visa. These two items were added to the items listed in Table 2.5 in section 2.7.3 of the literature review, and included in the scale to be tested in the questionnaire.

The responses from the quantitative online questionnaire showed that the respondents had the highest expectations for the following:

- After a decision has been made regarding a visa application, the passport will be released without delay (80.9%).
- Frontline officials (staff) will make me feel like a legitimate tourist (82.4%).
- Frontline officials (staff) will respect my privacy (83.6%).
- The visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission or consulate will adhere to their booked appointment/interview time (84.0%).
- The visa application process will be fair (86.9%).

To reduce the data, and to ascertain whether there were underlying factors that represented respondents' visa requirements expectations, an EFA was performed. As a result of the EFA, two factors were identified and labelled "expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness" and "expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome" for the group that had applied for a visa before. As shown in Table 6.35 in section 6.3.3, the mean score for the expectations of visa requirements related to time and fairness was 5.6514, while the mean score for expectations related to costs, appointment, and outcome was 4.9051. Similarly, for the group that had never applied for a visa before, three factors were identified and labelled "expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents", "expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment", and "expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials". As indicated by Table 6.38 in section 6.3.3, the mean score for the expectations of visa requirements related to time, process, and documents was 5.9065; the mean score for expectations of visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment was 5.1279; and the mean score for expectations related to visa consular/

frontline officials was 5.9977. From the mean scores it was evident that both groups tended to lean towards the right-hand adjectives of the scale; therefore, it was clear that the respondents had more lenient expectations of the visa requirements.

## **Objective 2: To assess the emotions that tourists experience during the visa application process**

Chapter 3 set out to understand tourists' emotions resulting from the visa application process as well as how these emotional responses influenced their visit intentions. Despite many tourism experiences being positive, Biran, Poria and Oren (2011); Liu (2016) argue that some tourism experiences are unpleasant because they give rise to negative emotions such as anger or sadness. Negative emotional responses such as sadness, depression, or anger are common during the visa application process (Jasso *et al.*, 2005). This study used the PANAS scale to assess the emotions that tourists experience as a result of the visa application process. PANAS hypothesises 20 primary emotions split into positive emotions (alert, enthusiastic, interested, active, strong, proud, determined, attentive, excited, and inspired) and negative emotions (angry, nervous, afraid, upset, jittery, guilty, ashamed, irritable, distressed, and hostile). Since emotions had not been measured in the context of visa applications before, it was necessary to verify the applicability of the PANAS scale. During the focus groups, certain emotions emerged from the responses; these are summarised in Table 6.18 in Chapter 6. It became clear that no additional emotions would be identified during the focus groups, and that the PANAS scale was appropriate to be used in the context of visa applications.

Based on the questionnaire results, the visa application process triggered high levels of the following emotions: excited (76.4%), proud (74.5%), inspired (72.3%), determined (71.2%), interested (68.7%), attentive (68.2%), enthusiastic (65.1%), active (67.1%), strong (57.7%), and alert (53.6%). Since the PANAS scale is established, a CFA was first performed for the group that had applied for a visa before and for the group that had not applied for a visa before. The model fit statistics for both groups had a close but not acceptable fit to the model; and trying to improve the model might have unintentionally compromised the core portrayal of the original hypothesised model. It was therefore decided to conduct an EFA to determine the underlying dimensionality of the data.

For the group that had applied for a visa before, two factors were identified and labelled 'negative emotions' and 'positive emotions'. As indicated in Table 6.42 in section 6.3.3, the mean score for the negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process was 3.9050, while the mean score for the positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process was 2.2146. Similarly, for the group that had never applied for a visa before, four factors were identified: 'emotion of feeling upset', 'emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm', 'emotion of feeling determined', and 'emotion of feeling distress'. As shown in section 6.3.3, the mean score for the emotions of feeling upset as a result of the visa application process was 1.7273, the mean score for the emotions of feeling excitement/enthusiasm was 4.1585, the mean score for emotions of feeling determined was 4.0862, and the mean score for emotions of feeling distress was 2.3683. Therefore, from the mean scores, it was evident that the group that had applied for a visa before expected the visa application process to trigger higher levels of negative emotions than the group that had not applied for visas before expected. At the same time, the group that had not applied for visas before expected the visa application process to trigger a higher level of positive emotions than the group that had applied for a visa before expected.

**Objective 3: To measure the relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination**

Objective 3 was met by testing hypothesis 8. The third link in the S-O-R model connects the environmental stimuli to the response component and, in this study, it relates to expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit a destination of choice. From the literature it was clear that visa requirements are one of the most unpleasant parts of planning international travel because they can determine whether or not a tourist can visit their desired destination choice (Rahim & Daud, 2012). This was echoed by Whyte (2008), who argued that visa requirements play an important role in international tourism, as they control tourists' behaviour of travelling to their desired destinations. Therefore, the thought of having to obtain a visa, particularly during the planning stage, can lead to dissatisfaction even before tourists embark on their holiday (Neumayer, 2010). Thus, one could argue that tourists' expectation of lenient visa requirements could stimulate their desire to visit a destination, while the expectation of strict visa requirements could discourage their intention

to visit the destination of choice. Based on this argument, the following hypothesis was formulated:

**Hypothesis 8:** There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination.

A detailed discussion of the testing of the hypothesis will follow in section 8.5.3.

**Objective 4: To investigate the moderating effect of visa requirements expectations on the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination**

Objective 4 was met by testing hypotheses 4, 5, and 6. Before testing the moderating effect of visa requirements on the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination, it was first necessary to test the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination. Therefore hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 were formulated.

**Hypothesis 1:** There is a relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

**Hypothesis 2:** There is a relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.

**Hypothesis 3:** There is a relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.

Several studies (Ajzen, 1991; Awan *et al.*, 2015; Cheng *et al.*, 2006; Song *et al.*, 2017; Sreen *et al.*, 2018; Yeo *et al.*, 2017) have demonstrated that attitude has a positive effect on an individual's intention to carry out a behaviour. This means that a tourist's positive attitude concerning a particular behaviour reinforces their intention to carry out that behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Hence, tourists' intention to visit a destination is typically a result of their positive attitude towards that destination. It was also found that visa requirements are one of the most unpleasant parts of planning international travel because they controls tourists' behaviour of travelling to desired destinations (Rahim & Daud, 2012; Whyte, 2008). On the one hand, "one's expectation of visa-free entry to a certain country possibly stimulates a

favourable attitude towards visiting the country and increases the likelihood of a decision to travel to the country” (Han *et al.*, 2011:54). On the other hand, the thought of having to obtain a visa, particularly during the planning stage, might lead to dissatisfaction about the destination even before tourists have embarked on their holiday (Neumayer, 2010). Therefore, in the context of this study, one could argue that tourists who expect lenient or relaxed visa requirements might form a more favourable attitude and an intention to visit the desired destination. In the same way, tourists who expect stricter visa requirements might form a less favourable attitude and an unwillingness to visit the desired destination. This assertion led to the formulation of hypothesis 4 of this study.

**Hypothesis 4:** Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist’s attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

Without sufficient information about a destination they have not formerly visited, most tourists find it difficult to know about the conditions of the country they intend to visit (Hakala *et al.*, 2013). They depend on the opinions of people who are important to them, such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors. Therefore, when planning to visit a holiday destination, the opinions of people who are important to the tourist are the most commonly pursued source of information (Bansal & Voyer, 2000; Bieger & Laesser, 2004; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). According to Han *et al.* (2011), if a destination succeeded in increasing visitors’ favourable experiences, it could encourage them to spread positive word-of-mouth about the destination and discourage any negative word-of-mouth, which in turn could lead to an enhancement of subjective norms, because such visitors could be significant sources of referrals for potential visitors.

In line with this notion, visa requirements could serve the same purpose. In other words, if a destination could succeed in increasing visitors’ favourable experiences of the visa application process, it could encourage them to spread positive word-of-mouth about the destination and its visa requirements. This could in turn lead to an enhancement of subjective norms, because such visitors could be significant sources of referrals for potential tourists. The opposite is also true in that, if visitors have a negative visa application experience, it might make them spread negative word-of-mouth to potential travellers about the destination. In line with this view, if important people in the lives of prospective travellers have experienced a negative visa application process, it might influence them not to

recommend visiting the destination. Therefore, it could be presumed that, if the tourist trusts the opinions of people such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors who perceive visiting a specific destination (with visa requirements) as a recommendable behaviour, the tourist's visit intention to that destination would be likely to increase; and the opposite is also true. This assertion led to the formulation of the fifth hypothesis of this study.

**Hypothesis 5:** Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.

Perceived behavioural control is the tourist's perception of how difficult or easy it is to perform a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, when planning to visit a holiday destination, the availability or unavailability of necessary resources such as time and finances influences the tourist's visit intention to a destination (Karl, 2018; Karl *et al.*, 2015; Montano & Kasprzyk, 2015; Song *et al.*, 2017). It has been found by several studies (Chen *et al.*, 2021b; Czaika & Hobolth, 2014; Lawson & Roychoudhury, 2016; Liu & McKercher, 2014; Tse, 2015) that visa requirements act as a barrier to visiting a destination, making it more difficult for a tourist to visit the destination. It could be argued that visa requirements strengthen the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit a destination of choice, since they act as an additional barrier, making it difficult to perform the behaviour (visit the destination) – and it also takes away some of the tourist's control over decision-making. This assertion led to the formulation of hypothesis 6 of this study.

**Hypothesis 6:** Visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.

A detailed discussion of the testing of hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 will follow in section 8.5.2.

**Objective 5: To measure the relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process**

The first link in the S-O-R model connects the environmental stimuli to the organism construct; and in this study, it relates to expectations about visa requirements and the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process. Seminara (2008) recognised that “being refused a visa is a very emotional experience for many visa applicants”



(Seminara, 2008:7). Özdemir and Ayata (2018) found that many nationals from Turkey whose visa applications had been refused perceived Schengen tourist visa requirements as emotionally damaging, difficult, discriminatory, and unjust. Hence, one could argue that, upon knowing whether they require a visa to visit their destination of choice during the planning process in the pre-trip stage, tourists might experience emotional responses. Based on this, the following hypothesis was formulated:

**Hypothesis 7:** There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.

A detailed discussion of the testing of hypothesis 7 will follow in section 8.5.4.

**Objective 6: To establish whether a relationship exists between a tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination**

The second link in the S-O-R model connects the organism construct to the response construct; and in this study, it relates to the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process and intention to visit a destination of choice. Bagozzi and Pieters (1998) argued that, before performing the actual behaviour, tourists develop emotions constructed on the anticipated consequences of a certain behaviour. Some authors established that the anticipated emotional responses resulting from performing a particular behaviour were a direct driver of behavioural intentions (Bagozzi, 2007; Pligt & De Vries, 1998). In the context of this study, tourists' visit intention is likely to increase when the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process are positive. Similarly, tourists' visit intention is likely to decrease when the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process are negative. Based on this finding, the following hypothesis was formulated:

**Hypothesis 9:** There is a relationship between the emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

A detailed discussion of the testing of hypothesis 9 will follow in section 8.5.4.

**Objective 7: To examine the mediating effect of the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination**

In relation to the S-O-R model, the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements (environmental stimulus) and intention to visit a destination of choice (response). Several related studies have examined emotion as a mediating construct, including that of Biswas *et al.* (2020), where a positive emotion partially mediated between destination attributes and customer satisfaction. According to Patwardhan, Ribeiro, Payini, Woosnam, Mallya and Gopalakrishnan (2020), emotions partially mediated between the place's identity and destination loyalty. Other than exerting a direct impact on tourists' intention to visit a destination, the expectations about visa requirements indirectly influenced visit intentions through the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process. Based on this, the following hypothesis was formulated:

**Hypothesis 10:** A tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination.

A detailed discussion of the testing of hypothesis 10 will follow in section 8.5.5.

In the next section, the proposed conceptual model developed in Chapter 4 is discussed; thereafter the hypotheses representing the relationships between the constructs in the model are revisited, after which a tested model is provided.

**Objective 8: To compare the group that has applied for visas before, against the group that has not applied for visas before.**

Individuals who have not applied for visas before have no experience of the process, and therefore the expectations that they have and the emotions that they expect to be triggered by the visa application process might be different from those who have applied for a visa before. Therefore, it was important to consider the experiences of both groups, since it can assist in developing more robust theories and models of human behaviour in destination choice, as well as potentially informing future policy objectives. Several independent sample

t-tests were performed to test whether the differences between the groups were statistically significant for each statement in the questionnaire. Out of 61, 22 items were statistically significant for the two groups (those who have applied for visas before, and those who have not) while 39 items were not statistically significant for the two groups (those who have applied for visas before, and those who have not) were observed. Based on these outputs, it was decided to model these two groups separately.

