https://dspace.org/

Destination image of Swaziland: perceptions of local and international tourists

Mashwama, Vuyelwa C

2016

http://hdl.handle.net/10539/22215

Mashwama, Vuyelwa C. (2016) Destination image of Swaziland: perceptions of local and international tourists, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, <http://wiredspace.wits.ac.za/handle/10539/22215>

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/

Destination Image of Swaziland: Perceptions of Local and International Tourists.

Vuyelwa C. Mashwama

904279

M. Com. (MARKETING)

in the

SCHOOL OF ECONOMIC AND BUSINESS SCIENCES

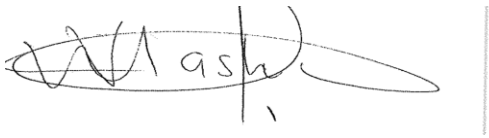
AT THE

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESSBURG

Supervisor: Mr Norman Chiliya

DECLARATION

- The work in this dissertation is my own original work.
- All of the sources which were used or referred to have been documented and recognised.
- This dissertation has not been previously submitted in full or partial fulfilment of the requirements for an equivalent or higher qualification at any other recognised education institution.



18 November 2016

ACKNOWLEDGEMETS

I would like to thank the Almighty God who has seen me through this life altering journey.

I would like to pass my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Norman Chiliya,and his collegues Marike Venter and Professor R. Chinomona for their wisdom, guidance and time in making this research the best it could be.

A special thanks to my family for affording me the chance to continue with my studies and their continuous motivation and support. God bless you.

Abstract

The government of Swaziland has labelled the tourism industry as one of the national priority sectors that has maximum potential to stimulate economic growth through the creation of employment opportunities, poverty alleviation, and foreign income generation. The industry has birthed several supporting business areas such as tour operators, travel agencies, a new airport, and hotels and restaurants. Tourism scholars and practitioners acknowledge the importance of the destination's image as an influence on tourist behaviour. However, existing studies on Swaziland's tourism industry have focused on the development of the tourism industry, community-based tourism, outdoor recreation activities in game reserves, and the economic impact of tourism in Swaziland. As a result, there is limited research focusing on the perceptions of both local and international tourists regarding Swaziland as a tourist destination and how the destination image has influenced tourists' intention to revisit or recommend the destination to others.

This study aims to identify the antecedents of future behavioural intentions of tourists in Swaziland. Employing a quantitative approach, destination image was the predictor variable and was hypothesized to positively influence satisfaction, attitude toward destination, and trust in the destination as mediating variables, and behavioural intentions as the outcome variable. Non-probability was used to sample both local and international tourists that visited Swaziland between the months of August and October 2016. Tourists were interviewed at Mantenga Cultural Village, Swazi Candles, Ngwenya Glass, and departing tourists were interviewed at the Sikhuphe International Airport. A total of 431 respondents were used in study. The data analysis was performed using SPSS 22 and Amos 22 Software Package.

The majority of tourists were positive regarding Swaziland as a tourist destination. Tourists further on indicated that they had satisfactory experiences in Swaziland, and most stated that they trusted the destination. A lot of the tourists had a favourable attitude towards Swaziland and indicated high revisit intentions and positive recommendations.

Furthermore, the findings in this study show that there is a positive and significant relationship between the destination's image and satisfaction. Additionally, the study reveals that satisfaction positively influences tourists' trust in the destination and their attitude towards the destination. Between attitude towards destination and trust in the destination,

tourists' attitudes toward the destination were found to have a stronger effect on their behavioural intentions.

Key words and phrases: Destination image, attitude toward destination, trust in destination

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 1 1
1.1. INTRODUCTION 1
1.2. STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM 3
1.2.1. RESEARCH GAP AND STUDY JUSTIFICATION 5
1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY 5
1.4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES 6
1.4.1. Theoretical objectives 6
1.4.2. Empirical objectives 6
1.5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS 7
1.6. SIGNIFICANCE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY 7
1.7. CONCEPTUAL RESEARCH MODEL/FRAMEWORK 8
1.8. LITERATURE REVIEW 10
1.8.1. Principal theories upon which the research project is constructed 10
1.8.2. Review of literature on research variables of interest: 13
1.9. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS 18
1.9.1. Research Philosophy 18
1.9.2. Sampling design 18
1.9.3. Target population 19
1.9.4. Sample size 20
1.9.5. Sampling method 20
1.10. QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN 21
1.10.1. Respondents profile/general information 21
1.10.2. Research variables measurement instruments 21
1.10.3. Data collection approach (Questionnaire distribution and collection method) 22
1.11. DATA ANALYSIS APPROACH 23
1.12. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS 23
1.13. LIMITATIONS 24
1.14. STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH 24
CHAPTER 2 25
CONTEXT OF THE STUDY 25
2.1. INTRODUCTION 25
2.2. GLOBAL OVERVIEW OF TOURISM 25
2.3. BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE KEY CHARACTERISTICS OF SWAZILAND IN RELATION TO TOURISM 26
2.3.1. Key visitor attractions 27
2.3.2. Accommodation 28

2.3.3. Visitor arrivals 29
2.4. CHALLENGES OF TOURISM IN SWAZILAND 30
2.5. OPPORTUNITIES FOR TOURISM IN SWAZILAND 32
2.6. INITIATIVES BY GOVERNMENT TO DEVELOP AND PROMOTE THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN SWAZILAND 33
2.7. SUMMARY 35
CHAPTER 3 37
LITERATURE REVIEW 37
3.1 INTRODUCTION 37
3.2 THEORITICAL FOUNDATION 37
3.2.1 The Expectancy Disconfirmation Paradigm 37
3.2.2. Theory of Reasoned Action 41
3.3 EMPIRICAL REVIEW 42
DISCUSSION OF VARIABLES 42
3.3.1. Destination Image 42
3.3.2 Satisfaction 47
3.3.3 Attitude toward the Destination 53
3.3.4. Customer Trust in the Destination 55
3.3.5. Behavioural Intentions 57
3.4 SUMMARY 60
CHAPTER 4 61
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES 61
4.1. INTRODUCTION 61
4.2. HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT 62
4.2.1. Destination Image and Satisfaction 62
4.2.2. Satisfaction and Attitude toward Destination 63
4.2.3. Attitude toward Destination and Behavioural Intentions 64
4.2.4. Satisfaction and Trust in the Destination 65
4.2.5. Trust in the Destination and Behavioural Intentions 66
4.3. SUMMARY 67
CHAPTER 5 69
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 69
5.1 INTRODUCTION 69
5.2 RESEARCH APPROACH 69
5.3 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY 69
5.4 RESEARCH DESIGN 70
5.5 RESEARCH METHOD 71

5.5.1. Quantitative Research 71
5.6 SAMPLING DESIGN 71
5.6.1 Target Population 72
5.6.2 Sampling Frame 72
5.6.3 Sample Size 72
5.6.4 Sample Method 72
5.7 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN 73
5.8 DATA COLLECTION 75
5.9 DATA ANALYSIS 76
5.9.1 Data Cleaning and Coding 76
5.9.2 Descriptive Statistics 76
5.9.3 Reliability and Validity of Measurement Scales 76
5.10 Structural Equation Modeling 77
5.10.1 Confirmatory factor analysis 77
5.10.2 Path Modelling 78
5.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS 78
5. 12 LIMITATIONS OF STUDY 79
5.13 SUMMARY 79
CHAPTER 6 80
DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS 80
6.1 INTRODUCTION 80
6.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS 80
6.2.1 Travel Party 81
6.2.2 Past Travel Experience 82
6.3 QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS 83
6.3.1 INTERNATIONAL SAMPLE 83
Destination Image (DI 1 to DI 18) 85
Satisfaction (S1 to S3) 86
Customer Trust in the Destination (CT1 to CT4) 86
Attitude toward Destination (AD1 to AD3) 86
Behavioural Intentions (BI1 to BI18) 86
6.3.2 LOCAL SAMPLE 87
Destination Image (DI 1 to DI 18) 88
Satisfaction (S1 to S3) 89
Customer’s Faith in the Destination (CT1 to CT4) 89
Attitude toward Destination (AD1 to AD3) 89
Behavioural Intentions (BI1 to BI18) 89

6.4 RELIABILITY TEST 91
6.4.1 Cronbach's Alpha 92
6.4.2 Composite Reliability 93
6.4.3 Average Variance Extracted 93
6.5 VALIDITY TESTS 94
6.5.1 Construct Validity 94
6.5.2 Convergent Validity 94
6.5.3 Discriminant Validity 95
6.6 CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS 95
6.6.1 Measurement Model 95
6.6.2 Model Fit Results 97
6.6.2.1 Chi-square (χ^2) 98
6.6.2.2 Goodness-of-fit Index 98
6.6.2.3 The Norm Fit Index 98
6.6.2.4 The Comparative Fit Index 99
6.6.2.5 The Incremental Fit Index 99
6.6.2.6 Tucker-Lewis Index 99
6.6.2.7 Relative Fit Index 99
6.6.2.8 Root Mean Square Error of Approximation 99
6.7 STRUCTURAL MODEL 100
6.7.1 Hypothesis Testing Results (Path Modelling) 102
- The Results of the Relationship between Destination Image and Satisfaction 102
- The Results of the Relationship between Satisfaction and Attitude towards Destination 103
- The Results of the Relationship between Attitude towards Destination and Behavioural Intentions 103
- The Results of the Relationship between Satisfaction and Tourists' trust in the Destination 103
- The Results of the Relationship between Customers' Faith and Behavioural Intentions 104
6.8 SUMMARY 104
CHAPTER 7 105
DISCUSSION OF RESULTS 105
7.1. INTRODUCTION 105
7.2. DESTINATION IMAGE AND SATISFACTION 105
7.3. SATISFACTION AND ATTITUDE TOWARD DESTINATION 106
7.4. ATTITUDE TOWARDS DESTINATION AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS 106
7.5. SATISFACTION AND TRUST IN DESTINATION 107

7.6. TRUST IN DESTINATION AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS 107
7.7. CONCLUSION 108
CHAPTER 8 109
CONCLUSIONS, CONTRIBUTION, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH 109
8.1. INTRODUCTION 109
8.2. CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY 109
8.3. THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY 111
8.3.1. CONTRIBUTION TO PRACTICE 111
8.3.2. CONTRIBUTION TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE 113
8.4. LIMITATIONS AND SUGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH 114
8.5. SUMMARY 115
REFERENCES 116
APPENDIX A 162
Sample Participant Letter 162
APPENDIX B 163
QUESTIONNAIRE 163
APPENDIX C 167
Ethics Clearances Certificate 167

List of Tables

Table 1.1 Research variables measurement 21

Table 2.1 Visitor Arrivals per Region 2008-2014 30

Table 2.2 Trade Shows Attended by the STA 34

Table 4.1 The questions adapted from pub 1 74

Table 6.1 Sample Description of both International and Local Tourists 80

Table 6.2 Analysis of Frequencies of the five constructs (international sample) 83

Table 6.3 Analysis of Frequencies of the five constructs (Local sample) 87

Table 6.4 The Differences between the Destination image of Swaziland for local and International visitors 90

Table 6.5 Frequency/Percentage Indicators of Questionnaire Results 92

Table 6.6 Correlation Matrix 95

Table 6.7 Model Fit Results 98

Table 6.8 Results of the Path Model Analysis 102

List of Figures

Figure 1.1 Conceptual research model/framework 8

Figure 2.1 Visited Attraction Sites, 2010-2014 28

Figure 4.1: Proposed Conceptual Model 61

Figure 6.1 Travel Party of Tourists 82

Figure 6.2 Tourists' Past Travel Experie 82

Figure 6.3 Nationalities of Tourists 83

Figure 6.4 Measurement Model (CFA Model) 97

Figure 6.5 Path Model 101

CHAPTER 1

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This first chapter provides an introduction to the research paper. It briefly deliberates on the issues that will be discussed in greater detail in succeeding chapters. The chapter discusses the problem statement, and the study's aims and objectives, followed by the literature overview and a discussion of the research methodology.

The government of Swaziland has labelled the tourism industry as one of the national priority sectors that has maximum potential to stimulate economic growth through the creation of employment opportunities, poverty alleviation, and foreign income generation (Central Bank of Swaziland, 2014; Jesca, Kumbirai and Brighton, 2014; Chen and Tsai, 2007). Thus, over the years, the government has allocated funds to the Swaziland Tourism Authority (STA) to improve existing tourist circuits and to develop new ones. The STA is an agency that the Swaziland government established in 2001, and it was mandated to market the kingdom of Swaziland as a travel destination of choice within the country, and internationally.

Consequently, there has been an emergence of support areas such as tour operators, travel agencies, a new airport, and construction of hotels and restaurants (STA, 2015). Moreover, the STA reports that there was a 10% increase of tourists entering the country in 2014. This further indicates that most visitors come from Europe (STA, 2015). Destination image is recognized as a central area in tourism because it is a construct that captures the perceptions of tourists regarding a particular destination (Jenkins, 1999; Ramseook-Munhurrun, Seebaluck and Naidoo, 2015). This concept is imperative because of its influence on pre-visit decision-making, actual vacation experience, experience assessments, and post-visit behavioural intentions and behaviours (Chen and Tsai, 2007).

Globally, the increased competition amongst destinations (Artuğer, Cetinsoz and Kılıc, 2013) has resulted in consumers being flooded with innumerable destination choices that are similar in areas such as quality accommodation, friendly people, or beautiful natural attractions (Qu, Kim and Im, 2011). Hence, what is important is that Swaziland as a destination must be incorporated in the tourist's evoked set destinations from which an ultimate decision is made (Chen and Tsai, 2007). However, what is paramount is a distinctive and favourable image

that will increase the likelihood of a destination being chosen (Tasci, Gartner and Cavusgil, 2007). There has been increased acknowledgement of the importance not only by scholars but practitioners as well of the destination image because of its influence on tourist behaviour (Li and Vogelsong, 2006). A potential tourist will consider the destination image in the choice-making process; on-site the tourist will further consider the image to evaluate the quality of the service and moreover use it in future behaviour decision-making (Chen and Chen , 2010). Furthermore, an accurate investigation of the destination will offer informed insights into imaging strategy (Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001), which is a strategy that can be used by practitioners to segment tourists, persuade tourists to revisit destinations, and also build long-lasting relationships.

The existing body of literature has focused on the development of the tourism industry in Swaziland (Harrison, 2001), community-based tourism (Lukhele and Mearns, 2013), outdoor recreation activities in game reserves (Motsa, 2007), and the economic impact of tourism in Swaziland (Masuku, 2010). Furthermore, most studies have investigated how the destination image influences tourist behaviour (Rajesh 2013; Choi, Tkachenko and Sil, 2011; Chi and Qu, 2008). Some studies have explored the mediating factors between destination image and future tourist behaviour – loyalty (Petrick and Backman, 2002; Baker and Crompton, 2000; Murphy, Pritchard and Smith, 2000; Petrick, 2004; Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000) and satisfaction (Oh, 1999; Truong and Foster, 2006) as antecedents of brand loyalty, and Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema (2001) claim that the causal relationship between these variables is investigating loyalty from a psychological perspective. Therefore, in spite of these variables being intensely investigated, there is limited research that has been done on the perceptions of both local and international tourists on Swaziland as a tourist destination and how the destination image has influenced the tourists' intention to revisit or recommend the destination to others.

This study aims to investigate how destination image influences tourist satisfaction. Although previous research has concluded that satisfaction does have a direct effect on tourist loyalty (Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015; Özdemir and Şimşek, 2015; Chen and Tsai, 2007; Rajesh, 2013), this paper proposes that this relationship is mediated by customer trust in the destination (Norizan and Salaheldin, 2009; Madjid, 2013; Kassim and Abdullah, 2010; Jani and Han, 2011) and their attitude toward the destination (Gomez-Jacinto, Martin-Garcia and Bertiche-Haud'Huyze, 1999; Bagozzi, Baumgartner and Yi, 1989; Pizam, Jafari and

Milman, 1991; Anastasopoulos, 1992). Therefore, this research paper investigates the mediating role of attitude toward the destination and customer trust in the destination, and how these variables directly influence behavioural intentions, namely their intention to return and/or to recommend the destination to others. According to Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema (2001), incorporating trust in the model bridges the gap of the relational aspect lacking in the study of tourist loyalty. Building long-term relationships with tourists will help the Swaziland tourism industry to retain visitors because it is less expensive than attracting new ones (Valle, Silva Mendes and Guerreiro, 2006,) and in building relationships. Morgan and Hunt (1994) point out that trust plays a vital role in the development of an enduring objective to maintain a long-standing relationship.

1.2. STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

There are several studies that have investigated the tourism industry in Swaziland. Harrison (2001) has extensively investigated tourism in Swaziland and has focused on the development of tourism in Swaziland, how prostitution, tradition and modernity have affected tourism in Swaziland. Masuku (2010) examined the economic impact of tourism, and Lukhele (2013) and Lukhele and Mearns (2013) have concentrated on operational challenges of community-based tourism ventures in Swaziland. This indicates that there is limited research available on the image perception of Swaziland as a tourist destination, even though tourism in Swaziland has contributed immensely to economic growth (CBS, 2014). Yet, as many scholars agree, these perceptions play a key role in the selection of a destination (Beerli and Martin, 2004), the subsequent evaluation of that stay, and deciding on future intentions (Bigne, Sanchez, Sanchez, 2001). Hence, views held by tourists about a destination in the marketplace are critical to a destination's marketing success (Leisen, 2001).

According to Matzler, Grabner-Kräuter, and Bidmon (2006) trust is imperative and one of the most necessary factors in the bond between a company and its customers. Likewise, Roodurmun and Juwaheer (2010) argue that the ever-increasing, incalculable choice of destinations offered to consumers has amplified the significance of destination trust as a tactic to establish and sustain loyalty towards a destination. However, Arnolt (2007), Roodurmun and Juwaheer (2010), and Hsu and Cai (2009) contend that there is a dearth of research regarding the concept of trust in the tourism context. The construct appears to be

under-researched or unnoticed, and thus, Hsu and Cai (2009) call on academics to explore this interesting concept by engaging in empirical research.

The advancement in technology, and changes in the demographic, socio-economic, and political arenas have increased competition amongst tourist destinations, all of which are seeking the tourist's attention (Artuğer et al., 2013). However, the challenge faced by practitioners in the tourism industry is that there is no urgency about taking a holiday (Sarma, 2007). Tourists rarely purchase holidays, maybe only once or twice in a year, especially if it is an international trip (McKercher and Guillet, 2012). Therefore, there is an increasing need for destination marketers in Swaziland to understand tourist behaviour and what exactly tourists' expectations are when they visit destinations in the country (De Jesus, 2013).

For many years Swaziland has received residual tourists from major tourist destinations in the Southern African region, mainly South Africa and Mozambique (National Tourism Policy, 2010). However, Swaziland tourism statistics report a change and reflects an inward growth of international tourists coming into the country from different nations (STA, 2015). Consequently, there are new target markets entering the industry which the country has never dealt with before. Nevertheless, there is limited research exploring foreign tourists' perceptions, of Swaziland as a destination (Wijethunga and Warnakulasooriya, 2014; Tasci, 2009), and yet such findings are important for the segmentation of tourists (Leisen, 2001). This introduces factors that affect tourist behaviour, which are mainly socio-cultural or personal factors (Chen, Lin, and Petrick, 2012). Similarly, Schiffman and Kanuk (2010) point out that culture influences consumer behaviour by offering order, direction, and guidance in all phases of problem-solving.

The 2010 revised Swaziland National Tourism Policy identified domestic tourism as vital for sustaining the tourism industry in the country, especially during seasons of low international arrivals. Garcia, Gómez, and Molina (2012) state that many scholars have investigated the importance of stakeholders in tourism studies, however, most studies do not include local people. Thus, their perceptions on local tourists' impressions of Swaziland as a destination have been neglected.

1.2.1. RESEARCH GAP AND STUDY JUSTIFICATION

Scholars have demonstrated that there is a positive relationship between destination image and loyalty (Wijethunga et al., 2014; Jenkins, 1999; Court Lupton, 1997; Choi et al., 2011) and that sometimes this relationship is mediated by perceived quality, perceived value and satisfaction by the consumer (Chen and Tsai, 2007; Petrick, 2004). This has been demonstrated by scholars who have done destination image studies in different contexts. For instance, Bigne et al. (2001) focused on Spanish tourist towns, Ramseook-Munhurrum et al. (2015) focused on an island tourist destination – Mauritius, and Chen et al. (2007) focused on coastal destinations in southern Taiwan. However, this study aims to investigate how destination image influences satisfaction in the context of Swaziland as a destination–a developing nation where the tourism industry is at its infancy, yet tourism has been identified as one sector that significantly contributes to economic growth.

Furthermore, the study aims to fill up the gap in tourism marketing by examining the influence of destination image on tourists' future intentions, which is not just mediated by satisfaction (Bigne et al., 2001; Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015), but with satisfaction as an antecedent of attitude towards a destination and customer trust in the destination, which directly influences loyalty. According to Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema (2001), trust adds a relational aspect to the influence of destination image on loyalty. These variables are important because research indicates that satisfaction positively influences loyalty, however, some scholars contradict this notion and claim that satisfaction does not always suggest loyalty (Mittal and Lasar, 1998: Oliver, 1999).

Moreover, in the quest of the Swaziland Tourism Authority to increase both international and local tourists, this study explores perceptions of both local and foreigner tourists. This will assist in segmenting these tourist groups, therefore enabling specific targeting in terms of packages and communication. Furthermore, it will provide insight into how loyalty in these two target markets can be increased.

1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to investigate both local and international tourists' perceptions of Swaziland as a destination. That is, to establish the influence of the destination image on

tourist destination loyalty. The study investigates how the destination image directly influences satisfaction. Moreover, it explores how satisfaction is an antecedent of attitude toward the destination and tourists' trust in the destination mediation. Further on, it probes the influence of attitude toward the destination and tourists' trust in the destination on tourists' behavioural intentions. In this study, behavioural intentions are the intentions to return to the destination and to recommend the destination to others in the context of Swaziland.

1.4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.4.1. Theoretical objectives

- to review literature on the Expectancy Disconfirmation Paradigm, and the Theory of Reasoned Action;
- to review literature on destination image and satisfaction experienced by a tourist in Swaziland;
- to review literature on attitude toward the destination;
- to review literature on customer trust in the destination;
- to review literature on behavioural intentions (re-visit and intention to recommend);
- to design a conceptual model for the study;
- to design a research instrument that is used to collect data for the study; and
- to test the conceptual model.

1.4.2. Empirical objectives

- to investigate the indirect influence of a destination's image on local and/or foreign tourists' behavioural intentions (intention to re-visit and intention to recommend the destination) in the Swazi context;
- to investigate the relationship between destination image and satisfaction;
- to investigate the influence of satisfaction on attitudes toward the destination and customers' trust in the destination;
- to investigate the effect of attitude towards the destination on intention to re-visit, and the intention to recommend the destination; and
- to investigate the effect of tourists' trust in the destination on their intention to recommend the destination.

1.5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To address the identified research gap and satisfy the study objectives, this thesis is guided by the following research questions:

- To what extent does perceived destination image influence satisfaction of both local and international tourists in Swaziland?

- To what extent does satisfaction influence attitudes towards destination of both local and international tourists in Swaziland?

- To what extent does satisfaction influence customers' faith in the destination of both local and international tourists in Swaziland?

- To what extent do the local and international tourists' attitudes toward the destination influence intentions to re-visit and recommend the destination?

- To what extent for both local and international tourists in Swaziland does customers' faith in a destination influence their intention to re-visit and recommend the destination?

1.6. SIGNIFICANCE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study adds to existing literature in the fields of tourism marketing, consumer behavior, and especially tourist behaviour. Moreover, it adds to existing knowledge on destination image and the antecedents of destination loyalty.

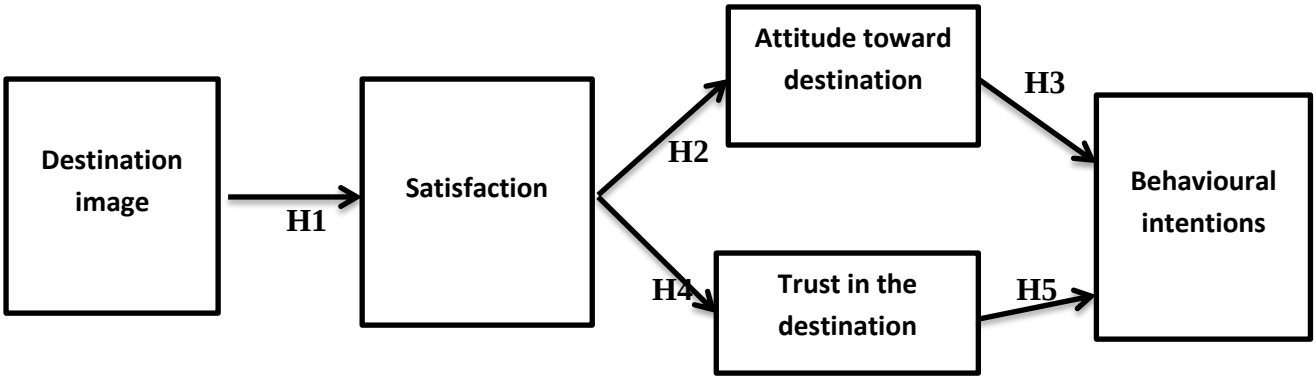
The study aims to contribute to the literature of brand loyalty by adding a relational perspective by exploring the influence of trust on loyalty in the context of tourism. This is imperative to practitioners, because for them to obtain substantial competitive and economic advantages provided by loyal customers–such as price insensitivity or positive word of mouth–should be destination marketing managers aim, and they should endeavor to have satisfied tourists and build trust between customers and brand (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema, 2001).

Furthermore, the aim of the study is to determine both local and international tourists' perceived destination image of Swaziland. Such findings will provide insight to destination marketers in parastatals such as the Swaziland Tourism Authority (National Tourism Policy, 2010), when taking important decisions concerning planning, development, positioning, and promotion and therefore promote intelligent destination marketing (Wijethunga et al. 2014). The perceptions regarding a destination inform the supply decisions of what to promote, how to carry out the promotion of the destination, who will be targeted, the actual product that is purchased, and how the tourism product should be designed (Qu et al., 2011).

With the tourism industry highly competitive globally (Balakrishnan, 2008), as a developing country, Swaziland experiences constrained resources, and with its tourism industry still in its infancy, it is important to identify profitable tourists. According to Quintal, Phau, and Polczynski (2014), a tourist who holds a favourable or positive destination image has a higher possibility of choosing that destination and of experiencing a favourable future behaviour. This study will help to identify the varying perceptions of tourists by nationality, and thus alter the country's marketing communication accordingly, and according to the image held by tourists.

1.7. CONCEPTUAL RESEARCH MODEL/FRAMEWORK

Figure 1.1 Conceptual research model/framework



The purpose of the study is to investigate both local and international tourists' perceptions on Swaziland as a destination. The above conceptual model is proposed for study. The conceptual model is made up of five variables that have been adopted from previous studies that have investigated tourism in different places (Bigne et al., 2001; Chen and Tsai, 2007;

Ramseook-Munhurrum et al., 2014; Jalilvand, Samiei, Dini and Manzari, 2012; Hsu and Cai, 2009; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema, 2001). Destination image has been found to influence tourist behaviour (Chi and Qu, 2008). According to Bigne et al. (2001), Lee, Lee, and Lee (2005) and Chen and Tsai (2007), the destination image influences on-site experiences, and, based upon the contrast between expectation and actual performance, the tourist will either be satisfied or dissatisfied depending on the service experienced.

Just as Gallarza et al. (2002) define 'destination image' as how the tourist perceives the contribution of tourism services such as accommodation, food, transport, and activities, the consumer judges the service quality based on these aspects. Thus, Lee et al. (2005) propose that a tourist holding a positive destination image is more likely to perceive their trip quality more favourably. Moreover, Bigne et al. (2001) propose that the tourists' assessment of an experience at the destination will also influence the image and modify it. Furthermore, if the tourist perceives to have received value, that is, that benefits match costs, then this would consequently result to greater satisfaction (Chen and Tsai (2007)). Similarly, according Cronin et al. (2000) satisfaction results from the consumer's perception that they have received value Moreover, others scholars have concluded that destination image influences the tourist's intention to return and to recommend the destination (De Ruyter, Wetzels and Bloemer, 1998; Tasci and Gartner (2007). Thus from the submissions above, it can be hypothesised that:

H1*: Destination image has significant positive influence on satisfaction.*

Oliver (1980) argues that after a satisfactory experience, attitudes are revised, and Schiffman et al. (2010) contends that consumers' attitudes are consistent, and therefore a consumer will act according to the attitude they hold. A favourable destination image positively influences the overall satisfaction of a tourist (Chi and Qu, 2008). Given that attitudes predetermine behavioural intention (Houran, Lange and Lange, 2013), a positively held attitude will result in a favourable behavioural intention. Thus it can be hypothesised that:

H2*: Satisfaction has significant positive influence on attitude toward destination.*

H3*: Attitude toward destination has significant positive influence on behavioural intention.*

According to Chen and Chen (2010), loyalty will only occur if a customer is satisfied with the performance of a service, which is aligned with Chaudhuri and Holbrook's (2001) definition of 'brand trust', namely that it is the willingness of the customer to rely on the capability of the brand to perform its stated function. Trust is posited to mediate the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty (Madjid, 2013: Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema, 2001). Trust is an important element in building a long-term customer-seller relationship, and Jani and Han (2011) propose that it is forward-looking in nature, and therefore more likely to influence behavioural intentions. Lau and Lee (1999) argue that experiences result in the customer and provider understanding each other, consequently increasing the chances of both parties trusting each other. Moreover, Madjid (2013) conclude that there is a positive relationship between satisfaction and trust, and subsequently loyalty. Thus it can be hypothesised that:

H4*: Satisfaction has significant positive influence on trust in the destination.*

H5*: Trust in the destination has significant positive influence on behavioural intentions.*

1.8. LITERATURE REVIEW

1.8.1. Principal theories upon which the research project is constructed

The Expectancy Disconfirmation Paradigm

Oliver (1977; 1980) proposes the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm (EDP), a theory used by many scholars in marketing literature and other disciplines to investigate (customer) satisfaction (Truong and Foster, 2005; Tribe and Snaith 1998; Weber, 1997), and it has been found to be the best predictor of satisfaction (Szymanski and Henard 2001; Pike 2004). The theory posits that consumers purchase goods and services with pre-purchase expectations about the anticipated performance (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001). The consumer uses the level of expectation as a standard against which the product or service performance is judged, that is, after the product/service experience, the consumer will compare the outcome to the expectations (Spreng and Page, 2003). The theory holds that there are two likely outcomes: confirmation and disconfirmation.

According to Oliver (1977), confirmation will occur if the outcome matches the expectation, and disconfirmation takes place when there is a discrepancy between expectation and outcome, thus, a consumer will either be satisfied or dissatisfied, based on a positive or negative difference between their expectations and perceptions. According to Yi (1990) and Spreng and Page (2003), when a product/service performance is better than what the consumer had expected, there is a positive disconfirmation between expectations and performance, and consequently satisfaction, whereas, when the product/service performance is as expected, there is confirmation between expectations and perceptions, therefore resulting in satisfaction. However, when performance is below the standard of expectations, there is negative disconfirmation between expectations and perceptions, thus resulting in dissatisfaction (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001).

Many scholars agree that the destination image is the tourist's overall insight or total set of impressions of a place, and therefore there is a biased interpretation of reality made by the tourist (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). Furthermore, it is argued that the destination image influences tourist behaviour (Lee et al., 2005; Chen and Tsai, 2007). Sometimes individuals may hold images about a place based only on information from other sources rather than from information put out by destination marketers (Prebensen, 2007), for example information from history and geography books, newspaper reports, and other sources. Such images are called organic images, and Leisen (2001) states that they are incomplete images. Tourists may obtain information derived from targeted promotions directed by tourism organisations and these are referred to as induced images (Wijethunga et al., 2014). However, both images are less a function of the information used to form the image, and more an image based on the individual's perception. Moreover, out of these perceptions of an image, tourists will then form expectations (Leisen (2001), and according to the EDP, this is pre- purchase expectation that is employed by the tourist as a standard against which the destination performance is judged once on-site and once they decide to travel; the tourist expects a rewarding experience from the trip based on the destination's promise (Leisen, 2001; Chen, 2006).

According to Bigne et al. (2001), the destination image, which consists of evaluation of on-site experience and in determining satisfaction, will further influence tourist behaviour. Similarly, the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Theory holds that based on the destination performance, the tourist will either be satisfied or not, and the difference between the

outcome and expectation is important (Spreng and Page, 2003). The tourists will be satisfied if the destination image (expectations) exceeds the outcome (destination brand performance) or if the outcome (destination brand performance) matches the expectation formed from the destination image (Yi, 1990). However, dissatisfaction will result when the destination experience falls short of expectations formed of the destination image (Oliver, 1980).

Theory of Reasoned Action

Oliver (1980) proposed to extend the EDP, and posited that both expectation and disconfirmation affects post-exposure product reactions. That is, satisfaction experiences influence future purchase intentions and post-purchase attitudes (Howard, 1974). This draws reasoning from the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), which holds that behaviour is determined by behavioural intention to produce the behaviour (Houran et al., 2013). The TRA asserts that a consumer's behavioural intention depends on the consumer's attitude regarding behaviour and subjective norms (Phau, Sequeira and Dix, 2009). However, for the purposes of this study, the focus is only on one aspect of the theory, namely the influence of attitude on intention. In respect thereof, the theory holds that the more a person has a favourable attitude toward the behaviour, the more strongly the intention to perform the behaviour under consideration (Vallerand, Cuerrier, Pelletier and Mongeau, 1992).

It extends the theory to propose that satisfactory experiences revise attitudes and intention behaviours (Oliver, 1980), thus supporting the sequence model: satisfaction to post-attitude then post-intention. The causal relationship supports the assumption of the Theory of Reasoned Action (Hansen, Moller and Stubbe, 2004). Given the assumptions above, a tourist's satisfaction experience will influence their attitude toward the destination, which will ultimately have an effect on their intention to re-visit or recommend the destination. According to Oliver (1980), a dissatisfying product purchase, which is the destination in this study, will decrease a tourist's inclination to repurchase.