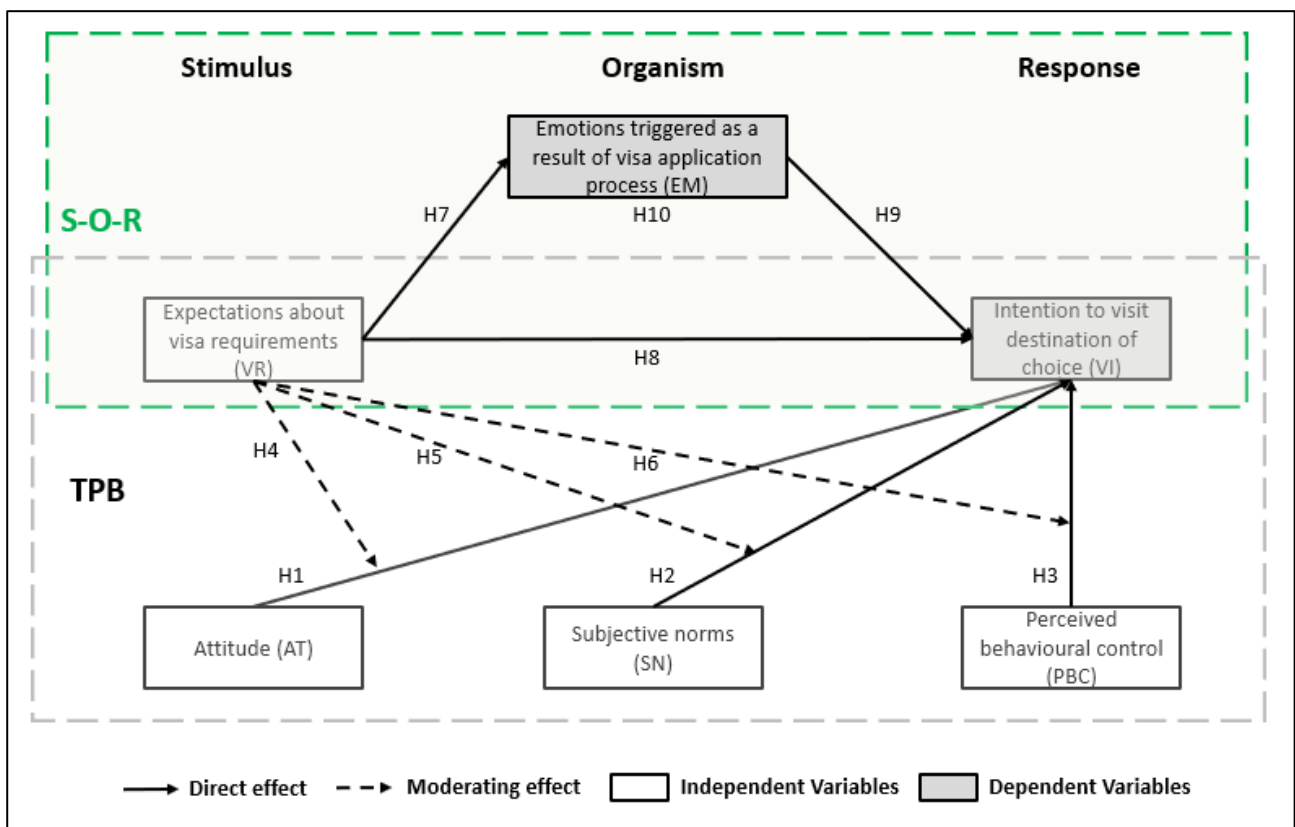
Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted on the following constructs: attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, expectations about visa requirements, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and intention to visit destination of choice; to determine the underlying dimensionality of the data. As a result of the EFA, two factors were identified and labelled “expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness” and “expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome” for the group that had applied for a visa before. Similarly, for the group that had never applied for a visa before, three factors were identified and labelled “expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents”, “expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment”, and “expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials”. From the mean scores it was evident that the group that had never applied for visas before had more lenient expectations of the visa requirements. Based on the EFA results, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process split into two factors, negative emotions and positive emotions, for the group that had applied for visas before. Similarly, based on the EFA results, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process split into four factors – emotion of feeling upset, emotion of feeling excitement/enthusiasm, emotion of feeling determined and emotion of feeling distress.

Eleven of the 21 hypothesised relationships for those who had applied for visas before proved to be statistically significant; while 20 of the 43 hypothesised relationships for the group that had never applied for visas before proved to be statistically significant.

## 8.3 TESTING OF THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL: INTEGRATION OF TPB AND S-O-R MODEL

Chapter 4 explained the development of the conceptual model, using the TPB and S-O-R model as its theoretical foundation. Figure 8.1 below shows the integrated TPB and S-O-R model. The conceptual model, along with the hypothesised relationships between the constructs, is applied to both groups: those who had applied for a visa before and those who had never applied for a visa before.

**Figure 8.1: Proposed conceptual model with hypothesised relationships**



Source: Researcher's own construction

The next section summarises the results from the hypotheses testing.

## **8.4 HYPOTHESES TESTING: SUMMARY OF RESULTS FOR TOURISTS WHO HAD APPLIED FOR A VISA BEFORE AND THOSE WHO HAD NEVER APPLIED FOR A VISA BEFORE**

A summary of the hypotheses results is presented in this section. For comparison purposes, both groups are discussed together. Based on the EFA results, certain hypotheses were reworded.

### **8.4.1 Hypotheses about the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination of choice**

The first three hypotheses were tested in section 7.3.1 for the group that had applied for a visa before and in section 7.4.1 for the group that had never applied for a visa before.

Hypothesis 1 states that **there is a relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.**

For the group that had applied for a visa before, the results revealed a weak positive relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was supported. This meant that tourists who formed a favourable attitude would likely develop a stronger intention to visit a destination of choice. This result was consistent with the results of previous studies (Al Ziadat, 2015; Lee, 2009; Liu, Li, Yen & Sher, 2018b). However, it was inconsistent with the studies of Sparks and Pan (2009) and Lam and Hsu (2006), which indicated that attitude had little impact on visit intentions. A plausible reason for this result is that the tourists who had applied for a visa before were more experienced travellers and so had a more complete foundation for their intentions, influencing them to form a favourable attitude towards the destination and an intention to visit the destination (Wintersteiner & Wohlmuther, 2014).

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results revealed a weak negative relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that

destination, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was not supported for this group. Thus, this result was in line with the results of Sparks and Pan (2009), whose study of Chinese outbound tourists' attitude toward international travel demonstrated that the influence of attitude on intention to visit a destination of choice was not significant.

Therefore, hypothesis 1 ( $H_1$ ) was supported for the group that had applied for a visa before, and not supported for the group that had not applied for a visa before. This finding suggested that a favourable attitude towards visiting a destination of choice positively stimulated a tourist's intention to visit that destination. This finding also suggested that there was no relationship between the attitude of tourists who had never applied for a visa before and their intention to visit a destination of choice.

Hypothesis 2 states that **there is a relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination.**

For the group that had applied for a visa before, the results revealed a weak, positive relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not supported, and tourists' intention of visiting a destination was not associated with perceived social pressure from people who were important, such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors. This result was consistent with the studies of Pahrudin, Chen and Liu (2021) and Shen *et al.* (2009). Pahrudin *et al.* (2021) examined the impact of post-pandemic Covid-19 on tourists' intention to visit Indonesia, and found that subjective norms had no significant effect on tourists' travel intentions. Similarly, Shen *et al.* (2009) discovered that, of all the considered factors affecting the intention to visit Suzhou, a world cultural heritage site in China, subjective norms had a negligible influence on tourists' intentions. A plausible reason for this result was that the tourists who had applied for a visa before might have been experienced travellers, and therefore did not rely on the opinions of people who were important, such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors, as sources of information when making decisions.

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results revealed a weak, positive relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was supported for this group. The

result was consistent with the studies of Hsu *et al.* (2006), Joo, Seok and Nam (2020) and Ramadhani *et al.* (2020) which indicated that a tourist was more likely to visit a destination when important people such as their friends, family, colleagues, and superiors supported it. In other words, tourists' decisions about their destination of choice depended on the opinions of people who were important to them. According to Hsu *et al.* (2006), Chinese travel intentions were significantly influenced by the opinions of reference groups such as co-workers. In the same vein, Ramadhani *et al.* (2020) established that tourists' intentions to visit Lombok Island in Indonesia were significantly influenced by subjective norms. A plausible reason for this result was that tourists who had never applied for a visa before were not experienced travellers, and therefore relied more on the opinions of people who were important to them as sources of information when making decisions than did the group that had applied for a visa before.

In summary, hypothesis 2 (H<sub>2</sub>) was not supported for the group that had applied for a visa before, but was supported for the group that had never applied for a visa before.

Hypothesis 3 states that **there is a relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination.**

For the group that had applied for a visa before, the results revealed a moderate, positive relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was supported. Similarly, for the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results revealed a moderate, positive relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination, which was also statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was also supported for this group. Thus, both these results were in line with previous studies (Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012; Sparks, 2007; Sparks & Pan, 2009), which found that having resources such as money and time determines tourists' intention to visit the desired destination. In other words, tourists were more likely to visit a destination when they had control over resources such as finances and time. Sparks and Pan (2009) established that control over financial resources and time significantly influenced tourists' visit intention towards a destination. Furthermore, when investigating wine tourism vacations, Sparks (2007) discovered that control over costs and time was the most significant predictor of tourists' intention to visit the destination. Therefore, regardless of whether the traveller is

experienced or not, the results showed that the availability of resources such as finances and time played a significant role in their intention to visit a destination of choice. Therefore, hypothesis 3 (H<sub>3</sub>) was supported for both groups.

In this study, the application of the TPB model indicated that it was a valuable theoretical approach for investigating tourists' visit intentions. Consequently, among the three TPB core constructs, perceived behavioural control was found to be the most important predictor in determining tourists' visit intention for both groups. Correspondingly, subjective norms centred on social influences, and had a strong association with visit intention among tourists who had never applied for a visa before; however, it was not correlated with, or predictive of, visit intention among the tourists who had applied for a visa before. Similarly, a tourist's attitude towards a destination was not significant for their intention to visit a destination among tourists who had never applied for a visa before, while it was significant in predicting the intention to visit a destination among tourists who had applied for a visa before. It should be noted that there is nothing in the TPB which says that all three core constructs need to make a significant contribution to visit intention (Ajzen, 2019); rather, the relative significance of these three core constructs can vary. In other words, this suggested that the availability of the necessary resources such as time, money, and opportunities outweighed the influence of attitude towards a destination and of important people such as relatives, family, and friends when deciding to visit a destination of choice.

#### **8.4.2 Hypotheses about expectations about visa requirements as a moderator between attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control**

Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 were tested in section 7.3.2 for the group that had applied for a visa before and in section 7.4.2 for the group that had never applied for a visa before.

Hypothesis 4 states that **visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination**, and was restated as follows, based on the EFA results:

For the group that had applied for visas before:



H<sub>4a</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

H<sub>4b</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

For the group that had not applied for visas before:

H<sub>4ia</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

H<sub>4ib</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

H<sub>4ic</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.

For the group that had applied for a visa before, the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination was strengthened by visa requirements expectations. The results revealed that expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness moderated the relationship between tourists' attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>4a</sub>) was supported. The results also revealed that expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome moderated the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards the destination and their intention to visit that destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>4b</sub>) was also supported.

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results revealed that expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents moderated the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards the destination and their intention to visit that destination. Thus, hypothesis (H<sub>4ia</sub>) was supported. The results also revealed that expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment

moderated the relationship between attitude and intention to visit a destination of choice. Thus, hypothesis (H<sub>4ib</sub>) was supported. The results further revealed that expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials moderated the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards the destination and their intention to visit that destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>4ic</sub>) was supported.

Hypothesis 4 (H<sub>4</sub>) was thus supported for both groups. In general, the result revealed that tourists who expected lenient visa requirements might have formed a more favourable attitude towards the destination and an intention to visit that destination. In the same way, tourists who expected stricter visa requirements might have formed a less favourable attitude towards the destination and a reduced intention to visit the destination.

Hypothesis 5 states that **visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination**, and was restated as follows, based on the EFA results:

For the group that had applied for visas before:

H<sub>5a</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>5b</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.

For the group that had not applied for visas before:

H<sub>5ia</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>5ib</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>5ic</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.

For the group that had applied for a visa before, the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination was strengthened by visa requirements expectations. The results revealed that expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness moderated the relationship between the tourists' subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>5a</sub>) was supported. The results also revealed that expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome moderated the relationship between the tourists' subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination. Thus, hypothesis (H<sub>5b</sub>) was also supported.

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results revealed that expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents moderated the relationship between the tourists' subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination of choice. Thus, hypothesis (H<sub>5ia</sub>) was supported. The results also revealed that expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment moderated the relationship between tourists' subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination of choice. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>5ib</sub>) was supported. The results further revealed that expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials moderated the relationship between tourists' subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination of choice. Hence, hypothesis (H<sub>5ic</sub>) was supported.

Therefore, hypothesis 5 (H<sub>5</sub>) was supported for both groups. These results were in line with those of previous studies (Bansal & Voyer, 2000; Bieger & Laesser, 2004; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), which showed that the opinions of people who were important to tourists, such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors, influenced the tourists' decision-making process for the destination to visit. In other words, if the opinions of people such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors who were important to the tourists negatively perceived the destination with visa requirements, then the tourists' visit intention to that destination was likely to decrease. Likewise, if the opinions of people such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors who were important to the tourists positively perceived the destination with visa requirements, then the tourists' visit intention to that destination was likely to increase.

During the focus groups, participants also shared numerous examples of colleagues, friends, and family members who had negative visa application experiences. For example, participant NON-VAP-2 said: "*Mainly it was just negative stories especially with the length*

*of the process and the required documentation. Some of them were asked some very personal information and it was as if you are being investigated. Therefore, there are no positive feedbacks.”* Participant NON-VAP-3 also commented: *“Indeed and all of them said that it was frustrating, draining, upsetting, and scary. Some said that the interview almost felt like an interrogation. No positives from the people that I spoke to”*. Similarly, NON-VAP-4 said: *“Friends and family who applied for a visa before and they have just spoken about the negatives, and I yet need to speak to somebody who can share a positive experience in the visa application journey”*. In conclusion, the results showed that, if the tourist trusted the opinions of people such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors who perceived visiting a specific destination (with visa requirements) as a recommendable behaviour, the tourist’s visit intention to that destination was likely to increase; and the opposite was also true.

Hypothesis 6 states that **visa requirements expectations moderate the relationship between a tourist’s perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination**, and was restated as follows, based on the EFA results:

For the group that had applied for visas before:

H<sub>6a</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness moderate the relationship between a tourist’s perceived behavioural control towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>6b</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome moderate the relationship between a tourist’s perceived behavioural control towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.

For the group that had not applied for visas before:

H<sub>6ia</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents moderate the relationship between a tourist’s perceived behavioural control towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>6ib</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment moderate the relationship between a tourist’s perceived behavioural control towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>6ic</sub>: Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials moderate the relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.

For the group that had applied for visas before, the results revealed no moderating effect of the expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness on the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>6a</sub>) was not supported. On the other hand, the results revealed that expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment and outcome moderated the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit a destination of choice. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>6b</sub>) was supported. In other words, visa requirements expectations related to costs, appointment and outcome acted as an additional barrier and made it difficult to visit a destination of choice. It also took away from the tourist some of their control over decision-making.

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results revealed no moderating effect of the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents on the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit a destination of choice. Thus, hypothesis (H<sub>6ia</sub>) was not supported. The results also revealed no moderating effect of the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment on the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit a destination of choice. Thus, hypothesis (H<sub>6ib</sub>) was not supported. Furthermore, the results showed no moderating effect of the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials on the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit a destination of choice was not significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>6ic</sub>) was not supported.

Therefore, hypothesis 6 (H<sub>6</sub>) was partly supported for the group that had applied for visas before, and not supported for the group that had not applied for visas before. However, what is very interesting from these findings was that perceived behavioural control showed the strongest influence on visit intention in hypothesis 3, yet visa requirements expectations did not moderate this relationship in most cases. It could mean that the tourists did not perceive all visa requirements as an additional barrier in visiting a destination of choice.

### 8.4.3 Hypotheses about the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit a destination of choice

Hypothesis 8 was tested in section 7.3.3 for the group that had applied for a visa before, and in section 7.4.3 for the group that had never applied for a visa before.

Hypothesis 8 states that **there is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their intention to visit a destination**, and was restated as follows, based on the EFA results:

For the group that had applied for visas before:

H<sub>8a</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of visa requirements related to time and fairness and their intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>8b</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and their intention to visit a destination.

For the group that had not applied for visas before:

H<sub>8ia</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and their intention to visit a destination

H<sub>8ib</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and their intention to visit a destination

H<sub>8ic</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and their intention to visit a destination

The tourism literature indicates that expectations about visa requirements play an important role in tourists' behaviour, in particular when planning international travel, as it can determine whether or not they can visit their desired destination (Rahim & Daud, 2012). This assertion was supported by Xiang (2013:143) who established that "visa policy is the most fundamental issue influencing tourists' destination decisions". For the group that had applied for a visa before, the results revealed a weak positive relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and a tourist's intention to visit a destination, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>8a</sub>) was supported; if tourists expected more lenient visa requirements related to time and fairness, that was likely

to increase their intention to visit a destination. On the other hand, the results revealed a weak negative relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and a tourist's intention to visit a destination, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{8b}$ ) was not supported.

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results revealed a weak negative relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and a tourist's intention to visit a destination, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{8ia}$ ) was not supported. The results also revealed a weak positive relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and a tourist's intention to visit a destination, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{8ib}$ ) was also not supported. In contrast, the results revealed a moderate positive relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and a tourist's intention to visit a destination, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{8ic}$ ) was supported; if tourists expected lenient visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials, they were more likely to visit a destination.

Therefore, hypothesis 8 ( $H_8$ ) was partly supported for the group that had applied for visas before, and partly supported for the group that had not applied for visas before. For the group that had applied for visas, the results suggested that visa requirements related to time and fairness were related to a tourist's intention to visit a destination, while no relationship was observed between visa requirements related to costs, appointment and outcome and visit intention. This finding was surprising, given that this group had previously gone through a visa application process and had experienced the burdensome procedures; therefore, one might have expected all visa requirements to influence their intention to visit a destination of choice. A plausible reason for this finding might be that some tourists remained motivated when going through the visa application, as they had a high expectation of acquiring a visa, no matter how burdensome the process might have been.

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, no relationship was observed between visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and visit intention, or between visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and visit intention. This could have been because these tourists had no experience of the visa application process, and

therefore had no basis for their expectations. Nevertheless, this finding was consistent with previous research (Hsieh *et al.*, 2016; Zeng & Go, 2013). Zeng and Go (2013:240) found that people who “travelled abroad a number of times...their priorities were more informed by direct experience than the choices of people who had never travelled abroad”. Similarly, Hsieh *et al.* (2016:720) established that “tourists who have more experience with a destination should have a more comprehensive basis for their intentions”.

In particular, the result of hypothesis (H<sub>8ic</sub>) for the group that had never applied for a visa before suggested that the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials was a significant predictor of tourists’ intention to visit a destination of choice. This result was supported in the findings from the focus groups, where participants who had never applied for a visa before frequently mentioned the treatment received from consular or frontline staff as an expectation that they had of the visa application process. Taking participant NON-VAP-3 as an example, he said: “...*honestly expect to be treated negatively...if I have to go to the American Embassy... I will be viewed with suspicion because aside from me being from an African country but also looking at the fact that I am black... Fitting most of the criteria, my visa application would be reviewed more strictly than for example my Caucasian counterparts and so on.*”

In conclusion, the group that had never applied for a visa before seemed to be concerned about the treatment that they would receive from visa consular/frontline officials and about whether their application would be successful. Thus, this result was in line with a previous study (Özdemir & Ayata, 2018) that exposed the disrespectful treatment of Turkey nationals by Schengen frontline officials (staff) who, at times, required documents or asked frivolous questions that might have infringed individuals’ privacy and confidentiality. Therefore, perhaps a plausible reason for their negative perception and expectations towards the visa application process was that they feared that the treatment they received from consular/frontline officials during the visa application might be the same treatment they would receive when visiting that destination.



#### **8.4.4 Hypotheses about the relationships between expectations about visa requirements, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process, and intention to visit a destination of choice**

Hypotheses 7 and 9 were tested in section 7.3.4 for the group that had applied for a visa before, and in section 7.4.4 for the group that had never applied for a visa before. Hypothesis 7 states that **there is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of the visa requirements and their emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process**, and was restated as follows, based on the EFA results:

For the group that had applied for visas before:

H<sub>7a1</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and tourists' negative emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7a2</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and tourists' positive emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7b1</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and tourists' negative emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7b2</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and tourists' positive emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.

For the group that had not applied for visas before:

H<sub>7ia1</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and tourists' upset emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7ia2</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and tourists' excited/enthusiastic emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7ia3</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and tourists' determined emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7ia4</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and tourists' distressed emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7ib1</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and tourists' upset emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7ib2</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and tourists' excited/enthusiastic emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7ib3</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and tourists' determined emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7ib4</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and tourists' distressed emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7ic1</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and tourists' upset emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7ic2</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and tourists' excited/enthusiastic emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7ic3</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and tourists' determined emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

H<sub>7ic4</sub>: There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and tourists' distressed emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process.

For the group that had applied for a visa before, the results revealed a moderate positive relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and tourists' negative emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7a1</sub>) was supported. In other words, even if tourists expected more lenient visa requirements related to time and fairness ( $M=5.6514$ ), it was likely to trigger a higher level of negative emotions ( $M=3.9050$ ). The results also revealed a strong negative relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and tourists' positive emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7a2</sub>) was supported. Consequently, if tourists expected more lenient visa requirements related to time and fairness ( $M=5.6514$ ) it was likely to trigger a lower level of positive emotions ( $M=2.2146$ ); and the reverse was also true. In other words, it seemed that tourists' emotions remained positive no matter how burdensome the visa application process might have been. Perhaps a plausible reason was that these tourists had a high expectation of acquiring a visa, and their enthusiasm and excitement about an upcoming international trip might have carried greater weight more than the expectations of a burdensome visa application process. On the other hand, the results revealed a weak positive relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and tourists' negative emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7b1</sub>) was not supported. In addition, the results revealed a weak positive relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and tourists' positive emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7b2</sub>) was supported. Accordingly, if tourists expected more lenient visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome, it was likely to trigger a higher level of positive emotions.

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results revealed a moderate negative relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and tourists' upset emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ia1</sub>) was not supported. The results also revealed a moderate positive relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and tourists'

excited/enthusiastic emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ia2</sub>) was supported; if tourists expected more lenient visa requirements related to time, process, and documents ( $M=5.9065$ ), it was likely to trigger a higher level of excitement/enthusiasm ( $M=4.1585$ ). The results revealed a weak positive relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and tourists' determined emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ia3</sub>) was not supported. The results also revealed a weak negative relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and tourists' distressed emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ia4</sub>) was not supported. Therefore, for the group that had never applied for visas before, the results only showed a relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process and documents and their emotions of excitement/enthusiasm that were triggered as a result of the visa application process.

The results revealed a weak positive relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment and tourists' upset emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ib1</sub>) was not supported. The results also revealed a weak negative relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and tourists' excited/enthusiastic emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ib2</sub>) was not supported. The results revealed a weak positive relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment and tourists' determined emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ib3</sub>) was not supported. In addition, the results revealed a moderate negative relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment and tourists' distressed emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ib4</sub>) was supported; if tourists expected the visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and

outcome to be more strict, it was likely to trigger a higher level of distressed emotions in them; and the reverse was also true.

The results revealed a moderate negative relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and tourists' upset emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ic1</sub>) was supported. In other words, if tourists expected more strict treatment from visa consular/frontline officials, it was likely to trigger a higher level of upset emotions. The results also revealed a moderate positive relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and tourists' excited/enthusiastic emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ic2</sub>) was supported. In contrast to the previous hypothesis, if tourists expected more lenient treatment from visa consular/frontline officials ( $M=5.9977$ ), it was likely to trigger a higher level of excited/enthusiastic emotions ( $M=4.1585$ ) in them. The results revealed a weak positive relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and tourists' determined emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ic3</sub>) was not supported. In addition, the results revealed a weak negative relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and tourists' distressed emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>7ic4</sub>) was not supported. In conclusion, for the group that had not applied for visas, it seems as if expectations about more lenient visa requirements triggered a higher level of positive emotions (H<sub>7ia2</sub> and H<sub>7ic2</sub>), while expectations about stricter visa requirements triggered a higher level of negative emotions (H<sub>7ib4</sub> and H<sub>7ic1</sub>).

Therefore, hypothesis 7 (H<sub>7</sub>) was partly supported, since some hypotheses were supported while others were not, for both groups.

Hypothesis 9 states **there is a relationship between the emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination**, and was restated as follows, based on the EFA results:

For the group that had applied for visas before:

H<sub>9a</sub>: There is a relationship between the negative emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>9b</sub>: There is a relationship between the positive emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

For the group that had not applied for visas before:

H<sub>9ia</sub>: There is a relationship between the upset emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>9ib</sub>: There is a relationship between the excited/enthusiastic emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>9ic</sub>: There is a relationship between the determined emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>9id</sub>: There is a relationship between the distressed emotions of a tourist that are triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.

For the group that had applied for a visa before, the results showed a weak negative relationship between the negative emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process and a tourist's intention to visit a destination, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>9a</sub>) was not supported. The results also revealed a weak positive relationship between the positive emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process of a tourist and their intention to visit a destination, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>9b</sub>) was not supported.

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results indicated a weak negative relationship between the upset emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process and a tourist's intention to visit a destination, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>9ia</sub>) was not supported. The results also revealed a moderate positive relationship between the excited/enthusiastic emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process and a tourist's intention to visit a destination, which was statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>9ib</sub>) was supported. In other words, if a higher level of excited/enthusiastic emotions was triggered as a result of the visa application process, it was likely to encourage tourists to visit a destination. The results revealed a weak positive

relationship between the determined emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process of a tourist and their intention to visit a destination, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>9ic</sub>) was not supported. The results also revealed a weak positive relationship between the distressed emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process of a tourist and their intention to visit a destination, which was not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>9id</sub>) was not supported.

In summary, for the group that had applied for visas before, the result suggested that the intention to visit a destination of choice was not determined by the negative or the positive emotions triggered by the visa application process. This finding was consistent with that from the focus groups, as most of the participants said that the emotions triggered by the visa application process would not determine their intention to visit their desired destination. All in all, the emotions triggered by the visa application process were not a determinant of visit intention. For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results showed that hypothesis (H<sub>9ia</sub>), hypothesis (H<sub>9ic</sub>), and hypothesis (H<sub>9id</sub>) were not supported, while hypothesis (H<sub>9ib</sub>) was supported. What was interesting for the group that had never applied for a visa before was that, from the literature review, it was expected that the visa application process would trigger negative emotions that will deter visit intention. However, the opposite was shown to be true, as the finding suggested that intention to visit a destination of choice was not determined by tourists' upset, determined, or distressed emotions, but rather by excited/enthusiastic emotions. This result was consistent with the research conducted by Flensted-Jensen (2019) into Jordanians' Schengen visa applications. He discovered that, no matter how upset some of the Jordanian applicants were about their mistreatment by some consular officials, they remained motivated, as they had a high expectation of acquiring a Schengen visa. Therefore, hypothesis 9 (H<sub>9</sub>) was not supported for the group that had applied for visas before, but partly supported for the group that had not applied for visas before.