1.8.2. Review of literature on research variables of interest:

Destination Image

Due to the fierce competition in the global tourism industry, countless nations are seeking to develop their country images in order to be able to compete with other destinations. Consequently, the destination image has drawn attention of various scholars (Artuger et al., 2013; Bigne et al., 2001; Chen and Tsai, 2007; Leisen, 2001). The grown interest in the destination image results from the conclusion of many scholars that the image of destination influences a tourist in the process of selecting a place to visit, the subsequent evaluation of that stay and in his or her future intentions (Bigne et al., 2001; Cai, 2002; Lee et al., 2005). The destination image becomes the traveller's expectation Leisen (2001) thus, used as the standard to measure the trip experience.

Though the destination image phenomenon has received a lot of attention from scholars and practitioners, the conceptualization of this construct is dispersed (White, 2004). Destination image is defined as an entirety of views, notions and impressions that a person has of a destination (Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001; García, et al., 2012), others have defined it as the perceptions of tourists about a destination which are a reflection of the views of the contribution of the different tourism services to be found there: accommodation, food, transport and activities (Gallarza. , Saura and Gracia, 2001) and it has been described as the feelings, impressions, opinions and emotions about a place tourist have which develop with time (Kim and Richarson,2003).

The image of destination is formed based on secondary information which could be from the destination marketers (induced image) or sometimes just information about the destination not intended for tourism (organic image) (Reynolds, 1965) thus individuals will have an image even if they have never visited a place, however, the destination image is then modified after experience (Echtner et al., 2003). A destination image can be based on three dimensions: Cognitive (Govers and Go, 2005), affective (Beerli and Martín, 2004) and the unique (Echtner et al., 2003). The cognitive dimension is based on that the destination image will be evaluated by the attributes of its resources and attractions which motivate tourist to visit a tourist destination, the affective dimension is an aspect that refers to feelings and emotions evoked by a tourist destination which is mostly influenced by the motivations of

tourists (Dominique and Lopes, 2011**)** and the unique dimension refers to the distinctive features and events which could be functional characteristics or psychological, however are exclusive to that particular destination (Echtner et al., 2003). These three dimensions have been found to be influential indicators of destination image (Uysal, Chen, and Williams, 2000; Mackay and Fesenmaier, 2000; Qu et al., 2011).

The destination image is the personal interpretation of reality by tourists (Bigne et al., 2001) consequently, becoming an expectation of the trip (Leisen, 2001). Thus, tourist behaviour to a certain degree is conditioned by the destination image (Chi and Qu, 2008). Scholars agree that destination image will influence the tourist behaviour at different phases: pre-visit's decision-making, onsite experience, experience evaluations and post-visit's behavioural intentions and behaviour (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Chen et al. 2010; Bigne et al., 2001).

Some scholars have conceptualised the destination image variable as a unidimensional construct where the overall image is measured using a single five point rating item by asking participants: "How would you describe the image that you have of …?" (Bigne et al., 2001; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). However, for this study the destination image will be operationalised as a multi-attribute construct where the image of Swaziland will be evaluated through a battery of attributes assessed by a five point likert scale (Echtner et al., 1991). The attributes have been adopted from Chen et al. (2007) where the study was conducted in the Kengtin region, a coastal area in Taiwan. The attributes that will be employed for this investigation in the assessment of the image will be: destination brand, entertainment, nature and culture and the weather.

- **Satisfaction**

All tourism managers would acknowledge that they strive to satisfy their customers in confidence that they will desire to repurchase the experience (Petrick, 2004). Thus, in tourism satisfaction is mainly denoted to as a function of pre-travel expectations and post-travel experiences (Chen et al., 2010; Sanchez et al., 2007). This is an important phenomenon because in assessing and knowing the satisfaction level of visitors, tourism mangers can be in position to improve services (Valle et al., 2006) from an informed perspective, moreover, Kotler (1994) proposes that it can used to compare organizations and destinations based on performance. As an affect response to a product or service, satisfaction has been defined as

the extent to which one believes that an experience evokes favourable feelings (Rust and Oliver 1994), it can also be described as the perceived incongruity between prior expectation and perceived performance after consumption hence when performance differs from expectation, dissatisfaction occurs (Oliver, 1980; Chen et al. 2010). Similarly, a definition by Chen et al. (2007) which will be adopted for this study refers to overall satisfaction as the extent of overall pleasure or serenity felt by the visitor, resulting from the ability of the trip experience to fulfil the visitor's requirements, expectations and needs in relation to the trip.

Research has attested that quality leads to satisfaction (Baker and Crompton 2000); in the same manner Lee et al. (2005) argued that tourists that hold a favourable destination image would perceive their trip quality positively, therefore resulting in greater satisfaction levels. Also, perceived quality will have an effect on the satisfaction of consumers based on the image the consumer has of a destination (Bigne et al., 2001). According to Petrick (2004) ; Petrick and Backman (2002) satisfaction is the mediator between quality and value, where value has direct influence on behaviour intention, however, some scholars have found that, just as perceived value satisfaction has a direct influence on future behaviour (Tam 2000; Cronin et al., 2000). However, it is posited that service quality plays a mediating role between perceived value and satisfaction (Petrick, 2004).

Though customer satisfaction was found to influence purchase behaviour (Chi and Kilduff, 2011) nevertheless, sometimes it may not be case because time and again customers will state they satisfied yet purchase elsewhere (Jones and Sasser 1995). Hence, the satisfaction must be backed up with in-depth learning about customer value (Petrick, 2004). Thus, in their study of which involved investigating the relationship between service quality, service value, satisfaction and behavioural intention in six industries, Cronin et al., (2000) concluded that perceived value will indirectly influence behavioural intention through customer satisfaction. However, past research has found both perceived value and satisfaction to influence purchase behaviour (Ramseook-Munhurrun, Seebaluck and Naidoo, 2015; Petrick, 2004; Chen and Tsai, 2007) and some scholars have found perceived value to have more influence on behaviour intention than satisfaction (Oh, 1999; Chen and Chen, 2010).

- **Attitude toward destination**

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2010), 'attitude' is a learned predisposition to behave in a reliably favourable or unfavourable manner with a given object. Ghorban (2012) describes 'attitude' as an achievable, relatively enduring, determined, gradual, more or less intensive, and roused consumers' intention to react to a particular object such as the destination image in this case. Solomon (2009) posits that attitude can be changed and this can take place through personal experience with the attitude object (destination). Similarly, Oliver (1980) and Howard (1974) propose that satisfactory experiences influence post-purchase attitudes, that is, if a consumer is satisfied with a product/service, their attitude toward the product/service is revised forming more favourable attitudes and thus positively influencing the intention to repurchase the product/service. Moreover, Schiffman and Kanuk (2010) states that attitude is consistent, that is, consumers' behaviour is expected to correspond to their attitude. According to Baker and Crompton (2000), because satisfaction is built upon the disconfirmation of expectations paradigm, if a tourist views the performance of a service is superior than they had expected (termed a positive disconfirmation), they will be satisfied. Subsequently, tourist's attitude toward the destination is revised to a more favourable attitude, positively their influencing intention to return to the destination or to recommending the destination (Schiffman and Kanuk (2010)).

- **Customer Trust**

The ultimate goal of any marketer is that their strategies will help to develop a long-term relationship bond between the target consumer and the brand (Hsu and Cai, 2009) and according to Morgan and Hunt (1994) the main ingredient for such a relationship according to is trust, because without it, the relationship is likely to fail. Trust is a cross-disciplinary concept and therefore it can be explored at different levels of social interaction, namely interpersonal, intergroup, and inter-organizational (Nguyen, Leclerc and LeBlanc, 2013). However, in marketing literature, trust is mainly examined with the focus on the buyer-seller relationship where consumers create bonds with brands (Zboja and Voorhees, 2006).

'Trust' is defined as the consumer's likelihood to depend on the brand's ability to perform as promised (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Trust has also been described as existing when one party has confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity (Morgan and Hunt (1994). For this study, Hsu and Cai's (2009) will be adopted; they describe 'brand trust' as

a tourist's preparedness to count on his or her perceived ability of the destination brand to deliver its promises and to meet or surpass the tourist's expectations built upon his or her understanding of the brand, which in this case will mainly be the destination image. Trust, or lack of it, occurs in the presence of perceived risk on the part of the person who trusts (Morgan and Hunt (1994)). Tourist destinations are risk inherent because of their intangibility which makes trail consumption impossible (Hsu and Cai, 2009).

Trust has drawn attention from several scholars because of its significant influence on customer loyalty (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Nguyen et al., 2013 and Kassim and Abdullah (2010). Moreover, a positive link between trust and loyalty was confirmed by Lau and Lee (1999), where loyalty was assumed to be a behavioural intention to buy a brand and to recommend others to buy that brand. Furthermore, satisfaction has been found to be an antecedent of trust (Geyskens, Steenkamp and Kumar 1999; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema, 2001) which consequently leads to loyalty (Madjid, 2013).

- **Behavioural Intentions**

Hsu and Cai (2009) posit that the destination image is important because of its effect on behavioural intentions that have been described as the likelihood to engage in a particular behaviour (Jani and Han, 2011). Loyalty is a construct that has been conceptualised as a multidimensional construct, namely attitudinal, behavioural intentions and actual loyalty (Tanford, 2013); and in tourism; loyalty has been studied from a behavioural intention perspective where scholars have argued that it reflects loyal behaviour (Lee and Back, 2010). Behavioural intentions have used to study loyalty because it is not always easy to observe loyal behaviour directly (Tanford, 2013). In tourism literature behavioural intentions have been measured in terms of the intention to revisit the destination and the willingness to recommend it to others (Bigné et al., 2001), because it is argued that a favourable image of a destination positively affects the intention to revisit in the future (Court and Lupton, 1997). In the same way that Valle, Silva, Mendes, and Guerreiro (2006) used these two indicators to measure loyalty intention, this study will also employ them to measure loyalty intention. According to Phau, Sequeira and Dix (2009), intentions are important because the stronger an individual's intention, the more the person is expected to try, and hence the greater the likelihood that the behaviour will actually be performed.

1.9. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

1.9.1. Research Philosophy

This study employs the positivism doctrine. Bryman and Bell (2007) have described positivism as an epistemology position that supports the use of natural sciences in the study of reality, thus a researcher is limited to data and interpretation through an objective and research findings are observable and quantifiable (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). In light of the positivism position taken for the study, the deductive theory approach is used employed, which according to Bryman and Bell (2007), based on what is known about a particular domain and of theoretical considerations in the domain, the researcher deduces hypotheses that are subject to empirical scrutiny.

The descriptive research design is employed for this investigation. Shiu, Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2009) define 'descriptive research' as a research design that employs a set of scientific methods and techniques to collect raw data and to create data structures that describe the existing characteristics of a defined target population. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013), descriptive research can either be quantitative or qualitative in nature, and for this study the quantitative research methodology is used.

According to Malhotra and Peterson (2006), the quantitative research method is research that involves large samples; structured data collection measures, aims to gain perspective and understand issues from the perspective of the research participants, quantifies the data collected numerically, and frequently uses statistical analysis to gather conclusions from the research. Furthermore, findings from this type of research methodology can be generalised to other settings (Zikmund and Babin, 2007) and for that reason the quantitative research method is utilised for the study.

1.9.2. Sampling design

In their study, Shiu et al. (2009) describe sampling as the picking of a small number of units from a larger defined target group and expecting that the information gathered from the small group will allow accurate conclusions to be made about the larger group. According to Bryman and Bell (2007), a sample is a segment of the population that is selected for the investigation.

1.9.3. Target population

The target population for the study includes both local and foreign tourists (Quintal, et al., 2014) aged 18 and above that visit the chosen destinations in Swaziland between the months of July and October 2015, when the country receives more international tourists in August because of their interest in the Umhlanga Reed Dance, an annual national cultural event. The population includes tourists from the following places identified by the STA (2014) in the report of arrivals by region, Africa, North and South America, Asia, Middle East, Australia, and Europe.

The tourists targeted for the study include those that visit Mantenga Cultural Village, Swazi Candles and Ngwenya Glass. Moreover, to its mandate to promote Swaziland as a destination, the STA annually produces research reports which provide an in-depth analysis of the performance of the tourism sector on that given year. According to STA (2015) Mantenga Cultural Village is one of most popular sites because it is a reserve and is a living museum of old traditions and represents a classical Swazi lifestyle during the 1850s, thus tourists experience the Swazi and culture and traditions first hand. Swazi Candles is one of the most popular tourist destinations in Swaziland because not only does it feature the famous Swazi Candles factory shop but another nine creative shops along with Sambane café (STA, 2015). Ngwenya Glass has been in operation for more than 23 years and has become a popular most visited because visitors have the opportunity to witness the art of glassblowing first hand; shop around the showroom where the glass items made of 100% recycled glass can be purchased (STA, 2015). These sites are amongst the most popular sites in the country and also mostly visited.

Furthermore, due the growth and popularity of community-based tourism, the study also includes Shewula Mountain Camp because it is one of the most successful community eco-tourist projects in Southern Africa and the oldest in the country (Lukhele, 2013). Additionally, it includes tourists departing from the Sikhuphe International Airport as they are better positioned to express their observations based on their experiences with several aspects of the destination (Ramseook-Munhurrun et al. 2015).

1.9.4. Sample size

Sekaran and Bougie (2013) proposes that for the researcher to achieve more precision, and to allow for the acceptable risk in predicting the level of precision and identifying variability in the population, a larger sample is required. Furthermore, costs and time determine the sample size. Using this formula $s = X^2NP(1-P) \div d^2 (N-1) + X^2P(1-P)$, Krejcie and Morgan (1970) argue that a representative sample of a target population of more than one million elements should at least include 384 participants (Artuğer et al., 2013). Working with the Department of Immigration and Central Statistics Office, the Swaziland Tourism Authority reports that on average, Swaziland receives tourists of approximately 1.3 Million annually (STA, 2015) thus, the study uses the same formula. In the same way, scholars that have conducted studies on destination images have employed samples of more than the 384 estimate (Chen and Tsai, 2007; Chen and Chen, 2010; Artuğer et al., 2013). Therefore, this research proposes a sample of at least 500 respondents for this study to achieve a representative sample size.

1.9.5. Sampling method

This study uses the non-probability sampling technique, which is non-proportional quota sampling and convenience sampling. Bhattacherjee (2012) describes non-proportional as when the population is segmented into mutually exclusive subgroups (just as in stratified sampling), and then a non-random set of observations is chosen from each subgroup to meet a predefined quota. This method is less restrictive in that the researcher does not have to achieve a proportional representation, but possibly meet a minimum size in each subgroup. This technique is used because the five areas identified for collecting the data are used as the subgroups and the samples is selected from each group : Mantenga Nature Reserve/ Cultural Village, Swazi Candles, Ngwenya Glass, Shewula Mountain Camp and the Sikhuphe International Airport. In relation to the proposed sample size of at least 500 participants, the study suggests to select a sample of at least 100 participants from each group. Due to the challenge of having no prior knowledge of the number of tourists that visit each area because tourist arrivals are not predictable, the study employs convenience sampling in selecting respondents since they unsystematically arrive in each area.

1.10. QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

1.10.1. Respondents profile/general information

Respondents are profiled according to the following characteristics: tourist's gender;, tourist's age; tourist's educational level; tourist's qualification; tourist's nationality;, tourist's marital status; tourist's occupation; main travel motivation to Swaziland (Valle et al., 2006); tourist's travel party and tourist's past experience (Chen and Tsai, 2007).

1.10.2. Research variables measurement instruments

Table 1.1 Research variables measurement

Research Constructs	**Research Measurement Item**	**Scale**

Destination Image	• Destination brand
	  ○ (Offers personal safety, a good quality of life, clean, a good name and reputation, hospitable and friendly people)
	• Entertainment
	  ○ (Good night life, a good shopping place, varied cuisines, exotic)
	• Nature and Culture
	  ○ (Great variety of fauna and flora, spectacular landscape, unusual ways of life and customs)
	• Sun(Good weather) (Chen and Tsai, 2007)
		(1 = strongly disagree and
		5 = strongly agree).

Satisfaction	• Overall, how satisfied were you with your visit to Swaziland? • How would you rate your satisfaction, considering what you expected? • How would you rate your satisfaction compared to your time and efforts spent visiting	1= not at all to 5 = very satisfied.

	Swaziland? (Lee, Yoon and Lee, 2005)	
Customer trust in destination	• I trust this destination. • I feel that I can trust this destination completely • I can rely on this destination • I feel secure when I visit this destination because I know that it will never let me down (Alan and Kabadayi, 2014)	1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree
Attitude toward the destination	As a tourism destination, I think that Swaziland is: • Very bad-Very good, • Very worthless-Very valuable • Very unpleasant Very pleasant (Jalilvand et al., 2012)	1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree
Intention to revisit	• If I revisit Southern Africa, my first choice will be Swaziland • I am considering revisiting Swaziland destinations in the future • The probability of me visiting Swaziland destinations again in the future is high (Artuğer et al., 2013)	1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree
Willingness to recommend	• I will say positive things about Swaziland to those around me • I will encourage those around me to visit Swaziland destinations • I will recommend Swaziland as a destination to other people • When asked about a holiday destination, I will recommend Swaziland (Artuğer et al., 2013)	1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree

1.10.3. Data collection approach (Questionnaire distribution and collection method)

A self- administered questionnaire in English is designed as the survey instrument including all constructs of the proposed model to investigate the hypotheses of interest. The questions in the questionnaire are based on a review of the literature (Chen and Tsai, 2007; Chen & Chen, 2010). The questionnaire was distributed among tourists willing to participate in study that visited Mantenga Cultural Village, Swazi Candles, Ngwenya Glass, Shewula Mountain Camp and tourists departing from the Sikhuphe International Airport. A self-administered questionnaire allows the researcher to collect all the completed responses within a short period of time. The researcher is able to introduce the research topic and has the opportunity

to administer questionnaires to a large number of respondents at the same time (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013).