#### **8.4.5 Hypotheses about emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process as a mediator between expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit a destination of choice**

Hypothesis 10 was tested in section 7.3.5 for the group that had applied for a visa before, and in section 7.4.5 for the group that had never applied for a visa before. Hypothesis 10 states that **a tourist's emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between visa requirements expectations and the intention to visit a destination**, and was restated as follows, based on the EFA results:

For the group that had applied for visas before:

H<sub>10a</sub>: A tourist's negative emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10b</sub>: A tourist's positive emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10c</sub>: A tourist's negative emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10d</sub>: A tourist's positive emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and intention to visit a destination.

For the group that had not applied for visas before:

H<sub>10ia1</sub>: A tourist's upset emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10ia2</sub>: A tourist's upset emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment and intention to visit a destination.



H<sub>10ia3</sub>: A tourist's upset emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10ib1</sub>: A tourist's excited/enthusiastic emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10ib2</sub>: A tourist's excited/enthusiastic emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10ib3</sub>: A tourist's excited/enthusiastic emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10ic1</sub>: A tourist's determined emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10ic2</sub>: A tourist's determined emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10ic3</sub>: A tourist's determined emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10id1</sub>: A tourist's distressed emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10id2</sub>: A tourist's distressed emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment and intention to visit a destination.

H<sub>10id3</sub>: A tourist's distressed emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination.

A small but growing literature stream (Grappi & Montanari, 2011; Jordan *et al.*, 2019; Lee *et al.*, 2011; Lee, Lee, Lee & Babin, 2008) had applied emotions as a mediating construct

between cognitive variables and behavioural intentions; nevertheless, the role of emotions as a mediator between expectations about visa requirements and tourists' intention to visit a destination of choice had yet to be investigated. For the group that had applied for a visa before, the results revealed that the negative emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process did not mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>10a</sub>) was not supported. The results also revealed that the positive emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process did not mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>10b</sub>) was not supported. The results further revealed that the negative emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process did not mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>10c</sub>) was not supported. Positive emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process also did not mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>10d</sub>) was not supported.

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results showed that the upset emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process did not mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>10ia1</sub>) was not supported. The results revealed that the upset emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process did not mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>10ia2</sub>) was not supported. In addition, the results revealed that the upset emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process did not mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis (H<sub>10ia3</sub>) was not supported.

The results revealed that the excited/enthusiastic emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process mediated the relationship between expectations about visa

requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{10ib1}$ ) was supported. The results revealed that the excited/enthusiastic emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process mediated the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{10ib2}$ ) was supported. The results revealed that the excited/enthusiastic emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process mediated the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{10ib3}$ ) was supported.

The results revealed that the determined emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process mediated the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{10ic1}$ ) was supported. The results revealed that the determined emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process mediated the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{10ic2}$ ) was supported. The results revealed that the determined emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process mediated the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{10ic3}$ ) was supported.

The results revealed that the distressed emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process did not mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{10id1}$ ) was not supported. The results revealed that the distressed emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process did not mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related costs, outcome and appointment and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{10id2}$ ) was not supported. The results revealed that the distressed emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process did not mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination were not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis ( $H_{10id3}$ ) was not supported.

Contrary to expectations, results for the group that had applied for visas before failed to support the mediating effect of tourists' emotions (positive and negative) that were triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between expectations about visa requirements (related to time and fairness as well as to costs, appointment, and outcome) and intention to visit a destination of choice. In other words, the emotions did not explain the relationship that existed between visa requirements expectations and visit intention. Perhaps there are other variables that have not yet been investigated and that might explain this relationship.

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results suggested that upset and distressed emotions that were triggered by the visa application process did not explain the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents; expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment; or expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination of choice. However, excited/enthusiastic and determined emotions that were triggered by the visa application process did explain the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents; expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment; and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination of choice. Generally, the mediation results suggested that tourists' emotion of excitement/enthusiasm and determined emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process played a more significant role in explaining the relationship between visa requirements and intention to visit a destination of choice, and served as a stronger transient factor than upset and distressed emotions. Perhaps a plausible explanation for this finding is that this group had never applied for a visa before; in other words, they had never experienced the visa application process before, and so one might expect them to have been more excited because they are looking forward to travelling. Thus, this result was in line with previous studies (Kim *et al.*, 2012b; Song *et al.*, 2017) that found that tourists had a greater propensity to being motivated by a great expectation of excitement or gratification. Therefore, for the group that had applied for a visa before, hypothesis 10 ( $H_{10}$ ) was not supported, while for the group that had never applied for a visa before, hypothesis 10 was partly supported.

## 8.5 THE FINAL STRUCTURAL MODEL

The final model is presented in Figure 8.2 (for those who have applied for a visa before) and Figure 8.3 (for those who have never applied for a visa before). It shows the relationships between attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination of choice. The TPB was used to explain how attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control influenced a tourist's intention to visit a destination, and how the relationships between attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control and visit intention were moderated by the tourists' expectations about visa requirements. The inclusion of expectations about visa requirements and of the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process provided a better understanding of tourists' intention to visit a destination of choice, which were not reflected in the original constructs of the TPB. The S-O-R model was used to depict how expectations about visa requirements function as a stimulus of the organism (emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process), which in turn generates tourists' behavioural responses (the intention to visit a destination of choice). Therefore, the current study provided a first attempt to combine the TPB and S-O-R model in order to understand the influence of visa requirements on destination choice, since the predictive power of an integrated model is superior to the predictive power of an individual theory.

### 8.5.1 Model fit and model refinement

Goodness-of-fit indices and the model test statistics were used to evaluate the data for the overall fit of the structural model. According to Iacobucci (2010) and Kline (2015), other factors should be taken into consideration when providing preliminary evidence against a model. For example, the chi-squared test (a model test for statistics) should be viewed alongside approximate and goodness-of-fit indices.

Refinements to the structural model were made after the analyses of the measurement models. Some of the refinements were the following:

- Item Q14.2, which says "I expect the visa application process to be: Manual/Online", was removed, as the loading was below 0.5 for both groups.

- Item Q16.4, which says “I would prefer to visit this destination as opposed to other similar destinations”, was removed, as the loading was below 0.5 for both groups.
- Based on the EFA results, expectations about visa requirements was made up of two factors for the group that had applied for visas before: expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness, and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome.
- Based on the EFA results, expectations about visa requirements was made up of three factors for the group that had not applied for visas before: expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents, expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome, and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials.
- Based on the EFA results, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process was made up of two factors, negative emotions and positive emotions, for the group that had applied for visas before.
- Based on the EFA results, emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process was made up of four factors – upset emotions, excited/enthusiastic emotions, determined emotions, and distressed emotions – for the group that had never applied for a visa before.

Hu and Bentler (1999) and Wisting *et al.* (2019) state that index values above 0.8 for parsimony indices are permissible. In the same vein, Wisting *et al.* (2019) suggest the following range for fit indices: CFI above 0.95 implies a good fit, above 0.90 implies a traditional fit, and above 0.80 is sometimes permissible. In this study, the final structural model for those who had applied for a visa before showed an acceptable fit with  $X^2 = 3019.96$ ,  $df = 1615$ ,  $CMIN/df = 1.868$ ,  $SRMR = 0.0619$ ,  $CFI = 0.887$ ,  $TLI = 0.880$ ,  $IFI = 0.887$ , and  $RMSEA = 0.054$ , which was acceptable for a sample size of 341 respondents. Since the CFI was above 0.80, it was permissible. Figure 8.2 presents the refined structural model along with the path coefficients (see the original proposed model in Figure 7.1).

Similarly, the final structural model for those who had never applied for a visa before showed an acceptable fit with  $X^2 = 2432.12$ ,  $df = 1481$ ,  $CMIN/df = 1.642$ ,  $SRMR = 0.0743$ ,  $CFI = 0.840$ ,  $TLI = 0.828$ ,  $IFI = 0.843$ , and  $RMSEA = 0.067$  for a sample size of 143 respondents. Since the CFI was above 0.80, it was permissible, as established by Hu and Bentler (1999);

Wisting *et al.* (2019). Figure 8.3 presents the refined structural model along with the path coefficients (see the original proposed model in Figure 8.1).

## 8.5.2 Significant path coefficients

Eleven out of 21 hypothesised relationships in the model for those who had applied for visas before proved to be statistically significant. The statistically significant hypotheses are shown in Table 8.1 below. Only one of these relationships was negative.

**Table 8.1: Statistically significant hypothesised relationships for the group that had applied for a visa before**

Hypothesis tested		Supported/Not supported
H <sub>1</sub>	There is a relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination	Supported
H <sub>3</sub>	There is a relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination	Supported
H <sub>4a</sub>	Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.	Supported
H <sub>4b</sub>	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.	Supported
H <sub>5a</sub>	Expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.	Supported
H <sub>5b</sub>	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.	Supported
H <sub>6b</sub>	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome moderate the relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.	Supported
H <sub>7a1</sub>	There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and tourists' negative emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.	Supported
H <sub>7a2</sub>	There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and tourists' positive emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process.	Supported
H <sub>7b2</sub>	There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and tourists' positive emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process	Supported

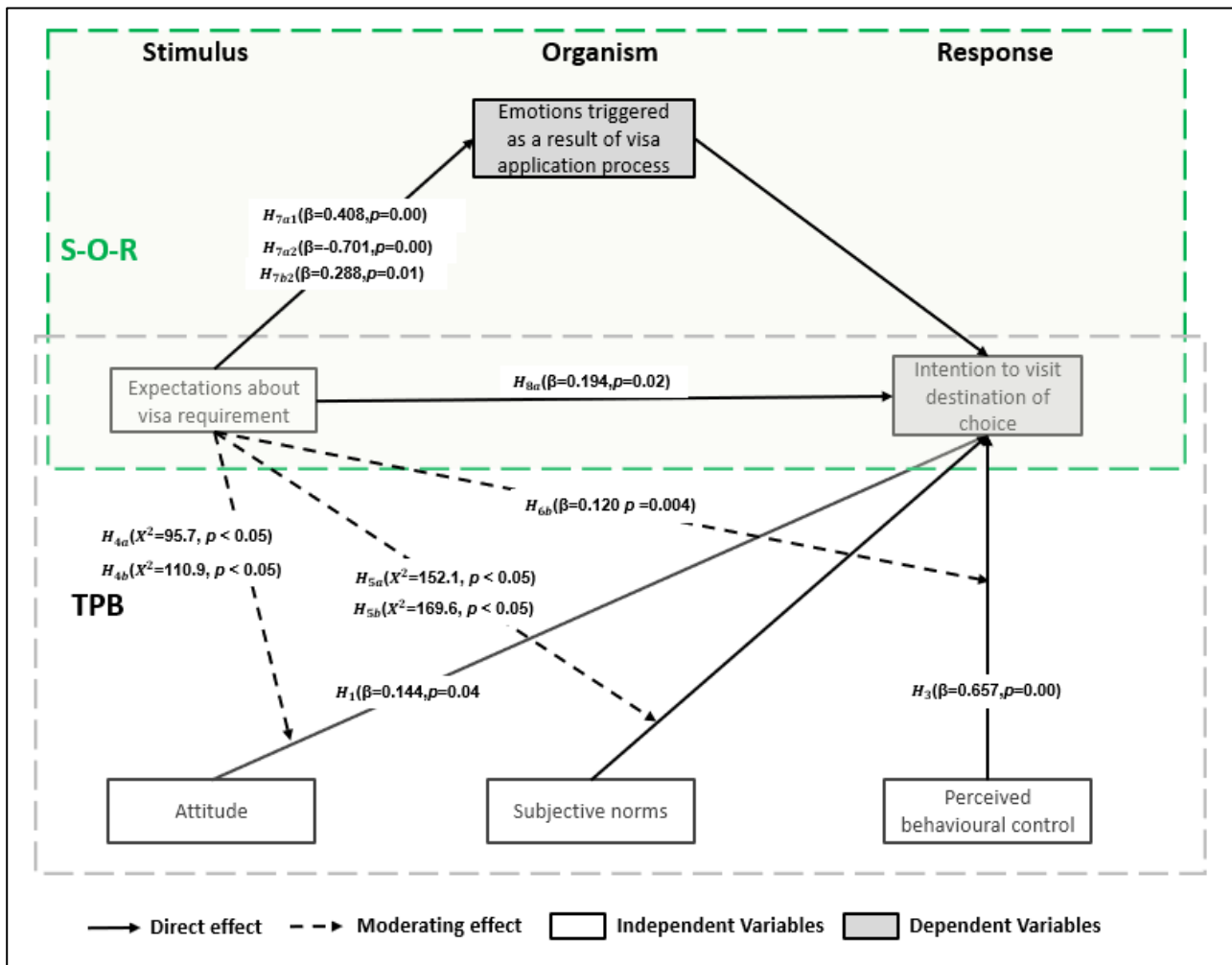
H <sub>8a</sub>	There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of visa requirements related to time and fairness and their intention to visit a destination	Supported
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Source: Researcher's own construction

It should be noted that, in Figure 8.2, the multi-group CFA method was used to test H<sub>4a1</sub>, H<sub>4a2</sub>, H<sub>4b1</sub>, H<sub>4b2</sub>, H<sub>5a1</sub>, H<sub>5a2</sub>, H<sub>5b1</sub>, and H<sub>5b2</sub>, while the Hayes method was used to test H<sub>6a</sub> and H<sub>6b</sub>. Moderation exists using the multi-group CFA method if the difference between constrained and unconstrained is more than chi-squared = 3.84; otherwise, if the chi-squared is less than 3.84, then no moderation exists in the path. For the Hayes method, if the p-value for the interaction term is less than 0.05 it implies that it is statistically significant at the 5% level; therefore, moderation exists; otherwise, if the p-value is greater than 0.05, then no moderation exists in the path. Only significant path coefficients were reported.



**Figure 8.2: Refined structural model with significant path coefficients: Group that had applied for a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

Similarly, 20 of the 43 hypothesised relationships in the model for the group that had never applied for visas before proved to be statistically significant. The statistically significant hypotheses are shown in Table 8.2. Two of these relationships were negative.

**Table 8.2: Statistically significant hypothesised relationships**

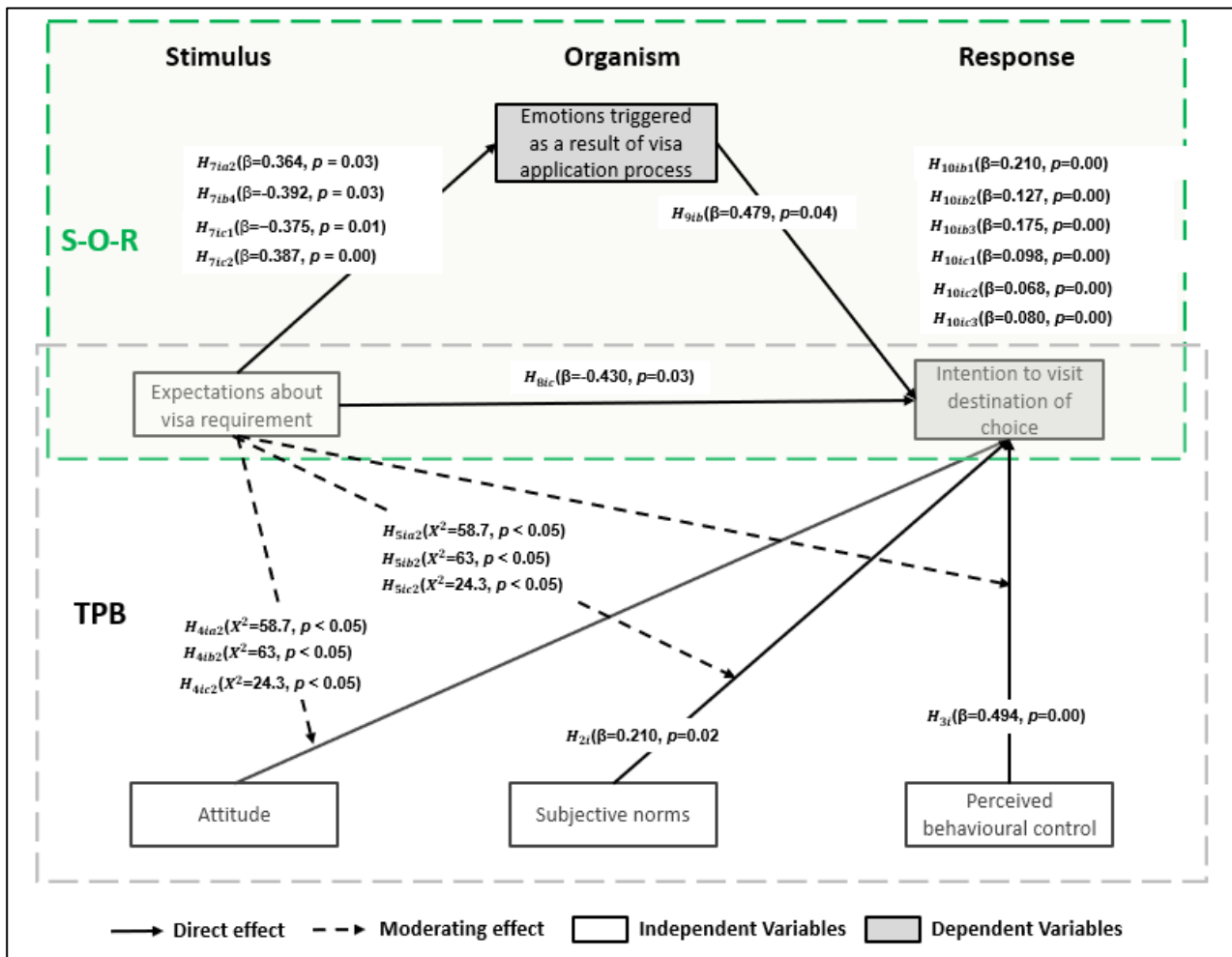
Hypothesis tested		Supported/Not supported
H <sub>2i</sub>	There is a relationship between a tourist's subjective norms and their intention to visit a destination	Supported
H <sub>3i</sub>	There is a relationship between a tourist's perceived behavioural control and their intention to visit a destination	Supported
H <sub>4ia</sub>	Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.	Supported
H <sub>4ib</sub>	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.	Supported
H <sub>4ic</sub>	Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials moderate the relationship between a tourist's attitude towards a destination and their intention to visit that destination.	Supported
H <sub>5ia</sub>	Expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.	Supported
H <sub>5ib</sub>	Expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.	Supported
H <sub>5ic</sub>	Expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials moderate the relationship between a tourist's subjective norms towards a destination and their intention to visit a destination.	Supported
H <sub>7ia2</sub>	There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and tourists' excited/enthusiastic emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process	Supported
H <sub>7ib4</sub>	There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and tourists' distressed emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process	Supported
H <sub>7ic1</sub>	There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and tourists' upset emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process	Supported
H <sub>7ic2</sub>	There is a relationship between the expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and tourists' excited/enthusiastic emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process	Supported
H <sub>8ic</sub>	There is a relationship between the expectations that a tourist has of visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and their intention to visit a destination	Supported
H <sub>9ib</sub>	There is a relationship between the excited/enthusiastic emotions of a tourist that were triggered as a result of the visa application process and their intention to visit a destination.	Supported
H <sub>10ib1</sub>	A tourist's excited/enthusiastic emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the	Supported

	relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination	
H <sub>10ib2</sub>	A tourist's excited/enthusiastic emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome and appointment and intention to visit a destination	Supported
H <sub>10ib3</sub>	A tourist's excited/enthusiastic emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination	Supported
H <sub>10ic1</sub>	A tourist's determined emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and intention to visit a destination	Supported
H <sub>10ic2</sub>	A tourist's determined emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment and intention to visit a destination	Supported
H <sub>10ic3</sub>	A tourist's determined emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process mediate the relationship between expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and intention to visit a destination	Supported

Source: Researcher's own construction

Figure 8.3 gives the refined structural model with path coefficients for the group that had never applied for a visa before. Only significant path coefficients are reported.

**Figure 8.3: Refined structural model with significant path coefficients: Those who had never applied a visa before**



Source: Researcher's own construction

## 8.6 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

This study makes theoretical contributions to the body of knowledge on international tourism by providing insights into the influence of expectations about visa requirements on a tourist's intention to visit an international destination. More specifically, it investigates the role that the emotional responses that are triggered by the visa application process play in the relationship between visa requirements expectations and intention to visit an international destination. The study consulted the literature from the fields of immigration, personality psychology, cognitive psychology, and consumer behaviour to develop a conceptual model based on the TPB and the S-O-R model. This model was tested, and the results have made contributions that are theoretical and that can be seen as a verification of theory. The study

has also made practical/managerial contributions to the tourism industry, and the results could be applied by destination marketing organisations (DMOs), researchers, tourism marketers, tourism organisations, and tourism policymakers.

### 8.6.1 Theoretical contributions

This study used the theory of planned behaviour and the stimulus-organism-response model to understand the relationships between visa requirements expectations, the emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, and a tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice. Based on the gaps identified in the literature, the study makes several theoretical contributions.

**First**, the available body of knowledge on visa requirements does not provide an exhaustive or comprehensive list of visa requirements. Where studies have looked at visa requirements, they have only incorporated a limited number of requirements (Asquith *et al.*, 2019; Boratynski & Szimborska, 2006; Croce, 2018; Duerrmeier Rizzi, 2014) or they have used visa requirements as an umbrella term without identifying specific requirements (Czaika & de Haas, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2010; Ortega & Peri, 2013; Rhymer & Speare, 2017; Siskin & Wyler, 2013b). Therefore, this study aimed to provide a comprehensive list of visa requirements, identified from the literature and from a qualitative phase. Table 2.5 provides a summary of the visa requirements identified in the literature. During the focus groups, two additional visa requirements were identified – namely, a manual application process instead of online, and applying for a visa of longer validity and only being issued with a visa of shorter validity. The results showed that respondents had lenient expectations for both these requirements. The final list of visa requirements identified in the literature review and the focus groups, which was tested in the quantitative questionnaire, is shown in Appendix C under section F of the questionnaire instrument. Thus, this study makes a novel contribution to the literature by establishing a comprehensive list of visa requirements that could be used in future studies.

**Second**, there is a lack of research on the relationship between visa requirements and destination choice. Han *et al.* (2011) investigated the effect of visa exemptions on Chinese tourists' intention to visit South Korea, and found that the expectation of visa exemption was the strongest predictor of a tourist's intention to visit South Korea. However, the moderating

role of expectations about visa requirements on the relationships between the TPB predictor variables (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) and a tourist's intention to visit a destination has not been measured before. This study therefore contributes to the theory by adding visa requirements expectations to the TPB and by measuring the moderating effect of visa requirements expectations on the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit a destination. The results showed that the influence of tourists' attitude and subjective norms on intention to visit a destination of choice was moderated by expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome for the group that had applied for a visa before. The results also showed that the influence of tourists' attitude and subjective norms on intention to visit a destination of choice was moderated by expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents; expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment; and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials for the group that had not applied for a visa before. Therefore, influence of tourists' attitude towards the destination and the opinions of people who were important to tourists, such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors on intention to visit a destination of choice was moderated by expectations about visa requirements in both groups.

However, the expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents; expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment; and expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials did not moderate the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit a destination of choice for the group that had never applied for a visa before, while for the group that had applied for a visa before, the results were mixed. On one hand, the visa requirements expectations related to costs, appointment and outcome acted as an additional barrier and made it difficult to visit a destination of choice for the group that had applied for visas before. On the other hand, the tourists in the group that had never applied for visas before, did not perceive all visa requirements as an additional barrier in visiting a destination of choice. Since visa requirements moderated the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, and intention to visit a destination, the practical implications

recommended DMOs to devise more effective marketing plans to create favourable attitudes towards their destinations, as well as encouraging more positive word-of-mouth.

Thus, this study contributes to the theory, as the inclusion of expectations about visa requirements as a moderating variable not only was able to increase the predictive power of the model, but also offered more insights into the behaviour of tourists.

**Third**, from the literature it is clear that the visa application process triggers some emotions, mostly negative (Özdemir & Ayata, 2018; Seminara, 2008; Zengeni & Zengeni, 2012). However, what remained uncertain is the extent to which these emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process influence a tourist's intention to visit a destination. To this end, the study used Mehrabian and Russell's S-O-R model. This model has been used before in various tourism contexts to measure tourists' emotional responses to specific stimuli (Abdullah, Jayaraman & Kamal, 2016; Forrest, 2015; Tan, 2017), but not in the context of visa requirements. In terms of the relationship between expectations of visa requirements (S in the S-O-R model) and the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process (O in the S-O-R model), the results showed that, for the group that had applied for visas before, expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness were likely to stimulate both negative and positive emotions, while the expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome only showed a significant relationship with positive emotions. Equally, for the group that had not applied for visas before, the results showed that the visa requirements expectations triggered both positive and negative emotions. Thus, this study makes a novel contribution to the literature by showing that both positive and negative emotions were triggered as a result of the visa application process.

Regarding the relationship between the emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process (O in the S-O-R model) and intention to visit a destination of choice (R in the S-O-R model) for the group that had applied for a visa before, the results showed that both the negative and the positive emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process would not influence tourists' intention to visit a destination. For the group that had never applied for a visa before, only the excited/enthusiastic emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process influenced tourists' intention to visit a destination, while the upset, distressed, and determined emotions did not. In other words,

positive emotions rather than negative emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process will influence tourists' intention to visit a destination. The body of knowledge emphasises the negative emotions that are triggered by the application process; however, this study showed that positive emotions are also triggered, and it is indeed the positive emotions that will influence visit intention. This is also a contribution to the literature.

The last relationship in the S-O-R model is between expectations about visa requirements (S) and visit intention (R).