1.11. DATA ANALYSIS APPROACH

To analyse the empirical data, several statistical methods are employed. Firstly, the data is coded and entered onto an Excel spread sheet where the data is further screened to make ensure there are no errors. Descriptive statistics are presented first. After the sample description, a test of measures and accuracy analysis statistics will be presented. This section mainly focuses on testing for the measures of reliability and validity using different methods to determine the accuracy in the study. Firstly, confirmatory analysis is performed to check the study's reliability and validity. To measure reliability, the Cronbach's Alpha, the Composite Reliability (CR) value and the Average Value Extracted (AVE) will be used to check whether or not measures are reliable. To check for validity, convergent validity is used where items to total correlations and factor loadings are the indicators used for assessment. Additionally, discriminant validity is employed and the indicators that are used are average value extracted and inter- correlation values. Thereafter, confirmatory factor analysis is employed to check the model fit. After assessing the model fit, path-modelling is performed to assess the relationships between variables where the path co-efficient measures are employed to test whether or not the hypotheses are significant and whether the relationships between variables are positive or negative. Numerous indicators such as the chi-square value, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Norm Fit Index (NFI), Lewis-Tucker Index (TLI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) are used to ascertain whether or not the research model fits the data. To test the proposed relationships hypothesised, structural equation modeling (SEM) are used. Data is analysed using SPSS version 22 software package and AMOS program version 22.

1.12. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In an attempt to provide valid and concise data, that is, free of bias or deception, certain ethical considerations is taken into account in order to ensure that the data is legitimate unbiased and free of any errors. A formal ethical clearance process is followed in order to obtain an ethical clearance number.

All participants are asked to provide informed consent before participating in the research. Also, all surveys are administered to respondents willingly and they have the option to participate liberally in the survey or exit the survey at any time at their own discretion. In addition, all information collected from the survey is considered confidential, and is not shared with any individual other than as part of the congregated results of the survey. Furthermore, to ensure confidentiality, all the surveys are anonymous and no contact information is required in the survey.

An ethical application to conduct the study is made to the Mantenga Cultural Village, Swazi Candles, Ngwenya Glass, Shewula Mountain Camp and tourists departing from the Sikhuphe International Airport. Therefore, the study continues only after a certificate of approval is received from the office.

1.13. LIMITATIONS

The study should be generalised to other populations with caution, as the study does not adhere to the strict conditions of probability sampling because convenience sampling will also be used. More limitations of the survey are outlined after the completion of the investigation.

1.14. STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH

Chapter 1: Presents an introduction to the study, identifies the problem statement, and describes the primary and secondary objectives important for the study.

Chapter 2: Provides a literature review on the various areas the study will focus on.

Chapter 3: Consists of a detailed description and discussion of the research design and methodology

Chapter 4: Presents the analysis of data and an interpretation of the results. Furthermore, it will show the assessment of the proposed model fit of the study.

Chapter 5: Provides the researcher's main findings and forwards recommendations for marketing practitioners. Thereafter, it discusses the limitations of the research study, and then proposes the possibilities of future research areas that may be considered. Lastly, this chapter presents a brief conclusion to the dissertation.

CHAPTER 2

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the context in which the study is based. The study is mainly investigates the tourism in the Kingdom of Swaziland. The chapter provides a global overview of tourism thereafter focuses on Swaziland, by providing a brief analysis of Swaziland's tourism industry, and then considers the challenges and opportunities. Lastly, it deliberates on the initiatives carried out by the Swaziland government in an effort to strengthen this key sector of the economy.

2.2. GLOBAL OVERVIEW OF TOURISM

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2014) reports that with the continuing expansion and diversification of destinations worldwide, tourism is growing and is the fastest-growing economic sector that has become a significant driver of socio-economic progress through the creation of jobs and enterprises, export revenues, and infrastructure development. Moreover, the UNWTO (2014) states that over the years, tourism growth has been uninterrupted; in 1950, international tourists' arrivals stood at US$ 25 million globally and as recent as 2014 they are at US$ 1245 billion. Additionally, according to UNWTO's long - term forecast, Tourism Towards 2030, global international tourist arrivals are projected to increase by 3.3% annually between 2010 and 2030 reaching 1.8 billion by 2030. Interestingly, in the same period, 2010-2030, arrivals in emerging destinations are expected to increase at +4.4% a year, a rate twice that to destinations in advanced economies.

However, although the global tourism environment has been positive, in 2014 the African continent experienced a weaker growth in most destinations, with Sub-Saharan Africa's sub-region's largest destination, South Africa reporting no growth at all (UNWTO,2014). *According to the recent UNWTO World Tourism Barometer (2015), international tourism demand continued to be vigorous between January and April 2015, with tourist arrivals increasing at 4% worldwide. On the other hand, in* Africa, demand decreased in 2014 after

years of firm growth, affected mainly by the Ebola epidemic among other challenges *(UNWTO, 2015)*. Between January-April 2015, statistics point to a 6% decline, because African destinations struggled to recover from the misperceptions affecting the continent (UNWTO, 2015). This decline was mainly due to the decrease in arrivals to North Africa (-7%), and to sub-Saharan Africa (-5%).

2.3. BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE KEY CHARACTERISTICS OF SWAZILAND IN RELATION TO TOURISM

Swaziland is a country positioned in the southern region of Africa; it is bordered by the Republic of South Africa on the north, west, and south, and on the east by Mozambique. It is a small, landlocked kingdom with a population of about 1.1 million people within its 17 364 square kilometers, (Harrison, 1995). The Kingdom of Swaziland achieved independence from the British in 1968 and has managed to maintain relative peace and stability for more than 40 years. It is a homogenous society, with most of the population being original Swazis, and with approximately 2% a heterogeneous population of non-Swazi residents (STA, 2015). Swaziland is a kingdom with a nation described as having big, warm hearts and being friendly, and people who strongly value their unique, natural biodiversity, and a rich traditional heritage. It is described as a peaceful country that is endowed with considerable geographic and climatic diversity (Lukhele and Mearns, 2013).

The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2015) stated that the total contribution of travel and tourism to the Swaziland gross domestic product (GDP) in 2014 was 4.1 %, and is projected to rise by 3.8 % in 2015. Furthermore, the contribution to employment, including jobs indirectly through services supporting the industry, was a total of 12 500 jobs which is predicted to rise by 2.3 % annually (WTTC, 2015). Given the dire unemployment statistics of Swaziland standing at 40.6 %, the tourism industry should be prioritised and effective strategies should be put place in an effort for the industry to reach its potential projection of employing approximately 16 000 individuals by 2025 (WTTC, 2015).

Sinclair (1998) affirms that in most developing nations, tourism has offered tremendous economic benefit, and is now an important economic activity that generates more foreign currency earnings than traditional products/services traded. Tourism has reduced developing states' dependency on agriculture and manufacturing thus bringing diversity to most

economies (Makochekanwa, 2013). According to the 2013/2014 Central Bank of Swaziland report, the government of Swaziland recognises that the tourism industry is one of the key catalysts for economic growth through the creation of employment opportunities, poverty alleviation, and foreign income generation.

Swaziland has been classified as a lower-middle-income country. Nevertheless, income distribution within the country is significantly unequal because approximately 84 % of the country's poor people live in rural areas, where per capita income is nearly four times lower than that of urban areas (IFAD, 2007). According to Forstner (2004), in effort to improve their standard of living and alleviate poverty in their communities, people in rural areas have discovered that tourism is one of the business ventures that could be pursued. Szivas, Rile and Airey (2003) state that tourism is characterised by high labour accessibility and absorption and people can be hired in diverse operations. Similarly, in an effort to promote biodiversity and resources use by the STA, several community-based tourism initiatives have been developed in rural communities around the country (Lukhele, 2013), and they have also become a means of earning a living for the communities.

2.3.1. Key visitor attractions

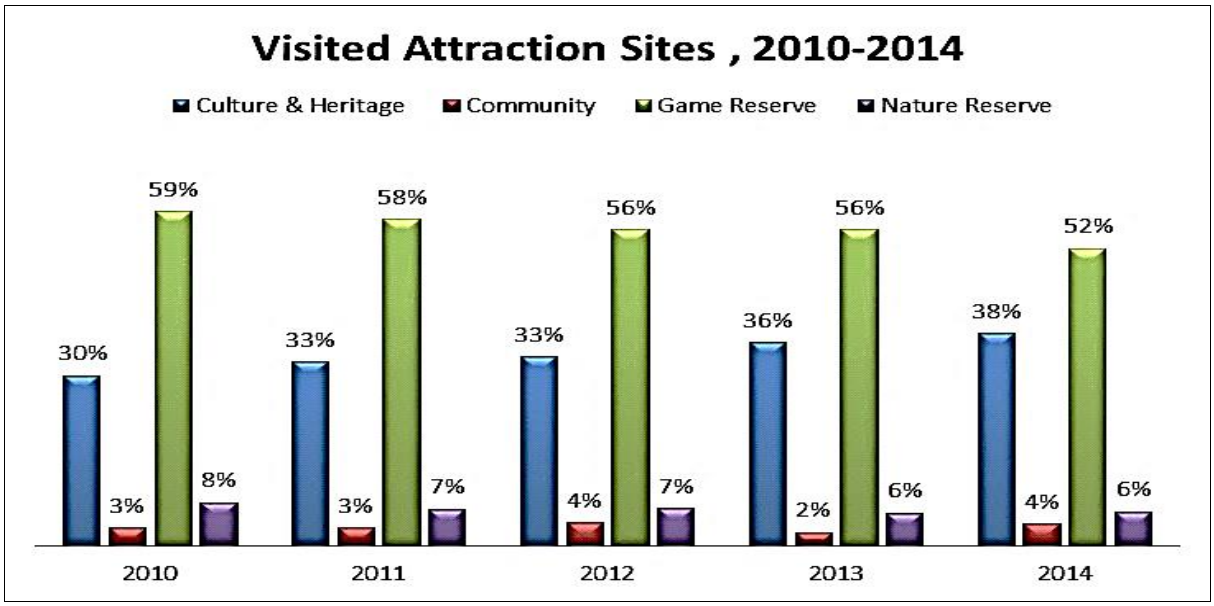
Swaziland has several nature reserves that protect a vast variety of flora, and fauna (Forsyth-Thompson, 2012). Nature reserves include Phophonyane Nature Reserve near Piggs Peak, Malolotja Nature Reserve (which is the largest in the country), Mlilwane Wildlife Sanctuary (the oldest nature reserve in the country) and Mantenga Nature Reserve, all of which are found in the Hhohho region. In the Lubombo region, there are the Mlawula Nature Reserves, Hlane Royal National Park, Mbuluzi and Nisela Safaris, and the Mkhaya Game Reserve (Forsyth-Thompson, 2012; Swaziland Tourism Authority, 2014). Moreover, the largest granite rock in the world, Sibebe Rock, is found on the outskirts Mbabane, Swaziland's capital city. There are spectacular views of Pine Valley from this vantage point, and it is also an excellent picnic spot (Makochekanwa, 2013). Moreover, tourists visit Ngwenya Glass and the Candle Factory, popular tourist' attractions.

The country's ancient traditions are cherished and devotedly celebrated, and have become one of travelers' main reasons to visit the place. According to Masuku (2010), tourism in

Swaziland is seasonal in that; it is mainly associated with the different **Swazi traditional ceremony** celebrations that the country hosts throughout the year. During the August-September period there is the Annual Reed dance for young girls, where interest and attendance has grown over the past 15 years, and during the December-January period there are two important events, namely the **Lusekwane (sacred shrub) and** Incwala festivals (the festival of the first fruit and the traditional way of heralding in the New Year).

From the figure below, it can be concluded that between 2010 and 2014 the most visited attractions were game reserves, and over the same period, community-based tourism received the least visitors.

Figure 2.1 Visited Attraction Sites, 2010-2014



Source: Annual Report, Tourism Statistics (2014)

2.3.2. Accommodation

The country offers a variety of accommodation, such as bush camps, traditional Swazi huts, and high class lodges in the above- mentioned nature reserves, welcoming bed and breakfast facilities, and guest houses in the towns and villages. Additionally, there are luxurious hotels such as the Royal Villas and the Royal Swazi Sun in the Ezulwini Valley. In 2014, overall expenditure in accommodation grew by 1.07 % registering E276 million. Among the varied regions of the country, the Ezulwini region (E150 million) was the best performer, followed

by the Manzini region (12.1%) and the Mbabane region (6.4%). The rest of the locations within the country accounted for the remaining 27.1% (STA, 2015).

2.3.3. Visitor arrivals

In 2014, the STA's statistics office reported that the country's main source of markets continued to be South Africa and Mozambique, both accounting for approximately a million visitors each. Visitors from Botswana, Tanzania, and Lesotho numbered more than five thousand from each country, and tourists from Malawi were minimal. Interestingly, there has been an increasing trend of lengthy stays by visitors from Tanzania and Kenya, however, only for those travelling to Swaziland on business. The STA (2014) reports that international tourists visiting Swaziland mainly came from Germany, representing more than twenty thousand tourists, however these tourists spent less time in the country, of not more than 2 nights, whereas the market from the United States of America recorded the highest average length of stay in comparison to the other markets with 4.8 nights, a figure significantly greater the national average (2.2 nights). Although still recording low numbers, international tourists coming from other countries (Brazil, Canada, Israel, Netherlands, Australia, China, India, France, Pakistan, United Kingdom, Taiwan, Belgium, Germany, Italy, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, and Switzerland) are growing significantly, since for the third consecutive year, international visitor arrivals to Swaziland increased by 2.0 % in 2014, an improvement from 2013 where the growth was 1.6%.

Over the years it has been noted that most international visitors travelling Swaziland mainly come for holiday purposes, and in 2014 many of these leisure-seekers showed interest in activities that included wildlife (91.5 %), adventure sports (86.5 %), hiking (88.7 %), and visiting cultural and heritage sites. Compared to 2013, business travellers grew by 1.5 % and most people that travelled for business came mostly from South Africa (16.1 %), USA (17.3 %), and the UK (10.3 %). Although they register as the least share of total arrivals in the country, the visiting friends and relatives (VFR) market segment accounted for 9.4 % and also proved to be very important because this segment recorded the second highest repeater rate, with over 33 % visiting Swaziland more than twice during 2014.

Table 2.1 Visitor Arrivals per Region 2008-2014

	Americans	Asia	Europe	Africa	Total
2008	19 607	18 174	107 008	1 041 211	1 186 000
2009	20 187	19 350	113 155	1 191 258	1 343 950
2010	20 499	19 498	84 483	1 218 053	1 342 533
2011	18 825	18 446	65 875	1 225 220	1 328 366
2012	20 260	19 919	73 126	1 165 225	1 278 530
2013	20 784	22 291	85 905	1 169 763	1 298 743
2014	22 685	23 813	100 308	1 177 815	1 324 621

Source: Annual Report, Tourism Statistics (2014)

The table above illustrates that from 2008 to 2014, tourists from America, Asia and Europe have grown in numbers. However, overall in 2011 there was a decline in tourists visiting Swaziland. Tourists from the African region have shown a study growth over the years, with 2011 showing that most of the tourists received in Swaziland were from this region. The total number of tourists received by Swaziland from 2008-2014 were high in 2009, and showed a marginal decline in 2012, and in 2014 numbers stood at slightly more than 1.3 million.

2.4. CHALLENGES OF TOURISM IN SWAZILAND

Like many African countries, Swaziland suffers from what Anholt (2007) call the Continent Brand Effect, that is, people are unfamiliar or do not have adequate knowledge about the individual countries in the continent and subsequently they all share the same reputation. This oversimplification and negative equity of the African continent has been a challenge, as it affects the economic and image development of each individual country., According to CNN (2014), towards the last quarter of 2014, there was a decrease in travel bookings or cancellations to southern and eastern Africa because of the Ebola outbreak, which had affected only West Africa, even though efforts were made to explain to tourists how far apart these regions are from each other.

Furthermore, according to Cleverdon (2002), international access to the Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries is one of the major often-mentioned challenges. Additionally, intra-regional air services are inadequate; in Swaziland, Airlink is currently still the only airline servicing the Swaziland market to and from South Africa, with only three return flights per day and four per day from Thursday to Sunday (Fly Airlink, 2014). This is

because the level of demand is insufficient to provide a more comprehensive service. Consequently, the majority of international tourists visiting Swaziland have to travel via South Africa, which results in a drain on the country‘s tourism earnings (Cleverdon, 2002).

Climate is a key factor in tourists’ decision-making process when it comes to which destination to visit (Berrittella, Bigano, Roson and Tol, 2006) especially to international locations where tourists seek to relax in the snow or sun (Aguiló, Alegre and Sard, 2005). Moreover, climate helps to facilitate the development of tourism because climate and weather conditions allow particular outdoor tourist or recreational activities, such as hiking, rafting, golf, hunting, fishing and climbing) (Scott, Jones and Konopek, 2007). However, climate change will have an impact on tourists’ behaviour because some locations may become too hot or too cold (Hamilton, 2003). Several tourist activities that are designed to satisfy tourist demand depend on the weather and includes inter alia hours of sunshine, temperature and snow (Martin, 2005).

Swaziland tourism mostly consists of nature reserves (Lukhele, 2013), and tourist activities listed by the STA include inter alia water sports, hiking, adventure activities, outdoor activities, and safaris (STA, 2015). According to Scott, Jones, and Konopek (2007), climate change will affect nature-based tourism, which is what Swaziland mostly relies on, by limiting when specific recreation and tourism activities can occur, recreation/tourism demand, and the quality of a recreation/tourist experience. Climate change’s negative impact on tourism in Swaziland may have significant economic consequences, since tourism has been deemed a key sector in driving the Swazi economy (Berrittella et al., 2006).

According to the STA (2014), Swaziland’s two main source markets are South Africa and Mozambique. Moreover, Swaziland faces the challenge that most international tourists have to travel via South Africa in order to get to Swaziland. Consequently, poor performance by South Africa or any policy and regulation change implemented in South Africa adversely affects Swaziland’s tourism performance. According to the Tourism Business Council of South Africa (TBCSA) (2015), two changes in the new immigration regulations directly affected South Africa's tourism industry. The regulations affect those traveling with minor children to and from South Africa and those travellers requiring visas. The council reported that since the proposed implementation of these regulations there were extensive reports received about a reduction in the number of tourists arriving in South Africa, an increase in

cancellations and a substantial decrease in the number of future bookings received from a wide-range of players and beneficiaries of the South African tourism industry.

According to the Expert Panel Report (2015) reviewing South African Tourism, domestic tourism is fundamental to the success of any tourism industry. Domestic tourism earnings are higher than earnings from foreign tourism, furthermore domestic tourism is important during low seasons when foreign visitor numbers are low and also significant in cases were foreign tourists do not participate in services provided that might be supported by domestic visitors. However, given the importance of the domestic market, the STA does not cover a discussion of this issue in the Annual Report Tourism Statistics in effort to provide analysis of behaviour; therefore it is necessary to point out areas of improvement that can be capitalised on. The report only covers the international tourist segment (STA, 2015).

2.5. OPPORTUNITIES FOR TOURISM IN SWAZILAND

The success of tourism destinations globally is influenced by their relative competitiveness (Enright and Newton, 2004), however, Cleverdon (2002) points out that the tourism product of the countries in the SADC region is similar. Consequently, it is essential for each country to develop aspects oftheir products that are unique. Although Swaziland is bordered by the Republic of South Africa on the north, west, and south, and Mozambique on the east (Lukhele, 2013) therefore, sharing a lot of similarities between South Africa and Mozambique, Swaziland has capitalised on a few unique features that are exclusive to the destination: it is one of the few remaining executive monarchies in Africa, and rich in culture and heritage that are deeply engrained in all aspects of Swazi life, ensuring an unforgettable experience for all visitors.

According to Soemodinoto, Wong, and Saleh (2001), the political atmosphere of a country is an important element that affects tourism development. Tourists will visit destinations that are stable because they are viewed as safe and low risk. Cleverdon (2002) affirms that the frequent crises that have occurred over the years in particular regions around the world have caused those areas to be perceived as dangerous, violent, and as harbouring cowardly terrorists (Al-Mahadin and Burns, 2007) therefore making tourism in these regions sensitive

to crisis. What is important to note is that the instability in other countriesis an opportunity for SADC countries, including Swaziland, that are situated far away from the geographic areas most directly affected, and since the SADC countries are considered to be involved in the Al Quaeda movement, they should be perceived as safe places to visit (Cleverdon, 2002).

The country's close proximity to the Kruger National Park, and being situated en-route between Johannesburg and Maputo is a significant advantage to Swaziland (Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, 2004) because most international tourists travel via the destination into national parks, thereby new segments that had mostly intended to visit only South Africa, are attracted to Swaziland. Although the relatively small size of Swaziland may be viewed as a disadvantage, the destination is an attractive alternative to a tourist segment that wishes to avoid travelling long distances.

Cleverdon (2002) states that one major constraint in tourism shared by SADC countries is health. As tourism grows, so does the incidence or perceived risk of certain diseases – mainly malaria and HIV/AIDS infection. What is important is that Swaziland has made great strides towards the eradication of malaria. According to the Global Fund (2015), Swaziland's has had a significant drop in malaria cases from 7,507 in 2008-09 to 738 in 2012-13. However, efforts to completely eradicate malaria continue, and what has been achieved so far needs to be communicated as widely as possible in the appropriate mediums in attempt to put to rest tourist market fears (Cleverdon, 2002). The fight against HIV/AIDS still continues to be a challenge to authorities in Swaziland because, according to a World Health Report (2015) HIV/AIDS was the leading cause of death, killing 5400 thousand people in 2012.

2.6. INITIATIVES BY GOVERNMENT TO DEVELOP AND PROMOTE THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN SWAZILAND

The government of Swaziland recognised the importance of the tourism industry in the country, and consequently in 2002 it established the STA (The Swaziland Poverty Reduction Strategy and Action Plan, 2007). The STA's mandate is to market the kingdom of Swaziland as a tourist destination of choice within the country, regionally, and abroad (STA, 2015).

According to Cleverdon (2002), marketing should be a priority because it is essential if existing operations wish to achieve good levels of business. In this regard, aligned to its directive, STA has carried out several initiatives aimed to promote Swaziland as a tourist destination internationally and locally. The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago's Ministry of Trade and Industry (2004) stated that promoting domestic tourism was necessary to remove some stereotypes that locals attached to tourism, all of which create hindrances for meaningful local participation. According to STA, early in 2015 a campaign entitled Hloma Ngwane, vuka Ngwane was launched in the country and targeted at domestic tourism. The current Minister of Tourism and Environmental Affairs launched the campaign, and locals were encouraged to explore and discover the Swaziland tourism products that the country has to offer.

Furthermore, in an effort to reach the domestic market and continue to create awareness of what the destination has to offer to locals, the STA has promoted the tourism product through local media such as the Swaziland Review and Commerce, Swaziland Broadcasting and Information Services, Swazi TV, the Swazi Observer, and the Times of Swaziland

On an international level, the STA has attempted marketing and promoting the Kingdom of Swaziland by attending several trade shows that take place globally throughout the year. Below is the list of the shows attended in effort to promote and create awareness about the destination:

Table 2.2 Trade Shows Attended by the STA

Name of Show	**Place**
Vakantibeurs	Utrecht, Netherlands
Destination Holiday and Travel Show	London, United Kingdom
Meetings Africa	Sandton, South Africa
The Beeld Show	Midrand, South Africa
ITB Berlin,	Berlin, Germany
W.T.M Africa	Cape Town, South Africa
Indaba Show	Durban, South Africa
W.T.M London	London, United Kingdom

In addition, the STA promotes the country in the international media. The aim is to position the Kingdom of Swaziland as the preferred tourist destination and also to remain uppermost in the minds of potential tourists to southern Africa. The media used are Aljazeera Network,

W. T. M. Publications, Euro Asia Industry, Speed and Sound Magazine, Exploring Kwazulu-Natal, Swaziland, Mozambique, and Seychelles, SA Golf Trader Magazine, Radio Laeveld and GSA Online publication.

The country is also a member of the East 3 Route, a tripartite economic and tourism development initiative that was established in 2011 with the aim of creating a vehicle for cross-border development that would ensure economic growth and job creation for all three member countries, namely South Africa (KwaZulu-Natal Province), Swaziland, and Mozambique. The objectives for co-operation are:

- to increase tourism arrivals and co-ordination between the three countries and to create interest for people wishing to visit each region;
- to increase investment in tourism from and within each of the countries in the overall tourism value chain, especially from a private sector investment perspective; and
- to promote various elements of heritage and to celebrate the commonalities which make us who we are, thereby bringing people together.

2.7. SUMMARY

This chapter has provided an overview of the study's context, Tourism in Swaziland; however, context discussion started with an overview of tourism globally. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization, tourism is a significant driver of socio-economic progress in every country. Though, growing remarkably in most regions, in 2014 the African continent experienced a decline in growth and Sub-Saharan Africa sub region's largest destination South Africa reporting no growth at all. This is because African destinations struggled to recover from the misperceptions affecting the continent.

Swaziland is small in size and a landlocked country. The destination faces several challenges which inhibit the opportunity to participate competitively in the global market. Just as most African states, Swaziland suffers from brand association with other African states, lack of direct international access into the country, climate change and many other drawbacks. On the other hand, Swaziland has great potential to be a preferred destination. The destination is one of the few remaining Executive Monarchies in Africa, rich in culture and heritage favoaurable to most tourists, Swaziland has stable political climate and peaceful, also the

country has made great strides towards the eradication of malaria, a positive factor towards attracting the international market.

What is important, through the STA the government of Swaziland has put in place strategic marketing initiatives to further promote and sell destination product both locally and globally. The destination receives tourists from all over the world; nonetheless, the destination still has several areas to improve to reach its full prospects.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review encompasses two major sections: the theoretical framework and empirical review. The theoretical framework focuses mainly on the two underlying theories, the Expectancy Disconfirmation Paradigm (EDP) and the Theory of Reasoned of Action (TRA), which form the basis of the research's theoretical foundation. The empirical review concentrates on a discussion of the five variables on which the study is based, as indicated in the conceptual model.

3.2 THEORITICAL FOUNDATION

3.2.1 The Expectancy Disconfirmation Paradigm

Literature on customer satisfaction is extensive and proposes a number of theoretical models of the evaluative processes that result in satisfaction. Kozak and Rimmington (2000) state that for the past three decades investigations on customer satisfaction have been approached from two schools of thought. The American school, steered by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985), view customer satisfaction as a negative or positive result from a comparison process between prior anticipations and perceived performance of products and services. Conversely, the Nordic school, piloted by Gronroos (1990), holds that customer satisfaction is a product of the actual quality of performance and consumer perception. According to Meng, Tepanon, and Uysal (2006), there are already nine theories on customer satisfaction that exist in literature: expectancy disconfirmation; generalised negativity; contrast; cognitive dissonance; comparison level; equity; assimilation contrast; attribution; and value percept. Arguably the EDP has generally received comprehensive acceptance (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001; Zehrer, Crotts and Magnini, 2011).

The EDP has been employed by many scholars in marketing literature and in other disciplines in an attempt to investigate the customer satisfaction concept. In the tourism and hospitality

studies, EDP has been employed to measure satisfaction in several empirical studies (Bigne, Andreu and Gnoth, 2005; Petrick and Backman, 2002; Skogland and Siguaw, 2004; Jang and Feng, 2007; Hui, Wan and Ho, 2007). According to Olshavsky and Kumar (2001), the disconfirmation model is the leading of all frameworks, and has remained significantly consistent over time (Szymanski and Henard, 2001). The theory was first introduced by Oliver in 1980, and evaluates satisfaction based on expectations and the perceived performance levels of customers (Skogland and Siguaw, 2004). Moreover, it proposes that satisfaction is an affective state representing an emotional reaction to a service or product (Zehrer, Crotts and Magnini, 2011), and through this model Oliver was able to incorporate both cognitions and affective fundamentals into customer satisfaction models (Wong and Dioko, 2013).

The expectancy disconfirmation model holds that consumers compare their prior expectations with a product or service, and the incongruence between the expectations and performance termed 'disconfirmation' will result in the customer being satisfied or dissatisfied (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001). The expectation level is used as the standard against which the product or service is judged, that is, once the product or service has been used, results are compared against the outlooks (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001). In their analysis, Spreng and Page (2003) point out that when performance of the product or service is higher than expected, this results in positive disconfirmation and thus satisfaction. However, when performance of the product or service is lower than expected, this leads to negative disconfirmation, therefore dissatisfaction. In some cases, performance will be consistent with expectations, and then simple confirmation occurs, which leads to satisfaction. McCollough, Berry, and Yadav (2000) argue that higher positive disconfirmation yields higher satisfaction, whereas higher negative disconfirmation generates higher dissatisfaction.

In relation to this study, the EDP will be employed to assess and to attempt to explain the satisfaction of tourists visiting the Kingdom of Swaziland. According to Meng et al. (2006), in a tourism context, tourist satisfaction is founded on the goodness of fit between expectation about the destination Swaziland or previous destination image, and the perceived evaluative experience in Swaziland, that is, what tourists see and feel, and their experience in Swaziland. According to Reisig and Stroshine Chandek (2001), in evaluating the satisfaction process, the expectancy disconfirmation model can be conceptualised in a four-stage process.

First, before traveling to Swaziland as an international tourist or to any of the destinations in the country as a local tourist, tourists hold pre-purchase expectations about the anticipated performance of the destination (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001). Expectations are the internal predictions of the nature and level of performance the buyer (tourist) will receive from the product (destination) (Zehrer et al., 2010).The predetermined expectation level becomes the baseline against which Swaziland as a tourist destination will be judged (Wong and Dioko, 2013; Abubakar and Mavondo, 2014). Expectations differ across consumers, for instance, based on customer's knowledge of a product or service, they may predict an expected performance (Reisig and Chandek, 2001). According to Olshavsky and Kumar (2001, tourists that have previous experience with a destination, will hold expectations that are more realistic; on the other hand, if tourists lack first-hand experience of the service, expectations tend to be uncertain.

Olshavsky and Kumar (2001 propose that expectations regarding the performance of a product/service, which would be the destination in this case, are based on the tourists' prior consumption experience (past travel experience to Swaziland) and/or information acquired in the market. Tourists will gather such information in an effort to reduce information asymmetries. Such information could be advice from other consumers who have already experienced the tourism product, that is, those that would have travelled to Swaziland or visited any of the destinations in the country. Such sources are preferred and provide more influential pre-purchase information (Zehrer et al., 2011).

Song, van der Veen, and Chen (2012) affirm that expectations in customer satisfaction models are generally linked to perceived performance, a combination with which it is often conjectured to generate positive or negative disconfirmation and confirmation. Nevertheless, Wong and Dioko (2013) contend that although the role of expectations is argued to be paramount in customer satisfaction models, they remain ambiguous. It is still uncertain whether expectations only indirectly influence customer satisfaction via disconfirmation, or if the direct relationship between expectations and customer satisfaction is insignificant (Yi and La, 2003).

On the other hand, Olshavsky and Kumar (2001) conclude that customer expectations' influence on satisfaction, whether direct or indirect, will depend on the consumers' psychological consideration of the purchase context. That is, rather than being antecedents or

predictors, expectations epitomise a condition that moderates the effect of more established predictors on satisfaction (Kanning and Bergmann, 2009). Moreover, Yi (1993) concluded that under high conditions of uncertainty, expectations tend to directly influence customer satisfaction as well as on performance, yet under conditions of low uncertainty, expectations have indicated a less indirect effect on customer satisfaction and performance.

Secondly, the individual makes certain acknowledgments regarding the performance of the product or service (Reisig and Chandek, 2001). That is, once the tourists eventually visit the Kingdom of Swaziland, or any of the local destinations, they will form perceptions regarding the performance of the destination (de Melo Pereira, Ramos, de Andrade and de Oliveira, 2015). Perceived performance is a consequence of customers' subjective judgment of the observed performance (Mitra and Golder, 2006), and is commonly employed in the investigation of customer satisfaction, because objective measures of performance are unattainable.

In the third step, the tourists will compare their views with initial expectations. This confirms the EDP's assumption that satisfaction is a function of the difference between observed outcome performance and prior expectations about the outcome's performance (Kopalle and Lehmann, 2001). Finally, after the comparison process, tourists develop a sense of satisfaction or dissatisfaction based on the level of disconfirmation (de Melo Pereira et al., 2015). Disconfirmation is described as the discrepancy between the customer's initial expectations and observed actual performance (Santos and Boote, 2003).

Literature indicates that disconfirmation is divided to three types, including simple disconfirmation, positive disconfirmation and negative disconfirmation. In context of this study, positive disconfirmation will occur if the perceived performance of Swaziland as a destination exceeds the expectations of the tourists before travelling to Swaziland and they are consequently satisfied with the destination (Zehrer et al., 2010). On the other hand, negative disconfirmation will arise if the perceived performance of Swaziland falls short of the initial expectations that the tourists held before travelling to Swaziland, thus resulting in tourists being dissatisfied with the destination. Finally, the tourists will be satisfied if their initial expectations match the perceived performance (Wong and Dioko, 2012).

3.2.2. Theory of Reasoned Action

The TRA is adopted from social psychology to explain human behaviour, and it has been applied in an assortment of research fields including psychology, management, and marketing (Tsai , Chen and Chien, 2012). The theory of reasoned action was first developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), and is a hierarchical model that theorises that the immediate antecedent of behaviour is an individual's intention to behave (Aleassa, Pearson and McClurg, 2011. Moreover, it holds that behavioural intent (BI) or willingness to perform the behaviour is derived from two factors: (a) attitude toward the behaviour, and (b) subjective norms (or perceived social pressure associated with the behaviour) (Bang, Ellinger, Hadjimarcou and Traichal, 2000). This study utilised this theory because it is assumed that human behaviour is influenced mainly by both social influences and dispositional (attitudinal) factors (Deci and Ryan, 2002), and it has been widely used to illuminate and predict a wide range of human behaviours (Leonard, Cronan and Kreie, 2004, Lepp, 2007; Ryu and Jang, 2006), including studies in the tourism context (Lee, Graefe and Burns, 2004; Yu and Littrell, 2005; Hudson and Ritchie, 2001).