A **fourth** contribution of this study is that it showed that visa requirements do indeed have an influence on tourists' visit intentions. More specifically, the results showed that expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness influenced tourists' intention to visit a destination, while expectations about visa requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome did not for the group that had applied for a visa before. For the group that had never applied for a visa before, expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials influenced tourists' intention to visit a destination, while expectations about visa requirements related to time, process, and documents and expectations about visa requirements related to costs, outcome, and appointment did not. Therefore, the results contribute to the body of knowledge by showing which visa requirements have a stronger influence on visit intention.

This study makes a **fifth** contribution by showing the mediating effect of emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process on the relationship between visa requirements expectations and visit intention. For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the results suggested that the upset and distressed emotions that were triggered by the visa application process did not explain the relationship between expectations about visa requirements and intention to visit a destination of choice, while excitement/enthusiasm and determined emotions did explain the relationship. Other than exerting a direct impact on tourists' intention to visit a destination, the expectations about visa requirements indirectly influenced visit intentions through the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process. Therefore, the study contributes to the literature by confirming that emotions can mediate the relationships between tourists' intentions and their antecedents. All in all, this study extended our understanding of the S-O-R model that has been applied mainly in retail



and marketing domains to the tourism context, verifying its applicability to the specific context of visa requirements.

**Sixth**, the study contributes to the theory by integrating the TPB and the S-O-R model. A number of studies (Mansori & Chin, 2019; Nunthiphatprueksa, 2017; Nurmalina *et al.*, 2019; Sadom *et al.*, 2021; Tan, 2017; Tan *et al.*, 2022) in a tourism context have integrated the TPB and the S-O-R. However, this combination has not been used to investigate the moderating effect of visa requirements expectations on the relationship between the TPB-based predictor variables and intention to visit a destination of choice, or the mediating effect of emotional responses on the relationship between visa requirements expectations and intention to visit a destination. The S-O-R model was used to depict the way expectations about visa requirements functioned as a stimulus to the organism (emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process), which in turn generates tourists' behavioural responses (intention to visit a destination of choice). The TPB was used to explain how attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control influenced a tourist's intention to visit a destination, and how the relationships between attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control and visit intention were moderated by the tourists' expectations about visa requirements. The inclusion of expectations about visa requirements and of the emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process provided a better understanding of tourists' intention to visit a destination of choice, which were not reflected in the original constructs of the TPB. Therefore, the current study provided a first attempt to combine the TPB and S-O-R model in order to understand the influence of visa requirements on destination choice, since the predictive power of an integrated model is superior to the predictive power of an individual theory. Therefore, this study contributes by extending and verifying the use of the integrated TPB and S-O-R model to understand the influence of visa requirements on destination choice.

To date, studies investigating the relationship between visa requirements and destination choice, as well the role that a tourist's emotions play in the visa application process are limited. A **seventh** contribution is that this research study therefore adds to the body of knowledge by broadening our understanding of tourists' travel behaviour.

**Last**, the study developed a new model, based on the integration of the TPB and the S-O-R model and tested this model. The model can be used to predict the influence of visa

requirements on tourists' intention to visit a destination of choice since it explains the relationships between visa requirements expectations, the emotions that are triggered as a result of the visa application process, and a tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice.

The findings of this research provide several practical contributions, which are discussed in the next section.

### **8.6.2 Practical contributions**

Given the fact that tourism is one of the major drivers of economic growth and development in most countries, visa requirements will not likely be eliminated in the near future, as they are regarded as indispensable owing to their effectiveness in strengthening national security (Bianchi, 2006), controlling immigration (Whyte, 2008), acting as a reciprocity mark in international relations (Lieberman & Lautenberg, 1991), and being an economic tool through which revenue is generated (Ng & Whalley, 2008). Nonetheless, from a practical point of view, the results of this study could prove useful to researchers, tourism marketers, tourism organisations, and tourism policymakers.

The study has provided a comprehensive list of visa requirements, and the results have shown the expectations of respondents regarding these requirements. In general, respondents had expectations of a lenient visa application process. For both the items that were added from the focus groups, responses show an expectation for lenient requirements, with 73.2% of respondents expecting the visa application process to be online while 59.7% expected to be issued with a longer validity visa than what they applied for. Although some respondents also reported expectations of a strict process – for example, long processing times, overcrowded venues, many documents to submit, and high application costs. This showed that tourists expected visa requirements to be easy to comply with, even though their home country's mobility score might be low. For example, the mobility score ranking of South Africa is 96 out of 198 countries (96 countries require no visa, and 102 countries require a visa) which, means that a South African tourist requires a visa to travel to 52% of the countries in the world (Passport Index, 2022). Furthermore, the results showed that some of these expectations about visa requirements could influence a tourist's visit intention. These results could assist policymakers to focus on the visa requirements that show a

relationship with visit intention, and to investigate whether these requirements serve a purpose or whether they could be made more lenient. This should then increase visitor numbers to their destinations. For example, Glaesser and Kester (2013) found that “improving visa facilitation could generate an additional US\$206 billion in tourism receipts and create as many as 5.1 million new jobs... in the G-20 economies”.

Obviously, implementing lenient visa requirements policies at a government level would go hand-in-hand with providing the destination country with adequate security while at the same time encouraging the arrival of genuine tourists (Akman, 2016). Furthermore, destination governments should be advised that lenient visa requirements policies not only encourage the arrival and admittance of genuine tourists, but also prevent the entrance of unwanted individuals (Karaman, 2016). Therefore, the study does not advocate the removal of visa requirements, but rather argues for a simplification of the visa application process. While all of the administration that often comes with visa applications cannot be removed entirely, it should be feasible to have a standard and relatively easy visa application process.

As each application is treated on an individual case, visa requirements for tourists differ from country to country, and the requirements are subject to change. However, Table 6.51 proposes a simplified visa application process for international tourists who wish to visit their desired destination on a temporary basis for tourism. The simplified process is split into five visa requirements categories: the documents required to apply for a visa, the cost of visas, the number of embassy visits, the visa processing time, and the chance of denial. Each category contains information on the specific requirements for that category. Details are then provided about the specific information that would be needed for a visa to be processed. The last column on the table provides the reasons for proposing the simplified visa requirements, based on the results of this study.

**Table 8.3: Simplified visa requirements**

<b>Visa requirements categories</b>	<b>Lists of requirements</b>	<b>Details of requirements</b>	<b>Reasons for proposing the simplified visa requirements, based on the study's results</b>
Documents required	Application form	Applicant information, passport information, contact information, purpose of the trip, family background, employment information, security questions, review, or clarification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 73.2% of respondents expect an online process rather than a manual process</li> <li>• 53.8% of respondents expect to submit only a few documents for a visa application</li> <li>• 79.7% of respondents expect that the documents that are necessary for the visa application process will be easy to complete</li> </ul>
	Valid passport	Expiry date should be between 3 to 6 months beyond the date departure	
	Recent passport photos	If the process is manual	
	Proof of guardianship or custody or consent from the guardian	If travelling with minors	
	Proof of financial means	Bank statements, Salary advances, Cash available (including credit cards and travellers' cheques)	
	Travel insurance policy	Medical cover	
Cost of visa	Payment of the prescribed fee	Payment and appointment date scheduling can be done online	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 69.4% of respondents expect to make only a few visits to the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate to apply for a visa</li> <li>• 48.2% of respondents expect the cost of the visa application process to be low</li> </ul>
Embassy visits	Interviews, biometric data captured	Importance of the attitude displayed by the staff when submitting or collecting documents, or queuing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 69.4% of respondents expect to make only a few visits to the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate to apply for a visa</li> <li>• 77.9% of respondents expect that frontline officials (staff) will be friendly</li> <li>• 77.3% of respondents expect not be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on their country of origin, race, religion, or sex) when applying for a visa</li> <li>• 65.5% of respondents expect that they will spend no time queuing when applying for a visa</li> </ul>

				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 83.6% of respondents expect that frontline officials (staff) will respect their privacy</li> <li>• 82.4% of respondents expect that the frontline officials (staff) will make them feel like a legitimate tourist</li> <li>• 84.0% of respondents expect that the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate will adhere to their booked appointment/interview time</li> </ul>
Visa processing time	Visa issued / visa rejected	Obligation to justify visa refusal		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 55.2% of respondents expect the visa application process to have a short processing time</li> <li>• 71.6% of respondents expect to wait a short time for a visa appointment</li> <li>• 73.0% of respondents expect that there will be an immediate visa decision</li> <li>• 59.7% of respondents expect that they will be issued with a longer validity visa than they have applied for</li> <li>• 80.9% of respondents expect that, after a decision has been made about a visa application, the passport will be released without delay</li> </ul>
Chance of denial	Simplified procedure	reapplication	Right of appeal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 75.2% of respondents expect that there will be an appeal process, should the visa application be unsuccessful</li> <li>• 86.9% of respondents expect that the visa application process will be fair.</li> <li>• 71.8% of respondents expect that visa applications will have a low rejection rate</li> </ul>

Source: Researcher's own contribution

The results of the study could also assist DMOs to understand better the decision-making process of tourists who intend to visit a destination, and the role that visa requirements play in this process. The results showed that visa requirements moderated the relationships between attitude, subjective norms, and intention to visit a destination. Armed with this knowledge, DMOs could devise more effective marketing plans to create favourable attitudes towards their destinations, and also encourage more positive word-of-mouth. Interestingly, the results showed that the visa application process did not trigger only negative emotions in tourists. This should come as good news to DMOs, who could use this information to encourage prospective tourists to visit their destinations.

The results also showed differences between the group that had applied for visas and the group that had never applied for visas. Not surprisingly, during the focus groups it became evident that the group that had not applied for visas before were largely unaware of the visa application process in respect of the processing times and costs involved. They also admitted that visas would deter them from visiting a destination. During the focus groups, participants were also asked whether the removal of visas would make them more likely to visit a destination, and all of the participants agreed. It would be important for DMOs and policymakers to take note of this.

The study developed and tested a model that could be used to predict the influence of visa requirements on tourists' visit intention. DMOs could use this model in their specific destinations to test the influence of visa requirements on tourists' intention to visit their destinations. With this knowledge they could lobby policymakers to devise more lenient policies.

The next section discusses the managerial implications.

### **8.6.3 Managerial implications**

From a practical point of view, the results of this research should prove useful to researchers, tourism marketers, tourism organisations, and tourism policymakers. Our findings identified perceived behavioural control as the strongest predictor of travel intentions for both the tourists who had applied for a visa before and those who had not. This result matched that

of previous studies (Clark *et al.*, 2019; Han *et al.*, 2020; Ibrahim *et al.*, 2020; Jordan *et al.*, 2019; Olya *et al.*, 2019; Seow *et al.*, 2017; Soliman, 2021), which showed that perceived behavioural control played an important part when individuals perceived the behaviour as a barrier or as a challenge to perform. As for the tourist's destination choice, perceived behavioural control is dependent on "an individual's self-confidence in his or her ability to travel to that destination", and it is associated with the opportunities for visiting the destination (Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012). Consequently, DMOs and local governments need to enhance the destination's image to make sure that tourists feel that it is easy to visit. The online information could include details about the visa application process, such as the documentation required, the visa processing time, the visa's cost, and where to find the EHC or VFC in tourists' home country. This information would be important, as it would enable tourists to plan their future visits within their time and budget constraints.

Interestingly, the study showed different results in respect of the relationship between subjective norms and attitude and visit intention. For the group that had applied for visas before, subjective norms had no influence on their visit intention'; while, for the group that had not applied for visas before, attitude had no influence on their visit intentions. Even so, it would be advisable for DMOs to pay attention first to the channel of 'word-of-mouth' as a communication tool used by people who are close to the tourist, such as friends, family, colleagues, and superiors, as their opinions could make or break a tourism destination (Bussell & Roberts, 2014; Joo *et al.*, 2020; Ramadhani *et al.*, 2020). Tourist's should be encouraged to provide reviews of their positive tourism experiences on social media; thereby increasing positive "word of mouth". To increase positive 'word-of-mouth' DMOs have to ensure that tourists experience good service and are happy during their time at the destination. Second, it would be advisable for DMOs and local governments to create a favourable attitude toward their destination by promoting a positive image of their country.

For the group that had applied for a visa before, the relationship between tourists' expectations about visa requirements related to time and fairness and their intention to visit a destination was significant. As shown in Table 6.34, time and fairness included visa requirements issues related to unfair treatment from frontline officials (staff); being a victim of institutionalised discrimination, including privacy rights; the appeal process; the difficulty of completing the visa application process documents; the time spent waiting for a visa

decision; the period of the visa's validity; the time spent before a passport is returned; the time spent before being given a visa appointment; and adherence to the booked appointment. This finding is extremely important, as it tells us that tourists' expectations about the time and fairness of the process influence their decision to visit a destination, while the logistical issues involved in the process do not. To increase the perceived fairness of the process, it would be advisable for policymakers to lobby their governments to give reasons for any application being declined so that tourists who wish to draft a new or amended application or to file an appeal could do so, where possible. The right to appeal is important, as it would not only ensure a proper visa process, but might also expose any consular officers' arbitrary decisions and related abuse of power. If the time taken to process and issue a visa is a result of the workload of the EHC or VFS, it would be advisable for policymakers to lobby their governments for the automatic issuing of multiple-entry visas with a longer period of validity to deserving tourists who did not overstay their previous visa and who had no criminal record. This is also in line with the expectation of respondents to be issued with a longer validity visa.