The person's attitude toward a specific behaviour refers to personal judgment being in favour of or against performing the behaviour, that is, evaluating whether performing the behaviour would be positive (favourable) or negative (unfavourable) (Kwong and Lee, 2002). Subjective norm (SN) means perceived social pressures exerted on an individual to perform behaviour or not (Aleassa et al., 2011). A person's attitude toward performing the behaviour is a function of the salient behavioural beliefs about the perceived consequences of performing the behaviour and the person's outcome evaluation (E) of those consequences (Ryu and Jang, 2006). Whereas, subjective norms are predetermined by the person's normative beliefs concerning what important others think one should do and the individual's motivation to conform to these referents (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

However, this study will focus on the direct relationship between attitude and behavioural intention (Bang et al., 2000). Ryu Han (2010) affirms that in predicting behavioural intentions normative components change, depending on the behaviour, situation, and individual differences. Additionally, according to Aleassa et al. (2010), literature has confirmed and supported the suggestion that behavioural intention is determined by attitude toward performing a behaviour. Furthermore, Albarracin, Johnson, Fishbein, and Muellerleile

(2001) state that in many studies it is apparent that to a greater extent, intention is driven by attitudes rather than by subjective norms.

In the context of this study, the TRA will be applied in attempt to explain the relationship between the tourists' attitudes toward destination and the tourists' behavioural intentions, which are the tourists' intention to return to Swaziland in future and their intention to recommend the destination to others. The study proposes that tourist' attitudes about the Kingdom of Swaziland as a tourist destination will influence their future behavioural intentions. Hence, it is assumed that tourists who hold a favourable attitude toward Swaziland as tourist destination are more likely to have positive behavioural intentions (Bang et al., 2000). In their investigation of predicting tourists' behavioural intentions to try the local cuisine in New Orleans, Ryu et al. (2010) affirms that the tourists' intentions to experience a local cuisine were highly dependent on their personal attitudinal factors rather than social norms, and therefore suggests that managers should focus on improving tourists' attitudes toward the local cuisine to guarantee tourists' positive behavioural intentions.

3.3 EMPIRICAL REVIEW

DISCUSSION OF VARIABLES

3.3.1. Destination Image

The competition in the tourism market has become aggressive with tourism destination marketing organisations traversing the globe to attract potential customers to their respective destinations (Sirgy and Su 2000). To take advantage of this lucrative market, tourism managers are promoting destination images with the intention of maximising site patronage. However, destination marketers have had to differentiate their destination images (Molina, Gómez and Martín-Consuegra, 2010; Sönmez and Sirakaya, 2002) because destinations are currently competing based on their perceived images relative to their competitors in the marketplace (Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001). According to Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008), image was introduced in tourism literature in 1970s by Hunt (1971), Mayo (1973), and Gunn (1972), and since then, has attracted the attention of many scholars.

Destination image was and still is one of the most significant concepts and has received the most attention in modern tourism literature (De Jesus, 2013; Echtner and Ritchie, 2003; Pan

and Li 2011; Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015). Destination images are important in the tourism industry because images transpose depictions of a place into tourists' minds, thus creating an overall impression of a destination (Tang and Jang, 2014). Consequently, tourists' behaviour is strongly influenced by the image that they have of destinations (Bigne et al., 2001; Chen and Tsai, 2007; Tasci et al., 2007). Accordingly, destination marketers aim to create a favourable image or to reinforce positively memorable images in the mind of the tourists within the target market (Pike, 2004), because destinations with stronger favourable images have a higher chance of being included and preferred during the process of decision-making (Bigne et al., 2001). Furthermore, accurate knowledge of a destination's image is vital because it will inform the imagery strategy, and therefore the promotion strategy and the segmentation of tourists (Baloglu and McCleary, 2001).

Several scholars have agreed that the destination image construct is imprecise, biased, and its several fundamentals and attributes make it complicated to define, hence, no consensus definition exist as yet (Lopes, 2011; Echtner and Ritchie, 2003). Furthermore, Echtner and Ritchie (2003) conclude that from an examination of recent studies of how the term has been defined, it is still vague, it continues to shift in meaning, and it is not clear whether the researchers consider an attribute-based or holistic component of image or both. Nonetheless, Gallarza et al. (2002) suggest four important features of the destination image construct that need to be considered in its definition: composite (it is not unequivocal); multiple (in elements and processes); relativistic (subjective and generally comparative); and dynamic (changes with time and space)

Scholars have defined destination image in several ways. According to Gibson, Qi, and Zhang (2008) it is a psychological concept and refers to the mental pictures that travellers hold regarding a certain place. It has also been described as a shared system of thoughts, views, feelings, visualisations, and intentions toward a destination (Prayag and Ryan, 2012). It can be explained as a manifestation of knowledge, impressions, preconceptions, imaginations, and emotional thoughts an individual has of a specific place (Rajesh, 2013), and the visitor's biased perception of the destination reality (Chen and Tsai, 2007), which is the definition that will be adopted for this study.

Pike and Ryan (2004) conclude that the destination image construct is operationalised as consisting of three components (Pike and Ryan, 2004) namely: cognitive; affective (Wang

and Hsu 2010; Kim and Perdue 2011); and conative (Gartner, 1993). The cognitive component refers to the intellectual evaluations (good/bad, favourable/unfavourable) of a destination's known attributes (Sönmez and Sirakaya, 2002), that is, a mental response that involves thinking about, paying attention to, remembering, understanding, and interpreting factual knowledge about the destination (Tasci et al., 2007). These attributes include, among others, entertainment facilities, the climate, accommodation, as well as forms of attractions such as cultural, natural, historical, and many more (Stylidis, Belhassen and Shani, 2015). As a result, the well-versed a tourist is regarding the favourable attributes of a destination, the more trustworthy their cognitive evaluation (Sahin and Baloglu, 2011). However, the affective dimension relates to the emotional and intangible quality of a destination that captures people's sentimental responses towards a destination's features and its surrounding environment (Tang and Jang, 2014). Hence, according to Sahin and Baloglu (2011), the more interesting the destination's attributes are to the individual tourist, the better and higher the affective evaluation will be.

Previous studies exploring the relationship between the affective and cognitive components have argued that these components are conceptually distinct from each other, but highly interrelated (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Kim and Richardson, 2003). Furthermore, Beerli et al. (2004), Li, Cai, Lehto, and Huang (2010), and Lin, Morais, Kerstetter, and Hou (2007) confirm that the cognitive component of image is an antecedent to the affective component, and thus, tourists form their feelings towards a destination as a result of their perceptual evaluation. Beerli et al. (2004) argue that together, affective and cognitive images result in an overall image, which could either be a positive or a negative image about the destination. Nevertheless, Lin et al. (2007) argue that both the cognitive and affective components have a direct impact on the overall image. Baloglu and Love (2005) argue that the cognitive, affective, and overall images should be measured separately to obtain a better understanding of the relationships between them.

The conative or behavioural component of the destination image construct denotes the likelihood of destination selection. Therefore, it can be understood as a propensity to visit a destination within a certain time period (Pike and Ryan, 2004; White, 2004). In addition, the conative element is influenced by both the cognitive and affective components (Tasci et al., 2007).

Beerli et al. (2004) identify two main factors that influence image formation: stimulus factors (previous experience, information sources, and distribution); and personal factors (psychological and social). The stimulus factors consist of the information sources that not only influence the destination image, but also help in the formation of the destination image. Tourists create an image of a particular destination by processing information about that destination from numerous sources over time (Leisen, 2001). This supports Reynolds' (1965) proposition that refers to an image as a mental construct developed by the consumer using limited selected impressions among the flood of information. According to Molina et a. (2010), image formation is the development of a mental notion based on limited impressions from information sources that an individual may be exposed to.

The type of image held by a tourist will depend on the type information the tourist is exposed to or has received (Jani and Han, 2011). Hence, destination images fall across a range, beginning with the organic image, then the induced image, and ending in the complex image (Gunn, 1988). An organic image is formed from non-tourism information sources (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999); such sources may include information from history and geography books, television reports, magazine articles, and newspaper reports that are not tourism-specific (Leisen, 2001). Consequently, an individual will have an image of a certain destination even if they have never visited the place. This becomes an incomplete picture of a destination and whatever image is formed, is not in the control of the destination area. Thus, it has been termed a secondary image, because it is one constructed before a planned visit to the destination (Cherifi, Smith, Maitland and Stevenson, 2014; Lopes, 2011).

Sometimes an individual will be motivated to travel and will therefore engage in an active information search and is more likely to source specific information sources (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999), thus forming what is dubbed an 'induced destination image'. According to Molina et al. (2010), the induced image is formed from deliberate information sources directed by destination marketing organisations, that is, these are tools used for promotion of the destination. The sources may include travel articles in magazines, documentaries, colourful brochures distributed at visitors' bureau, information available in travel agencies, telephone advertisements, destination websites, and many other activities a tourism organisation might choose to market the destination (Leisen, 2001).

As a result of accessing these additional commercial sources of information, the organic image may be altered (Echtner and Ritchie, 2003). However, the induced image may or may not be the same as the organic image (Chen, Chen, and Okumus, 2013). In their study of destination image of non-visitors, Cherifi et al. (2014) argue that a destination image formed at an early age is robust and resistant to change, because findings indicate that fatigue with traditional advertising means that people are influenced by what they trust most or what they find most interesting. Hence, sources that include novels, certain films, and material learned at school are found to be more credible.

Lastly, actual visitation and first-hand experience with the destination will modify the organic and induced to form what has been called a complex image (Leisen, 2001). The tourist's direct experience with the destination will result in a more realistic, complex, and differentiated image (Echtner and Ritchie, 2003). Studies carried out on the change destination image confirm that actual visitation contributes to changes in destination image (Lee, Kang, Reisinger and Kim, 2012). That is, a perceived image of destination will be influenced by the number of visits and their duration, and the degree of involvement with the place during the experience (Beerli et al., 2004). Furthermore, the actual experience of destinations reduces stereotyping, and results in more qualified perceptions (Awaritefe, 2004).

Personal factors have been found to impact the destination image. These factors are prevalent because views held by a tourist about the attributes of a destination are formed individually during exposure to external stimuli, but the nature of those beliefs will be different depending on the tourist's internal factors (Um and Crompton, 1990). Hence, it is suggested that tourists build their own mental picture of a destination, which in turn results in their own, personal perceived images (Gartner, 1993). The personal factors include demographic characteristics as well as psychological characteristics (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli et al., 2004). From a consumer behaviour perspective, demographic characteristics may include gender, age, level of education, place of residence, marital status, social class, etc., and psychological characteristics factors include motivations, values, personality, etc.

Furthermore, Baloglu and McCleary (1999) state that motivations have an effect on the image-forming process and the choice of destination. According to Yoon and Uysal (2005),

potential travellers will take a trip because they are pushed into making travel decisions by internal, psychological forces, which relates to the tourists' desire, and they are attracted by the external forces of the destination's attributes. Gartner (1993) suggests that motivations exert a direct influence on the affective component of the destination. On the other hand, Yoon and Uysal (2005) conclude that pull motivations have an effect on satisfaction and push motivations are positively related to destination loyalty.

According to Echtner and Ritchie (2003), the tourism product is complicated and diverse in nature, and therefore, it is essential to develop a more specific and more complex conceptual framework and methodology in order to reliably and validly measure destination image. Echtner and Ritchie (1993) identified three axes along the cognitive line of destination image: the common/unique; the functional/psychological; and the holistic/attribute-based. The functional images are visible or quantifiable, yet psychological images are less perceptible and more difficult to detect or measure. With regards to the common-unique line, destination images will range from perceptions based on mutual characteristics to those based on exclusive features. Additionally, destination image should comprise insights of individual attributes (such as climate, friendliness of the people, and accommodation facilities, etc.) as well as holistic impressions (mental pictures or imagery) of the destination. Baloglu an McCleary (1999) suggest that an exploration of related professional and academic papers exposes a lack of homogeneity with respect to the attributes that constitute a perceived destination image.

Hence, Beerli et al. (2004) attempted to develop a frame incorporating every aspect of a destination that could potentially be used as an instrument of measurement. The attributes were grouped into nine dimensions: 1) natural resources; 2) tourist leisure and recreation; 3) natural environment; 4) general infrastructure; 5) culture, history, and art; 6) social environment; 7) tourist infrastructure; 8) political and economic factors; and 9) atmosphere of the place.

3.3.2 Satisfaction

According to Suki (2014), consumer satisfaction is vital for every company's profitability and is key to every successful business because it has been demonstrated that a satisfied customer will return to buy more (Chi and Qu, 2008). However, many companies will

sometimes experience high customer defection, even with high satisfaction levels (Turner and Reisinger, 2001). Customer satisfaction has attracted a lot of attention from scholars and practitioners in an effort to improve quality and for repurchase analysis (Yu and Goulden, 2006). Moreover, customer satisfaction bears a number of fruits for organisations, namely an increase in customer loyalty, reduced price elasticity, reduces the chances of brand switching, reduces the costs of failure, attracting new customers, and helps to develops a good reputation for the organisation in the marketplace (Song, van der Veen, Li and Chen, 2012).

Similarly, in their studies Yoon and Uysal (2005) and Kozak and Rimmington (2000) conclude that tourist satisfaction is important in successful destination marketing because it affects the choice-making of a destination, the actual experience of the destination, and the decision to revisit where revisiting is mostly influenced by the satisfactory level of tourist. Hence, Song, Su, and Li (2013) propose that a destination's competitiveness lies in its ability to deliver a tourism product that performs better than its competitors. In essence, del Bosque and San Martin (2008) and Kim, Uysal, and Sirgy (2013) state that satisfaction is not only important to academics and managers, but also to individuals, because of the effect life satisfaction has on an individual's satisfaction with health, work, family, or leisure. According to Neal, Sirgy, and Uysal (1999), the satisfaction received by travellers from their tourist experiences contributes significantly to their life satisfaction.

Moreover, tourist satisfaction comprehension by organisations involved in tourist activities is essential because it serves as a basis for assessing the performance of products and service at the destination (Fang, Yodmanee, and Muzaffer, 2008). The assessment gives destination marketing organisations insight of areas that require improvement (Salleh, Omar, Yaakop and Mahmmod, 2013; Schofield, 2000; Sirakaya, Petrick and Choi, 2004) where improvement of tourists' experiences will possibly determine continued success of the destination, and where success is labelled as satisfaction (Song et al., 2011). Additionally, satisfaction is considered as feedback on performance, and it is argued as being an effective means of comparing the performance of one destination with another, hence it is a vital basis for competitive issues (Som and Badarneh, 2011).

Peterson and Wilson (1992) claim that customer satisfaction studies are lacking in definitional and methodological standardisation. Oliver (1997) explains that this ambiguity in definition is caused by paraphrasing and stating that everyone knows what satisfaction is until

they are asked to give a meaning, and then nobody seems not to know what satisfaction really means. Thus, satisfaction is claimed to be a mute phenomenon, and its existence is affirmed only by its absence (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001). Similarly, Yi (1990) argues that there is also a contradiction of whether to define satisfaction as a process or an outcome. As a result, the lack of a consensus definition for satisfaction (Giese and Cote, 2000; Yuksel, Philip and Graham, 2008) creates three serious problems for consumer satisfaction research (Giese and Cote, 2000), namely: selecting an appropriate definition for a given study; operationalising the definition; and interpreting and comparing empirical results. Moreover, what is more challenging about satisfaction is that is not a universal phenomenon, as results will differ from individual to individual, and will vacillate depending on the situation and the circumstances (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001).

Yu and Goulden (2006) define 'customer satisfaction' as a customer's post-purchase valuation of service delivered, and a comparison of a customer's anticipation and the actual service experience. Similarly, it can also be explained as an evaluation of the performance of the overall services provided by the firm and received by the customer (Skogland and Siguaw, 2001; Salleh et al., 2013). Elaborating, in their investigation of satisfaction, Giese and Cote (2000) conclude that customer satisfaction is a summary affective response of variable intensity, with a time-specific point of determination and limited duration, and directed toward focal aspects of product or service acquisition and/or consumption. On the other hand, tourist satisfaction can be understood as a manifestation of emotions in the form of a subjective assessment of the destination and its particular components (Vajcnerova, Ziaran, Ryglova and Andrasko, 2014). According to Schofield (2000), tourism satisfaction of a destination is observed as a gap analysis concerning pre-travel expectations and post-travel experiences.

Cognitive and emotional views have been the two most important aspects considered in explaining decision-making and behaviour processes (Decrop, 1999). Accordingly, they have also been used in marketing literature to explain consumer behaviour where, in a tourism context, these approaches have been used to establish the definition of satisfaction (del Bosque et al., 2008). Both cognitive and emotional variables play a significant role in satisfaction formation (López-Mosquera and Sánchez, 2014), which concurs with Westbrook and Oliver's (1981) claim that satisfaction involves cognitive and affective aspects in the pre-purchase, purchase, and post-purchase phases of buying goods and/or receiving services. The

cognitive aspect is deemed important because tourists are considered to be rational beings and therefore cognitive information processors (López-Mosquera and Sanchez, 2014). The cognitive approach holds that satisfaction is the consumer's response to the similarity between performance and comparison standards (Oliver, 1980), and in this context the expectancy disconfirmation model is generally applied as the foundation for the successful development of several consumer satisfaction studies (Wirtz, Mattila and Tan, 2000).