For the group that had never applied for a visa before, the relationship between a tourist's expectations about visa requirements related to visa consular/frontline officials and their intention to visit a destination was significant. This finding was surprising from this specific group of tourists, as they had never previously experienced the visa application process. As shown in Table 6.37, the factor of visa consular/frontline officials included visa requirements issues related to an online or manual visa application process; the rudeness or friendliness of the frontline officials; being a victim of institutionalised discrimination, including privacy rights; the appeal process; and unfair treatment by frontline officials. Based on this result, frontline officials, including security personnel, should be sensitised about the importance of the appropriate treatment of visa applicants through obligatory soft-skills training. This training could focus on customer service, such as being polite and showing professionalism when serving customers. This training should emphasise that visa applicants also have a right to complain to the consul about inappropriate staff conduct.

The results showed that some respondents expected the cost of the visa application process to be high (51.8%); to submit many documents as part of the application process (46.2%); that the visa facilitation centre, embassy, high commission, or consulate would be



overcrowded (45.0%); and that the visa application process would have a long processing time (44.8%). Several tourism studies (Czaika, 2017; Salleh *et al.*, 2010; Salman & Hasim, 2012; Xiang, 2013) have found that strict visa requirements force tourists to look for alternative tourism destinations for leisure purposes. Therefore, based on these results, it would be advisable for policymakers to simplify the list of visa requirements by removing many unnecessary required documents, such as proof of a return ticket purchase and hotel reservation. To reduce the costs covered by tourists, it would be advisable for the visa application process to be restricted to a single visit to the EHC or VFC. Most of the current visits to the EHC or VFC are either to deliver and collect an application (which the applicant could request a courier to send and collect) or for an interview process (which can now be made by telephone or using video conferencing platforms such as Zoom, Microsoft Teams, and Skype). Furthermore, policymakers should lobby their governments to differentiate the treatment of applicants to facilitate tourist travel – for instance, easing the restrictions that depend on the means of transportation, such as allowing cruise passengers to disembark from their ship without a tourist visa for specified ports of entry or geographical areas (Glaesser & Kester, 2013). In addition, to improve the delivery of information, such as making the information on entry formalities available and reliable, visa requirements and procedures should be available in multiple languages and be accessible on the internet. Alternative forms of visas, such as visas on arrival or e-visas, could also be considered by governments. E-visas should be preferred over the traditional option in cases where an entry visa cannot be avoided. The main advantage of the e-visa is that obtaining it requires neither the presence of the passport nor the physical presence of the applicant; and this would be important for destinations without a widespread network of consulates and embassies (Glaesser & Kester, 2013).

Another interesting result that could have implications is that the emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process did not influence visit intention for the group that had applied for visas, but that positive emotions (excitement/ enthusiasm) did have an influence for the group that had not applied. In other words, the results showed that tourists' positive emotions had a significant positive effect on their intention to visit a destination. Therefore, during the visa application process, the EHS or VFS should ensure that they create an environment that triggers positive emotions, such as excitement and

enthusiasm. This could be done by treating applicants with respect, and providing them with an efficient, friendly, and fair service. Again, training should be provided for frontline staff.

#### **8.6.4 Study's limitations**

Although this study was conducted with due consideration for research designs and methodologies in addressing the research objectives, some limitations should be noted that might point to opportunities and recommendations for future research.

The first limitation was that the study was conducted in a single setting, in that it was limited to the South African context. Thus, the findings are confined to this population and cannot be generalised to apply to a wider population. In simpler terms, the respondents were from a single country, and the findings might not be the same for people in other countries. Therefore, comparable research will have to be done in future studies to test and validate the results of this study in other countries.

The second limitation related to the use of convenience sampling to collect responses from tourists who had applied for a visa before and from tourists who had never applied for a visa before. The drawback of using convenience sampling is that there is no real control over the sample selection process. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to the wider target population of South African international travellers. Future studies could consider probability sampling which refers to a random selection of participants so that each participant has an equal chance of being chosen. Despite these limitations, the results from this study sample proved significant and make an important contribution to the international tourism literature.

The use of an online questionnaire resulted in the third limitation. The reason for using an online questionnaire was the outbreak of the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic around the world (Das & Tiwari, 2021; Han *et al.*, 2020; Qiao, Ruan & Pabel, 2021). The questionnaire respondents were recruited through online channels, which might have excluded some population segments who prefer not to be engaged online or who do not have access to emails. Even those respondents who have emails, might opt out due to the cumbersome nature of the web link to a site that allows for completion of the survey. Despite these limitations, an online questionnaire is an effective and efficient method for

studying behaviour, since it has a high level of reliability and validity, and can easily be accessed by respondents in remote locations.

The fourth limitation was the fact that the study only examined the intention to visit a destination of choice instead of capturing the actual behaviour. Even though Ajzen (1991) proved that intention is not equivalent to actual behaviour, behavioural intention is still considered the most immediate significant antecedent of actual behaviour. Also, since the purpose of the study was to measure the role of visa requirements in destination choice (in other words, during the decision-making process), it made sense to measure only intention to visit, and not the visit itself.

The potential bias of the respondents owing to recall errors of past experiences was the fifth limitation of this study. A plausible reason for this phenomenon was that experienced emotions are not at all times entirely recallable (Donovan *et al.*, 1994) because, after six months, individuals cannot reliably recall experiences that transpired before that period (Keaveney, 1995). In other words, emotions are dynamic and time-dependent (Kuppens, Stouten & Mesquita, 2009), and often give rise to inaccurate accounts of actual experiences (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2015; Nawijn *et al.*, 2013).

Destinations have different visa requirements for citizens from different countries; but, to ascertain the role that visa requirements play in visit intention, the study had to make use of a hypothetical scenario. Thus, the final limitation was that the study did not take specific countries with their specific visa requirements into consideration.

Despite these limitations, this study does provide important practical insights and a theoretical foundation for future studies.

## **8.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

The study has contributed new knowledge on the role that visa requirements play in a tourist's decision to visit their destination of choice. These insights, as well as the study's limitations, could inspire and inform an agenda for further research.

First, the theory of planned behaviour and the S-O-R model have largely informed the constructs adopted for this study. Future studies on visa requirements could investigate using alternative theoretical lenses such as the goal-directed behaviour theory.

Second, this study used a hypothetical scenario to measure the role of visa requirements in visit intention. Future studies could use actual destinations. This would enable a comparison between destinations to establish for which destinations the impact of visas is greater. Related to this suggestion, future studies could also use other nationalities as respondents. As mentioned earlier, visa requirements differ from country to country; and using respondents from several countries would enable a comparison of different nationalities, to see for which nationalities the impact of visa requirements might be greater.

Since this study was cross-sectional, future studies could take a longitudinal approach to see how the impact of visa requirements on visit intention changes over time, as tourists become more experienced. The sample of this study might have been biased owing to the large proportion of young, African, and female respondents; therefore, it is recommended that future studies include older participants with a greater representation from other population groups. Younger travellers might be inexperienced, and so the results might differ among a population of older travellers.

The study also highlighted the potential bias of the respondents owing to recall errors of past experiences being a limitation. This is because emotions are dynamic and time-dependent (Kuppens *et al.*, 2009) and often provide inaccurate accounts of actual experiences (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2015; Nawijn *et al.*, 2013). Future studies could attempt to capture tourists' unconscious or implicit emotional responses in real time (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2015; Li *et al.*, 2015).

## **8.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS**

The aim of this chapter was to demonstrate how the research objectives were achieved. The contribution that the study has made, theoretically and practically, its limitations, and suggestions for future research, were also discussed. Research to date has paid little attention to the relationship between visa requirements and destination choice. Another aspect that is overlooked in the literature is the influence of the visa application process on

a tourist's emotions, as well as whether these emotional responses that are triggered as a result of the visa application process influence the tourist's intention to visit their destination of choice. Using the theory of planned behaviour and the stimulus-organism-response model, the study proposed and tested a model to show the role that visa requirements play in the visit intentions of tourists.

The study provides a comprehensive list of visa requirements that were identified from the literature and focus groups. The results show that from 71 per cent to 84 per cent of the respondents had expectations of lenient visa requirements, while from 30 per cent to 52 per cent of the respondents expected strict visa requirements. Importantly, the results showed that some, but not all, of the visa requirements expectations influenced visit intention. For the group that had applied for visas before, the requirements related to time and fairness were significantly related to visit intention, while no relationship was found between the requirements related to costs, appointment, and outcome and visit intention. It could be that this group were more experienced travellers, that they expected issues related to costs, appointment, and outcome as part of the normal visa administration process, and so the requirements would not have influenced their intention to visit a destination. For the group that had not applied for visas before, the requirements related to consular/frontline officials were significantly related to visit intention. This result was confirmed by the focus group participants, who mentioned the treatment they would receive from consular frontline staff the most often as an expectation during the visa application process.

In terms of the emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process, the results showed that both positive and negative emotions were evoked. This contradicted the literature, which claimed that mostly negative emotions were triggered. In terms of the relationship between emotions that were triggered as a result of the visa application process and visit intention for the group that had applied for visas before, the results suggested that the intention to visit a destination of choice was not determined by the negative or the positive emotions triggered by the visa application process. For the group that had applied for visas before, the results showed that the intention to visit a destination of choice was not determined by tourists' upset, determined, or distressed emotions, but by their excited/enthusiastic emotions.

Embedded in the wider field of international tourism, this research not only addressed a number of research gaps and contributed to the body of knowledge, but also provided a knowledge foundation and suggested research avenues to enable governments to improve their visa facilitation, as this could generate additional tourism receipts and create many new jobs (Glaesser & Kester, 2013).

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## **APPENDIX A**

### **Focus group guide for those participants who had applied for a visa before for holiday purposes**



Faculty of Economic and  
Management Sciences

**Informed consent for participation in an academic research study**

**Division of Tourism Management**

**VISA REQUIREMENTS AND DESTINATION CHOICE: APPLYING THE THEORY OF PLANNED  
BEHAVIOUR**

Research conducted by:

Mr. C Juma (22215965)

Cell: 0836648454

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Chisava Juma, a Doctoral student from the Division of Tourism Management at the University of Pretoria. The purpose of the study is to assess your perceptions and expectations of the visa application process.

Please note the following:

- You participate in this focus group anonymously, as your name will not appear in the results. The answers you give will be treated as strictly confidential as you cannot be identified in person based on the answers you give.
- Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
- Please respond to the questions asked by the facilitator as completely and honestly as possible. This should not take more than 2 hours of your time.
- Please note that this discussion will be recorded in order to facilitate its recollection.
- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.
- Please contact my supervisor, Prof. A Douglas (e-mail: [anneli.douglas@up.ac.za](mailto:anneli.douglas@up.ac.za)) if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

In research of this nature the study leader may wish to contact participants to verify the authenticity of data gathered by the researcher. It is understood that any personal contact details that you may provide will be used only for this purpose and will not compromise your anonymity or the confidentiality of your participation.

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understand the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.
- You have been given an opportunity to ask questions.
- You have given consent to be recorded during the discussion

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**Participant's signature**

---

**Date**

## **OPENING STATEMENT:**

The purpose of the study is to assess your perceptions and expectations of the visa application process. The focus group discussion is divided into three sections: Section A covers expectations about visa requirements; Section B is about the possible emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the applicant while Section C discusses how visas influence the destination decision-making process. There are no right or wrong answers, as we are interested in your own personal experiences and opinions. In terms of the time duration, this interactive discussion will take no more than two hours. This discussion is recorded for data capturing purposes. Despite being recorded, we can assure you that your identity will remain anonymous and confidential. The questions in the discussion are voluntary and participants have a right not to answer, however, please try to be as involved as possible. We would appreciate it if you could introduce yourselves before giving your opinion, for us to keep track of responses.

## **SECTION A: EXPECTATIONS ABOUT VISA REQUIREMENTS**

1. When planning to travel internationally for holiday purposes, do you try to find out whether visas are required to visit the destination?
2. When you realise that you need a visa to visit your destination of choice, what are the first thoughts or feelings that come to mind?
3. When you apply for a visa, can you explain the process to me?
  - a. before you submit the visa application
  - b. during (or at submission)
  - c. after you have submitted the visa application
4. What supporting documents are typically required from you?
5. Please, list all the visa requirements that you have come across when you applied for a visa to travel internationally for holiday purposes?
6. How long does the visa application process usually take?
7. What is the best part of the process and what is the worst part of the process?
8. Can you recall the worst visa application experience that you have had? What happened?

## **SECTION B: EMOTIONS TRIGGERED AS A RESULT OF THE VISA APPLICATION PROCESS**

9. Can you share with me the emotions that you experience when applying for a visa?
  - a. before you submit the visa application
  - b. during (or at submission)
  - c. after you have submitted the visa application
10. If the consultant interrogates your motives, how does it make you feel?
11. How are you generally treated when you apply for a visa?
12. Have you ever felt disrespected when applying for a visa? Please elaborate.
13. Overall, does the visa application process evoke more positive emotions or more negative emotions?

## **SECTION C: DECISION-MAKING**

14. If you have a choice between a destination that requires a visa, and a destination that does not require a visa, which one will you choose?
15. Have you ever decided not to visit a destination because you realised that a visa is required to visit the destination?
16. Earlier we discussed the emotions you felt when applying for a visa. Do you think these emotions influence your choice of destination? ‘;
17. If you had a negative visa application experience, will it prevent you from revisiting that destination in the future?
18. If you had a positive visa application experience, will it encourage you to revisit that destination in the future?
19. If you had a negative visa application experience, will you share your experience with others?
20. If you had a positive visa application experience, will you share your experience with others?
21. Will you recommend a destination to others, when you had a negative visa application experience?