Nevertheless, López-Mosquera and Sanchez (2014) argue that recent literature has concluded that only using the cognitive view in modelling satisfaction is inadequate and therefore promote the affective approach. The affective view construes that a consumer derives emotional responses from a consumption experience (Bosque et al., 2008). Thus, in a tourism context, feelings are a significant factor of the experience, since destinations are assumed to include sensory pleasures, daydreams, and enjoyment (Decrop, 1999). As result of both approaches being considered, in recent tourism studies, satisfaction is explained as an individual's cognitive-affective state derived from a tourist experience, which indicates that tourist satisfaction is investigated by considering both perspective and emotional aspects (Bosque et al., 2008). Henceforth, satisfaction can described as a manifestation of emotions in the form of a subjective assessment of the destination and its particular components (Vajčnerová Žiaran, Ryglová and Andráško, 2014). Additionally, it is concluded that the emotional factor (arousal) of satisfaction exerts a stronger influence on satisfaction than the cognitive component does (Caro and García, 2007).

According to Prebensen (2006), knowing what drives tourist satisfaction is very important for the tourism industry. Peter and Olson (1996) propose that studies investigating satisfaction conclude that the level of tourist satisfaction with a specific vacation is the result of different antecedents, that is, satisfaction is influenced by a number of factors. Service quality is one construct commonly argued to be an antecedent of satisfaction (Rivera and Croes, 2010, Vajčnerová et al., 2014; Beerli et al., 2004; Bedi, 2010; Kozak and Rimmington., 2000; Bigne et al., 2001) because providing exceptional service and continuously improving the quality of the service delivered to increase customer satisfaction is the goal of any service business (Peter and Olson, 1996).

However, other scholars argue that literature cannot agree which of the two terms is the prerequisite of the other, and which of them has a wider scope (Lee et al., 2004).

Nevertheless, Zeithaml, Bitner, and Gremler (2006) contend that customer satisfaction is an outcome of product quality. On the other hand, Bowen and Clarke (2002) argue that the investigation of this relationship is ambiguous, because both academics and practitioners casually use a judgment of satisfaction synonymously with a judgment of quality. This is a practice that is not particularly suitable. Interestingly, in their study, Chen and Tsai (2007) reveal that quality will sometimes not directly influence the satisfaction level. As a trade-off between perceived benefits and perceived costs (Lovelock, 2000), perceived value is argued to have an influence on satisfaction (Cronin et al., 2000; Lee, Jeon and Kim, 2011; Allameh, Khazaei Pool, Jaberi, Salehzadeh and Asadi, 2015; Chen and Chen, 2010; Chen and Tsai, 2007). That is, perceived value plays a significant role in affecting the level of satisfaction by moderating the relationship between quality and satisfaction (Pike, 2005; Chen and Tsai, 2007).

Destination image is considered a key factor that influences satisfaction, and several studies have confirmed this relationship (Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015; Chi and Qu, 2008; Bigne et al., 2001; Cai, Wu and Bai, 2003). It has been concluded that a favourable destination image results in high levels of satisfaction (Prayag, 2009; Hernandez-Lobato, Solis-Radilla, Moliner-Tena and Sanchez-Garcia, 2006). Expectations are described as the individual's beliefs about how a product/service is likely to perform in the future (del Bosque et al., 2008), and expectations are not only employed as a comparison standard in consumer evaluations, but have also been found to have a direct effect on satisfaction (Szymanski and Henard 2001; del Bosque et al., 2008; Song et al., 2011). Nonetheless, Petrick (2004) contends that there is inconclusive evidence if expectations directly lead to satisfaction. Furthermore, consumers develop expectations about a product/service before purchasing and subsequently, and they then compare their actual experiences with their expectations, which may result in positive or negative disconfirmation (Bigne and Andreu, 2004; Hui et al., 2007).

Literature confirms a direct positive causal relationship between positive disconfirmation and satisfaction (Rodríguez and San Martín, 2008; Caro and Garcia, 2007; De Rojas and Camarero, 2008). However, in their study, del Bosque et al. (2008) conclude that disconfirmation does not have a direct influence satisfaction. On the other hand, some scholars contend that satisfaction is influenced by the level of place attachment (Halpenny, 2006), because the feeling of being part of a particular place contributes to the definition of

oneself, thus an accordingly positive evaluation of the place will ensue. In their study Yuksel, Yuksel, and Bilim (2010) demonstrate that as place attachment increases, so does the level of satisfaction. Also, it has been concluded that travel motivations positively influence satisfaction (Yoon and Uysal, 2005; Battour, Battor and Ismail, 2012). In their study conducted at four mountain lodges where two authentic concepts - a local meal concept and a storytelling concept - were offered to tourists, Engeset and Elvekrok (2014) found that authentic concepts affected the level of satisfaction, and hence advised managers that these should be included to avoid tourists finding the normal or expected attributes at a destination.

On the other hand, the main consequence of satisfaction is loyalty (Valle, Silva, Mendes and Guerreiro, 2006; Gallarza and Saura ,2005; Bigné et al. , 2001, 2005; Chen and Tsai, 2007; Song et al., 2011). In the tourism context, loyalty is commonly described a tourist's intention to revisit a destination again or to recommend the destination to others (Kozak and Rimmington., 2000). In their study investigating tourist satisfaction, Hui et al. (2007) and Mohamad, Ali, and Ab Ghani (2011) conclude that customer satisfaction has a remarkable impact on repeat visits and positive word of mouth. However, some scholars have found this relationship to be moderated by customer complaints (Xia, Chaolin and Feng, 2009; Song et al., 2011). Additionally, it is argued that trust remains central in the analysis of repeat tourism (Sannassee and Seetanah, 2015).

Several contending theories of and measurement approaches for satisfaction have been proposed in the marketing and consumer behaviour literature (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001; Yi, 1990). The Servqual, the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm, the Value-Percept Model, the Congruity Model, the Desires Congruency Model, and the Experience-Based Norms Model have been used to measure satisfaction. Several authors have employed the Servqual Model (Akhlaghi, Amini and Akhlaghi, 2012), whereas others have applied Oliver's (1980) Expectancy-disconfirmation Model (Meyer, Hickson, Khan and Walker, 2014). Sirgy's Congruity Model was used as the assessment framework by Klipfel, Barclay, and Bockorny (2013). Moreover, some researchers have employed the Performance Only Model (Qu and Ping, 1999; Pizam et al., 1978), the Weighted Importance-Performance Model (Sever, 2015), and the conventional Importance-Performance Model (Azzopardi and Nash, 2013).

3.3.3 Attitude toward the Destination

Psychology literature states that attitude is the most distinctive and indispensable concept (Ajzen, 2012), and for years studies in psychology have been characterised by a great deal of vagueness and disagreement regarding the definition, structure, and function of attitudes (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). Consumer attitude is significant because research has found that attitude plays a key role in explaining consumer behaviour. Literature demonstrates that there is a casual relationship between beliefs, attitudes, and behaviour (Howcroft, Hamilton and Hewer, 2002). Additionally, Schiffmam and Kanuk (2010) state that all consumer behaviour is driven by attitude, that is, consistency of purchases, evaluations, recommendations to others, beliefs, and intentions are linked attitude. Hence, consumer attitudes have helped to understand consumer behaviour–predicting it or influencing it (Ajzen, 2001). Nevertheless, Glasman and Albarracin (2006) contend this and posit that for the attitude-behaviour relationship to stand , the attitude must be held confidently, must be decisive, must be an easily recalled attitude, and must be an attitude based on direct experience.

To be able to examine what attitudes tourists hold towards a destination, it is best to first explain the term ‘attitude’. Several scholars describe the concept in various ways. de Boer, Pijl, and Minnaert (2011) define ‘attitude’ as an individual’s viewpoint or disposition towards a particular object, and also contend that ‘attitude’ can be described as the evaluation of an object, concept, or behaviour along a dimension of good-bad, harmful beneficial, pleasant-unpleasant, and likable-dislikeable. In a consumer behaviour context, Schiffmam et al. (2010) describe attitude as a learned predisposition to act in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way towards a given object. Similarly, Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) define ‘attitude toward behaviour’ as the degree of an individual’s positive and negative feeling towards the intention of performing the particular behaviour. In a tourism-oriented study, Jalilvand et al. (2012) have similarly defined ‘tourist attitude’ as psychological propensities expressed by the positive or negative evaluations of tourists when engaged in certain behaviours. Most attitude definitions include the term ‘object’ because the attitude concept should be understood to broadly include specific-consumption and marketing related concepts: product, brand, service, people, advertisements, issues, product use, and many more phenomenon.

According to Solomon (2010) an attitude is composed of three dimensions, therefore the tri-attitude model (Breckler, 1984): affect or feeling, cognition or beliefs, and conative or behaviour. The affective category deals with feelings, moods, and emotions towards attitude object; cognitive category is comprised of perceptions (often conceptualised as beliefs) and knowledge about the attitude object that may be acquired through direct experience or from related sources of information; and the behavioural (conative) category incorporates one's actions in relation to the attitude object, that is, an individual will behave in a certain manner with regard to the attitude object (Vincent and Thompson, 2002; Kim and Stepchenkova, 2015). Additionally, consumer attitudes are stored in memory and will over time until automatically activated (Nyaupane, Paris and Teye, 2011)

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2010) attitude formation refers to moving to having no attitude toward an object to having one and this shift is as result of learning. There are a number of factors that help in the formation of attitudes toward objects. In their study of international tourists in Isfahan, Jalilvand et al. (2012) found that electronic word of mouth positively influences tourists' attitudes, destination image has a positive effect on tourist's attitudes, and that the socio-demographic characteristics, such as country of origin, age, gender, education, purpose of visit, and previous experience with the destination influence tourists' attitudes toward a destination.

Additionally, Schiffman and Kanuk (2010) also confirm that personal factors have an effect on consumers' attitudes and state that individuals with a high need for cognition are likely to form positive attitudes in response to advertisements that are rich in product-related information, because they crave for information. Furthermore, Phillips and Jang (2008) investigated two components of the destination image, that is, the cognitive and affective components, and they discovered that only the affective aspect of destination image directly influences tourist attitude. In a study exploring the relationship between attitude toward a mega event and attitude toward the hosting country, Lee, Kim, Lee, and Kim (2014) found that through the Trust Transfer Theory, a favourable attitude toward the mega event resulted in a favourable attitude towards the hosting country, which can be viewed as tourist destination, and both these variables had a positive impact on visitors' intentions of returning to the destination.

3.3.4. Customer Trust in the Destination

The concept of trust has become prevalent with practitioners and in academic analyses (Goudge and Gilson, 2005) because it is argued to be a key variable in the initiation, formation, and maintenance of relationships (Matzler et al., 2006), and is a globally accepted factor of any human interaction or exchange (Harris and Goode, 2004). Due to the support of trust in co-operative situations in different contexts, it is argued that such co-operations result in greater levels of collective efficacy, in low levels of crime, greater business productivity, more stable personal relationships, and greater levels of informal exchange (Goudge and Gilson, 2005). Moreover, it is argued that trust reduces conflict and risk by creating goodwill that secures relationships. In addition, trust reinforces satisfaction and partners' commitment in an exchange (Nielsen, 2011). Similarly, it has been found that trust reduces uncertainty, makes risks manageable, and consequently, simplifies choice. Wang, Law, Hung, and Guillet (2014) affirm that the tourism and hospitality industries need to establish trust to achieve successful, enduring relationships because intangibility of service performance and lack of service transparency presents an opportunity of information irregularity and opportunistic behaviour, and hence risk (Singh and Sirdeshmukh, 2000; McCole ,2002).

Trust is noticeably a key variable in the development of relationship marketing, nevertheless, it still remains a challenging concept to define (Fam, Foscht and Collins, 2004; Goudge and Gilson, 2005). It continues to be an indescribable or ambiguous term in literature, and has been used repeatedly in diverse ways if not always compatibly (Nunkoo, Ramkissoon and Gursoy, 2012). Regardless of these differences, several scholars have tried to define the concept.

Czernek and Czakon (2016) state that trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability, and is based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another; it can also be described as the belief that the promise of another can be relied upon and that, in unanticipated circumstances, the other will act in a spirit of goodwill and in a benevolent fashion toward the person placing their trust in them (Suh and Han, 2003; Alsajjan and Dennis, 2006). In a study between narrow-scope trust and broad-scope trust, Hansen (2012) suggests broad-scope trust as a customer’s expectation held that companies within a particular industry will generally be dependable and can be relied upon to deliver on their promises. Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011) interestingly describe trust as a

psychological state, a favourable attitude toward the partner in an exchange, and assurance that the exchange partner will perform as promised. From a tourist destination perspective, Marinao, Chasco, and Torres (2012) refer to trust in a destination as reliability focused on the important elements pertaining to a certain location.

Eitzinger and Wiedemann (2008) describe trust as delicate: it takes a long time to build trust and it requires a series of acts to build up trust, but a single mishap is sufficient to immediately destroy it. Furthermore, trust has been viewed as an intention (Gefen, 2000) or as a belief (Gefen, Karahanna and Straub, 2003). The trust intention approach can be described as an individual's willingness to depend on another individual, even though one cannot control the situation (McKnight and Chervany 2006), that is, accepting vulnerability, which is context-dependent (Singh and Sirdeshmukh, 2000). As a belief, trust is referred to as a group of specific views dealing with the integrity (trustee honesty and promise-keeping), benevolence (trustee caring and motivation to act in the truster's interest), competence (capacity of trustee to do what the truster needs), and predictability (trustee's behavioural consistency) of a service provider (McKnight and Chervany, 2002). Additionally, it has been generally agreed that trust is directed, subjective, category specific, and will evolve with direct experience (Thevathayan, Harland and Bertok, 2013).

The trust construct has received a lot attention from scholars in numerous disciplines such as psychology (Deutsch, 1960; Larzelere and Huston, 1980; Rotter 1980), management (Barney and Hansen, 1994) sociology (Lewis and Weigert, 1985), economics (Dasgupta, 1988), and marketing (Andaleeb, 1992; Morgan and Hunt, 1994). In light of these several disciplines, trust has been discussed from a breadth of perspectives, namely: interaction theory (Håkansson, 1982); organisational theory (Bradach and Eccles, 1989); online exchange (Stewart, 2003); contractual relations theory (Macneil, 1980), interaction theory (Håkansson, 1982), social psychology (Blau, 1968), transaction cost economics (Nooteboom, Berger and Noorderhaven, 1997), and trust theory (Gambetta, 1988). Tourism and hospitality literature indicates that studies on trust only began in the 1990s, and Czernek and Czakon (2016) state that trust is relatively under-researched in tourism literature.

Li, Zhou, Kashyap, and Yang (2008) contend that trust is a multidimensional construct, that is, each specific aspect of a brand contributes to the overall brand trust. Delgado-Ballester

and Munuera-Alema (2003) agree and argue that conceptualising trust as uni-dimensional completely overlooks the motivational aspects associated with the concept, further limiting the richness of the phenomenon. According to Li et al. (2008), scholars have not agreed upon the approaches to measuring trust, and thus there are several dimensions of the trust concept found in literature.

Gurviez and Korchia (2003) conclude that trust comprises three dimensions: credibility; integrity; and benevolence. Interestingly, in their study on trust in tourist destinations, Marinao et al. (2012) assert that the trust concept covers three aspects: competence; benevolence; and honesty. On the hand, Blomqvist (1997) argues that trust is formed by two facets: competence (technical capacities and skills) and goodwill (moral responsibility and favourable intentions towards other party); while agreeing that trust comprises two dimensions, they are different from the previously mentioned aspects. Investigating the development and validation of a brand trust scale, Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema, (2001) found brand trust to encompass two dimensions: intentionality (which refers to an emotional security on the part of individuals) and viability (which looks at the capability of a brand to satisfy consumer needs).

3.3.5. Behavioural Intentions

Loyalty is a concept that is renowned as a major indicator of success in the marketing and tourism literature (Yoon and Uysal, 2005) and brand strategy success (So, King, Sparks and Wang, 2013). It is known as a company's most enduring asset, because as organisations create and maintain customer loyalty, a long-term, mutually beneficial relationship with the customer develops (Pan, Sheng and Xie, 2012). Consequently, the loyalty concept has also received significant attention from scholars and practitioners (Bodet, 2008) who consider it a relationship marketing approach to retain existing customers (Yoo and Bai, 2013). Additionally, loyalty is significant in any business, because higher customer loyalty is accompanied by increases in profitability and a more stable customer basis (Chi, 2005). Loyal customers reduce marketing costs associated with attracting new customers, they spread positive word of mouth, are willing to pay premium prices (Back and Parks, 2003), are less price-sensitive (Krishnamurthi and Papatla 2003), and are unlikely to switch brands for price or special promotions,

Loyalty to an object (such as a brand, store, service, destination, or company) is shown by favourable propensities towards that object, and the propensities may be behavioural or attitudinal (East, Gendall, Hammond and Lomax, 2005). Customer loyalty is described as a customer's repeat visitation or repeat purchase behaviour while including the emotional commitment or expression of a favourable attitude toward the service provider (Petrick, 2004; Yoo and Bai, 2013). Similarly, 'loyalty' can be defined as the result of the interaction between a customer's relative attitude to a product/service, and their repeat purchase behaviour for that product/service (Garland and Gendall, 2004). In marketing literature, customer loyalty is ordinarily accepted as a three-dimensional concept: behavioural; attitudinal; and composite (Yoon and Uysal, 2005; Bowen and Chen, 2001). The behavioural aspect refers to repeat purchases of a particular product or service, and the recommendation of that product/service (Bodet, 2008; Bandyopadhyay and Martell, 2007); the additional component refers to loyalty expressed beyond overt behaviour, but in terms of psychological commitment or statement of preference (Yoon and Uysal, 2005), and the composite approach is an integration of both behavioural and additional elements (Backman and Crompton, 1991).