22. Will you recommend a destination to others, when you had a positive visa application experience?
23. If the destination that you would like to visit removes their visa requirements, would it make you more likely to visit that destination?

**Thank you for your precious time and for agreeing to participate in this important discussion topic.**

## **APPENDIX B**

**Focus group guide for those participants who have never applied a visa before for holiday purposes**



Faculty of Economic and  
Management Sciences

**Informed consent for participation in an academic research study**

**Division of Tourism Management**

**VISA REQUIREMENTS AND DESTINATION CHOICE: APPLYING THE THEORY OF PLANNED  
BEHAVIOUR**

Research conducted by:

Mr. C Juma (22215965)

Cell: 0836648454

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Chisava Juma, a Doctoral student from the Division of Tourism Management at the University of Pretoria. The purpose of the study is to assess your perceptions and expectations of the visa application process.

Please note the following:

- You participate in this focus group anonymously, as your name will not appear in the results. The answers you give will be treated as strictly confidential as you cannot be identified in person based on the answers you give.
- Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
- Please respond to the questions asked by the facilitator as completely and honestly as possible. This should not take more than 2 hours of your time.
- Please note that this discussion will be recorded in order to facilitate its recollection.
- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.
- Please contact my supervisor, Prof. A Douglas (e-mail: [anneli.douglas@up.ac.za](mailto:anneli.douglas@up.ac.za)) if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

In research of this nature the study leader may wish to contact participants to verify the authenticity of data gathered by the researcher. It is understood that any personal contact details that you may provide will be used only for this purpose and will not compromise your anonymity or the confidentiality of your participation.

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understand the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.
- You have been given an opportunity to ask questions.
- You have given consent to be recorded during the discussion

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**Participant's signature**

---

**Date**



## **OPENING STATEMENT:**

The purpose of the study is to assess your perceptions and expectations of the visa application process. The focus group discussion is divided into three sections: Section A covers expectations about visa requirements, Section B is about the possible emotions triggered as a result of the visa application process on the applicant while Section C discusses how visas influence the destination decision-making process. There are no right or wrong answers, as we are interested in your own personal experiences and opinions. In terms of the time duration, this interactive discussion will take no more than two hours. This discussion is recorded for data capturing purposes. Despite being recorded, we can assure you that your identity will remain anonymous and confidential. The questions in the discussion are voluntary and participants have a right not to answer, however, please try to be as involved as possible. We would appreciate it if you could introduce yourselves before giving your opinion, for us to keep track of responses.

## **SECTION A: EXPECTATIONS ABOUT VISA REQUIREMENTS**

1. When planning to travel internationally for holiday purposes, do you try to find out whether visas are required to visit the destination?
2. When you realise that you need a visa to visit your destination of choice, what are the first thoughts or feelings that come to mind?
3. If you have to apply for a visa to visit your destination of choice, what are your expectations and perceptions of the application process?
  - a. before submitting your visa application
  - b. during (or at submission)
  - c. after you have submitted your visa application
4. What supporting documents do you think you will have to submit?
5. How long do you think it will take to apply for a visa?
6. What are your price perceptions of the visa application?
7. How do you expect to be treated during the application process?

## **SECTION B: EMOTIONS TRIGGERED AS A RESULT OF THE VISA APPLICATION PROCESS**

8. Do you expect the visa application process to evoke any emotions in you?
9. What emotions do you expect to feel when you apply for a visa?
  - a. before submitting your visa application
  - b. during (or at submission)
  - c. after you have submitted your visa application
10. Do you think the visa application process will evoke more positive emotions or more negative emotions? Why?
11. I am sure some of you have friends, or family or colleagues who had applied for visas before. When you spoke to them about their experiences, did they share with you how the experience made them feel?

## **SECTION C: DECISION-MAKING**

12. Do you consider visa requirements when choosing a holiday destination? Why or why not?
13. Have you ever decided not to visit a destination because you realised that a visa is required to visit the destination?
14. If you have a choice between a destination that requires a visa, and a destination that does not require a visa, which one will you choose?
15. Earlier we discussed the emotions you felt when applying for a visa. Do you think these expected emotions might influence your choice of destination?
16. If you were to have a negative visa application experience, will it prevent you from revisiting that destination in the future?
17. If you were to have a positive visa application experience, will it encourage you to revisit that destination in the future?
18. If you were to have a negative visa application experience, will you share the experience with others?
19. If you were to have a positive visa application experience, will you share the experience with others?

20. If you were to have a negative visa application experience with a specific destination, would you recommend a destination to others?
21. If you were to have a positive visa application experience with a specific destination, would you recommend a destination to others?
22. If the destination that you would like to visit removes their visa requirements, would it make you more likely to visit that destination?

**Thank you for your precious time and for agreeing to participate in this important discussion topic.**

# APPENDIX C

## Survey instrument



**Informed consent for participation in an academic research study**

**Division: Tourism Management**

**VISA REQUIREMENTS AND DESTINATION CHOICE: APPLYING THE THEORY OF PLANNED  
BEHAVIOUR**

Research conducted by:

Mr. C Juma (22215965)

Cell: 0836648454

Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Chisava Juma, a Doctoral student from the Division: Tourism Management at the University of Pretoria. The purpose of the study is to understand how expectations about visa requirements influence your destination choice.

Please note the following:

- This study involves an anonymous survey. Your name will not appear on the questionnaire and the answers you give will be treated as strictly confidential. You cannot be identified in person based on the answers you give.
- Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
- Please answer the questions as completely and honestly as possible. This should not take more than 10 minutes of your time.
- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.
- Please contact my supervisor, Prof A Douglas (email: [anneli.douglas@up.ac.za](mailto:anneli.douglas@up.ac.za)) if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understand the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.
- You have been given an opportunity to ask questions.

---

**Respondent's Signature**


---

**Date**

I give my consent to participate in this study

Yes	
No	

**PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS AS HONESTLY AS POSSIBLE**

**SECTION A**

1. When was the last time that you travelled internationally for holiday purposes and required a visa for the destination?

Less than 12 months ago	
12-24 months ago	
25-36 months ago	
37-48 months ago	
More than 48 months ago	
I have never travelled internationally for holiday purposes where I required a visa for the destination.	

2. Are you planning to travel internationally in the next three years for holiday purposes?

Yes	
No	

3. Please name the destination country that you expect to visit within the next three years for holiday purposes?

--

4. Have you previously visited this destination?

Yes	
No	

## SECTION B – DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

5. How old are you?

--

6. When travelling internationally for holiday purposes, who are you most likely to travel with?

I go alone	
My spouse or partner	
My family	
My friends	
My colleagues	
My extended family	
Other (please specify)	

7. What is your gender?

Male	
Female	
Other	
Prefer not to say	

8. To which population group do you belong to?

African	
Coloured	
Indian	
White	
Other (please specify)	

9. What is your highest academic qualification?

Secondary school completed	
Tertiary Certificate/Diploma	
Undergraduate degree	
Postgraduate degree	
Other, (please specify)	

10. What is your relationship status?

Single (not married)	
Married/Living together	
Divorced/ widowed/ separated	
Other (please specify)	

11. What is your place of residence?

Eastern Cape	
Free State	
Gauteng	
Kwazulu-Natal	
Limpopo	
Mpumalanga	
North West	



Northern Cape	
Western Cape	
Other (please specify)	

In question 4, you indicated the destination you are most likely to travel to in the next three years. Please answer the questions that follow with this destination in mind. Also, please assume that you require a visa for this destination, which will require you to pay a visa fee, submit certain documents, comply with all the expectations about visa requirements and make an appointment at the visa facilitation service or the destination's embassy, consulate or high commission.

### SECTION C – ATTITUDE

12. Indicate your level of agreement regarding your attitude towards the destination you mentioned in question 4. I think visiting this destination would be:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Valuable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Desirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unforgettable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### SECTION D – SUBJECTIVE NORMS

13. Specify the degree to which you agree with the following statements regarding the destination you mentioned in question 4:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I would like to visit this destination because it is popular among my friends, colleagues, superiors, or family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most people who are important to me would probably think it would be good to visit this destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most people who are important to me approve that I take a holiday to this destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most people who are important to me support that I take a holiday to this destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most people who are important to me recommend that I take a holiday to this destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION E – PERCEIVED BEHAVIOURAL CONTROL

14. Specify your level of agreement with the following statements regarding the destination you mentioned in question 4

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Whether or not I visit this destination is completely up to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have enough time to travel to this destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have enough financial resources to travel to this destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am confident that if I want to, I can travel to this destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## SECTION F – EXPECTATIONS ABOUT VISA REQUIREMENTS

15. Thinking about the destination you mentioned in question 4, and assuming that you will require a visa to visit this destination please place an "X" at the point that you believe best reflects your expectations of the visa application process.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I expect the visa application process to have a:								
Long processing time								Short processing time
I expect the visa application process to be:								
Manual								Online
I expect to make:								

Numerous visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa.									Few visits to the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to apply for a visa.
I expect the costs of the visa application process to be:									
High									Low
I expect that visa applications for this destination will have a:									
High rejection rate									Low rejection rate
As part of the visa application, I expect to submit:									
Many documents									Few documents
I expect the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate to be:									
Overcrowded									Empty
I expect frontline officials (staff) to be:									
Rude									Friendly
When applying for a visa I expect:									
To be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)									Not to be a victim of institutionalised discrimination (based on my country of origin, race, religion or sex)
When applying for a visa I expect to:									
Spend a lot of time queuing									Spend no time queuing
I expect that there will be:									
No appeal process, should my visa application be unsuccessful									An appeal process should my visa application be unsuccessful

During the visa application process I expect frontline officials (staff) to:									
Infringe my privacy									Respect my privacy
During the visa application process I expect that frontline officials (staff) will:									
Make me feel like a criminal									Make me feel like a legitimate tourist
I expect that the necessary documents for the visa application process will be:									
Difficult to complete									Easy to complete
When applying for a visa, I expect:									
A delayed visa decision									An immediate visa decision
I expect to be issued with a:									
Shorter validity visa than what I applied for									Longer validity visa than what I applied for
After a decision has been made regarding my visa application, I expect									
My passport to be released with delay									My passport to be released without delay
I expect to wait a _____ time for a visa appointment.									
Long									Short
I expect that the visa application process will be _____.									
Unfair									Fair
I expect that the visa application process will be _____ to complete.									
Difficult									Easy
I expect that the Visa Facilitation Centre, Embassy, High Commission or Consulate will _____ my booked appointment/interview time.									
Postpone									Adhere to

## SECTION G – EMOTIONS TRIGGERED AS A RESULT OF THE VISA APPLICATION PROCESS

16. I expect the visa application process will make me feel:

	Very Slightly or Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Quite a Bit	Extremely
Interested	1	2	3	4	5
Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
Excited	1	2	3	4	5
Upset	1	2	3	4	5
Strong	1	2	3	4	5
Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
Scared	1	2	3	4	5
Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
Proud	1	2	3	4	5
Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
Alert	1	2	3	4	5
Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
Determined	1	2	3	4	5
Attentive	1	2	3	4	5
Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
Active	1	2	3	4	5
Afraid	1	2	3	4	5

## SECTION H – INTENTION TO VISIT THE DESTINATION OF CHOICE

17. Specify your level of agreement with the following statements regarding the destination you mentioned in question 4:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I plan to visit this destination in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am keen to visit this destination in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to visit this destination in the near future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would prefer to visit this destination as opposed to other similar destinations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Thank you very much for your time and for participating in this survey**

## **APPENDIX D**

### **Research Ethics Committee Approval Letter**




**RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

**Approval Certificate**

20 November 2020

 Mr C Juma  
 Department: Division of Tourism Management

Dear Mr C Juma

The application for ethical clearance for the research project described below served before this committee on:

<b>Protocol No:</b>	EMS194/20
<b>Principal researcher:</b>	Mr C Juma
<b>Research title:</b>	Visa requirements and destination choice: applying the theory of planned behaviour
<b>Student/Staff No:</b>	22215965
<b>Degree:</b>	Doctoral
<b>Supervisor/Promoter:</b>	Prof A Douglas
<b>Department:</b>	Division of Tourism Management

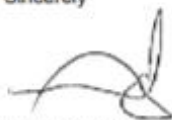
The decision by the committee is reflected below:

<b>Decision:</b>	Approved
<b>Conditions (if applicable):</b>	
<b>Period of approval:</b>	2020-12-21 - 2021-11-30

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

## **APPENDIX E**

### **External market research company privacy policy**

## 2. Confidentiality of survey responses and contact information

We combine your survey responses in a given survey with the responses of all others who participate and report those combined responses to the client that commissioned the study. We will never intentionally report your individual survey responses, except as described below. Your survey responses may be collected, stored or processed by our affiliated companies or non-affiliated service providers, both within and outside South Africa. They are contractually bound to keep any information they collect and disclose to us or we collect and disclose to them confidential and must protect it with security standards and practices that are equivalent to our own.

In addition to keeping your survey responses confidential, we will never sell, share, rent or otherwise intentionally transfer your name, address, telephone number or e-mail address to our clients, other market research companies, direct marketing companies or anyone else.

The only exceptions when we may disclose your personal information or survey responses to third parties are as follows

1. You request or consent to sharing your identifying information and individual responses with the third parties for a specified purpose;
2. In the rare but possible circumstance that the information is subject to disclosure pursuant to judicial or other government subpoenas, warrants, orders or for similar legal or regulatory requirements.

This is found of Sprinvale Online website: <https://www.springvaleonline.co.za/privacy>