According to Yang and Peterson (2004), in practice, loyalty is difficult to measure, and thus most researchers employ behavioural intentions to study loyalty, and it is suggested that favourable behavioural intentions frequently represent customer's conative loyalty (Chen and Chen, 2010). Behavioural intentions are an affirmed likelihood to engage in certain behaviour (Ryu, Han and Kim, 2008; Oliver, 1997). According to Yoon and Uysal (2005), tourist destinations can also be considered a product/service that can be resold (revisited) and recommended to others (friends and family who are potential tourists), and in the tourism context, the intention to return and a willingness to recommend the destination have been considered to be behavioural variables (Bigne et al., 2001). Chen and Tsai (2007) define 'behavioural intentions' as the visitor's judgment about the likeliness to revisit the same destination or the willingness to recommend the destination to others. Oppermann (2000) proposes that loyalty to a destination should be emphasising lifelong visit behaviour of travellers. In the tourism literature, repeat visits are the ultimate behaviour desired by destination marketing organisation (Valle, Silva, Mendes and Guerreiro, 2006), because of the reduced marketing costs to repeat consumers, and the assumption that repeat visitors hold a positive perception toward the destination (Alegre and Juaneda, 2006). Moreover, a positive attitude is associated with the positive word-of-mouth effect (Oppermann (2000). This effect

is significant; because friends and relatives are one of the most sought after information sources, and equally considered to be the most reliable source.

Behavioural intentions are influenced by several factors. Many scholars consider satisfaction to be the one main factor that influences future behavioural intentions (Um, Chon and Ro, 2006), and several tourism studies have concluded that satisfaction has a positive effect on tourists' future behavioural intentions (Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015; Rajesh, 2013; Baker et al., 2000; Chen and Tsai, 2007; Petrick, 2004; Chi et al., 2008; Prayag et al., 2012). Consequently, Ramseook-Munhurrun et al. (2015) stress that creating high levels of tourist satisfaction in any destination is imperative in order to create positive future behavioural intentions, and to improve and sustain the destination's competitiveness. However, linked to satisfaction, are past travel experiences in terms of services, products, and other resources provided by the destination, which may prompt positive WOM recommendations and repeat visits (Kozak and Rimmington, 2000; Oppermann, 2000; Yoon and Uysal, 2005; Chi et al., 2008) because a favourable experience may encourage subsequent visits to the same destination (Kozak, 2001).

Furthermore, destination image also influences tourists' behavioural intentions (Chi et al., 2008; Artuğer et al., 2013; Chen and Tsai, 2007), because not only does the image affect pre-visit behaviour, it also has an effect on post-tourist behaviour (Tasci et al., 2007). Some scholars have found perceived value to be the best predictor of behavioural intentions rather than the two related constructs of satisfaction and perceived quality (Cronin et al., 2000; Oh, 2000; Rasheed et al., 2014). On the hand, Bigne at al. (2001) concluded that perceived quality has a positive influence on intention to return, however its influence on willingness to recommend the destination requires further investigation. Additionally, familiarity that is, experiential familiarity (Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001) helps tourists to form positive or negative perceptions of a destination and aids in determining a destination's attractiveness (Horng, Liu, Chou and Tsai, 2012; Gursoy and McCleary, 2004). Consequently, tourists find it easier to return to a familiar destination because of reduced risk, strong identification with the destination, and because they have an emotional attachment to that particular destination (Chi, 2005).

3.4 SUMMARY

This chapter was divided into two main sections; the first section discussed the theoretical grounding of the study that comprised of two theories: The Expectancy Disconfirmation Paradigm and Theory of Reasoned Action. From the discussion above, it can be determined that the EDP is a very common theory employed in marketing literature especially in the investigation of customer satisfaction. In the context of this study, the theory is employed in an effort to elucidate the supposition that the pre-purchase expectation of a destination formed by a tourist is the standard against which the destination performance is judged against. A tourist will be satisfied if the performance of the destination matches or exceed their expectations and will be dissatisfied if expectations are not matched. The study furthermore employs the TRA. The theory is used to illustrate the deduction that the satisfaction of a tourist with the destination will additionally influence future purchase intention and post purchase attitude.

This was then followed by a discussion that explored the study's constructs in great detail. Amongst the five variables is the destination image. This is one concept that has been discussed comprehensively in tourism literature because it depicts the perception that tourists hold about destination consequently, influences the tourist behaviour. Furthermore, the section reflects on the satisfaction, attitude toward destination and trust in destination of the tourists. Lastly, there is discussion on behavioural intentions. Behavioral intentions are used a measure of tourists loyalty and in this study loyalty of tourists is indicated by their intention to revisit and recommend the destination.

In the next chapter, the conceptual framework and research hypothesis is discussed.

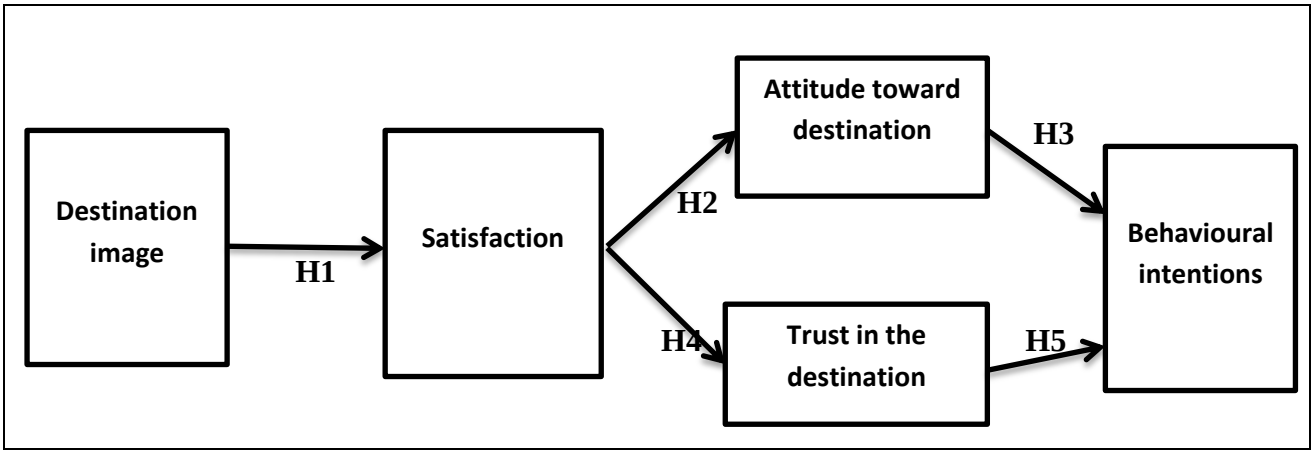
CHAPTER 4

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter deliberates on the conceptual framework which outlines the five hypothesis of the study. Figure 3.1 (below) is the conceptual model that illustrates the relationships between the five variables in the study and based on theoretical and empirical literature reviews, the chapter further attempts to explain how the variables interact in a tourism context.

Figure 4.1: Proposed Conceptual Model



Source: Compiled by the researcher

The predictor variable also known as the independent variable is the Destination Image. Mediating variables include Satisfaction, Attitude toward destination and Trust in Destination. The Independent variable is behavioural Intentions. Based on the literature review, the study theorizes that destination image conditions tourist behaviour. Tourist behaviour is a collective term that amongst other types of behaviour, it includes satisfaction and future behavioral intentions (intention to revisit and willingness to recommend (Oppermann, 2000: Chi et al., 2008) (Chen et al., 2007). Thus, it is proposed that destination image will positively influence tourists' future behavioral intentions through the mediating roles of satisfaction, attitude toward destination and trust in destination. However, satisfaction is proposed to have a direct influence on attitude toward and trust in destination.

4.2. HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

The hypotheses are developed from the conceptual model, which is based on literature regarding destination image, satisfaction, attitude toward destination, trust in destination and tourists' behavioural intentions. These hypotheses are linked to the research's empirical objectives.

4.2.1. Destination Image and Satisfaction

The prominence of the tourist destination's image is collectively accepted because of its influence on the tourist's subjective perception, subsequent behaviour, and destination choice (Gallarza et al., 2001). Similarly, Lee et al. (2005) confirm that the importance of the destination image concept is to condition the after-decision-making behaviours of tourists, such as on-site experience and evaluation (satisfaction). According to Chen et al. (2007), tourists' on-site experience of the destination is denoted by the perceived trip quality, which is a function of the comparison between expectation and perceived performance. Echtner and Ritchie (1993) posit that during a visit, tourists will evaluate the destination experience, and such an assessment influences the held image, more often than not leading to its modification. A favourable evaluation of individual components of the destination is the product of a positive travel experience, hence a positive destination image (Chi et al., 2008). A positive travel experience will indicate that the perceived performance of the destination (Swaziland) has exceeded or matches the expectations of tourists visiting the destination (Yuksel et al., 2001).

A more favourable destination image will lead to higher tourist satisfaction (Chi et al., 2008), and tourists' satisfaction with individual components of the destination results in their satisfaction with the overall destination (Kozak and Rimmington, 2000). Using a longitudinal approach in their study, Assaker, Vinzi, and O'Connor (2011) affirm that a more positive destination image will lead to tourists experiencing a higher overall satisfaction. In an enquiry of 450 European travellers to Mediterranean sun-and-sand destinations, it was concluded that satisfaction is significant and important in mediating the relationship between the destination image and revisit intentions (Assaker and Hallak, 2013). Similarly, in a study of 705 international visitors staying in hotels on the island of Mauritius, evaluating relationships between four antecedents of tourist loyalty (destination image, personal involvement, place

attachment, and visitors' satisfaction), Prayag and Ryan (2012) affirm that satisfaction mediates the relationship between destination image and loyalty. According to Liu, Li, and Kim (2015), when tourists hold a favourable destination image, their satisfaction is positively influenced and they are more likely to behave positively. Therefore the study hypothesises that:

H1: Destination image has significant positive influence on satisfaction

4.2.2. Satisfaction and Attitude toward Destination

Past research on loyalty has affirmed satisfaction as the key antecedent of customer loyalty; however, recently some scholars have challenged the direct influence of satisfaction on customer loyalty because higher customer satisfaction does not necessarily result in higher repurchase (Yi and La, 2003). It is argued that the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty is not simple but more intricate than previously assumed (Söderlund, 2006). This indicates that this relationship is moderated by other variables (Kumar, Dalla Pozza and Ganesh, 2013). According to Howard (1974), if a customer is satisfied with a product or service, that satisfaction encounter positively affects their future purchase intention as well as their post-purchase attitude.

Oliver's (1980) expectation–disconfirmation paradigm holds that before purchasing any service or product, consumers have expectations. Yi et al. (2004) posit that these prior expectations are assumed to be a shifting concept that is continually influenced by cumulative consumption experiences. According to Anderson (2003), experiences generated by the use of products or services provide information to customers that enable them to constantly update their beliefs. Hence, adjusted expectations are updated from prior expectations by an overall experience with a product or service Therefore, it is suggested that satisfaction will influence these expectations (Rufin, Medina and Rey, 2012). Attitudes can be formed through direct experience with a product (Nystrand and Fjørtoft, 2015), and it is argued that direct experience produces attitudes that are clearer, more stable, and consistent (Regan and Fazio, 1977).

Maoz (2006) suggests that intergroup interactions could possibly result in host–guest mutual respect and liking. Moreover, Robinson and Preston (1976) argue that it may further reduce

negative stereotypes held. Similarly, based on the contract theory, bringing together diverse people could ease off stereotypes and cultivate friendly attitudes. Several tourism studies have investigated how tourism could be used to foster peace and attitude change (Pizam, Uriely and Reichel, 2000; Maoz, 2006). Studies in the tourism context resulted in diversified findings. In their study, Pizam et al. (1991) found that there was no evidence of a favourable change in attitude; on the other hand, in an investigation of students visiting Egypt and Israel, Litvin (2003) concluded that attitudes toward Egyptian people changed negatively, yet attitudes toward Israelis were favourable.

Nyaupane, Teye, and Paris (2008) affirm that attitudes held by tourists depend on the country being visited. Pierce and Jussila (2010) contend that attitude is a psychological construct that can be altered by actual experiences. When tourists take a vacation, they expect a quality experience from the trip (Chen and Tsai, 2007) since they have invested a significant amount resources into their trip. However, if tourists experiences are negative with any of the tourism facilities, their attitudes toward the country will likely be negative (Sirakaya-Turk, Nyaupane and Uysal, 2013). Hence, it is suggested that tourists who are satisfied with a destination will hold positive attitudes toward the destination (Huang and Hsu, 2009). Therefore, the study hypothesises that:

H2: Satisfaction has significant positive influence on attitude toward destination.

4.2.3. Attitude toward Destination and Behavioural Intentions

The theory of reasoned action has been widely used to describe how people's attitudes can be used to predict consumer-intended behaviour (Spears and Singh, 2004). The theory suggests that behaviour is determined by intentions and proposes that attitude is one the factors that determines intentions (Conner, Rhodes, Morris, McEachan and Lawton, 2011). According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2010), attitude is a learned predisposition through direct experience with a product/service or from certain sources of information. Thus, given that attitudes are learnt, they have the tendency to propel a consumer toward certain behaviour. Singh, Slotkin, and Vamosi (2007) posit that consumers' behavioural intentions towards attitude objects are reflective of their attitudes toward those objects. According to Solomon (2009), attitudes are consistent. Accordingly, consumer behaviour should correspond with the attitude the consumer holds. In their investigations, Kassem and Lee (2004) and Orbell, Blair, Sherlock, and Conner (2001) found that attitudes best predicted behavioural intentions.

Oppermann (2000) posits that repeat visits indicate a positive attitude held about that destination, and a positive attitude comes with favourable WOM. Similarly, Singh et al. (2006) suggest that under good circumstances, a consumer's attitude towards an object has a positive correlation with their opinion of the object, and conceivably the choice of the object. In a study of buying organic food, the relationship between attitudes towards buying organic food and the intention to buy organic food was favourable and significant (Tarkiainen and Sundqvist, 2005). Additionally, Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, and Maroco (2013) tested the relationship between attitudes and intentions, and their investigation showed that attitude toward the sponsor was the more influential variable on the intentions to purchase products of the sponsor. Thus, it can be hypothesised that:

H3: Attitude toward destination has significant positive influence on behavioural intention.

4.2.4. Satisfaction and Trust in the Destination

According to Martínez et al. (2013), hospitality literature confirms the close relationship between trust and satisfaction, and in their analysis, Singh et al. (2002) contend that satisfaction directly influences trust. The Adaptation Level Theory can be employed to better describe the positive association between satisfaction and trust (Helson, 1964). According to Kim, Hong, Min, and Lee (2011), if customers consistently receive high quality service, they are more likely to perceive the service to be reliable and trustworthy. Satisfaction has been found to have a positive influence on post-purchase behaviour (Oliver, 1980), and it is affirmed that satisfaction has an indirect positive influence on loyalty through trust (Singh et al., 2000). Hart and Johnson (1999) further argue that it is important to look beyond satisfaction, which will ensure an economically viable and long-term relationship with customers, and total trust has been found to be key (Morgan and Hunt, 1994).

There is still a debate over the causal relationship between tourist satisfaction and trust (Su and Fan, 2011). According to Ha and Perks (2005), customer satisfaction increases brand trust. In their study investigating how customers form attitudes towards suppliers, Moliner, Sanchez, Rodriguez, and Callarisa (2007) suggest that the more satisfied the customer is with the supplier, the more the trust generated in the consumer, consequently, developing a direct relationship between the two parties. Furthermore, in an investigation of rural tourists in the

main rural lodgings in two border regions of Spain and Portugal, Loureiro and González (2008) found that there is a positive a relationship between satisfaction and trust, although satisfaction was found to have a higher influence on loyalty than trust. Similarly, in a study of rural tourists, Su and Fan (2011) affirm that tourist satisfaction influences tourist trust. Thus it can be hypothesised that:

***H4**: **Satisfaction has significant positive influence on trust in destination**.*

4.2.5. Trust in the Destination and Behavioural Intentions

According to Harris and Goode (2004), loyal customers repurchase more of the product or service, they are willing to pay premium prices, and act as fervent advocates of the company, product, or service. Hence, the construct has drawn attention from a lot of scholars to investigate its antecedents. Oliver (1997) describes loyalty as a multidimensional construct with four distinct elements: cognitive loyalty; affective loyalty; conative loyalty; and action loyalty. This study will focus mainly on conative loyalty, which Janda, Trocchia, and Gwinner (2002) refer to as development of behavioural intentions considered to be a deeper level of commitment. According to Han and Ryu (2006), behavioural intentions are considered to include revisit and WOM intentions. Velazquez, Saura, and Molina (2011) propose that future research should further investigate consequences of satisfaction and determinants intervening in loyalty formation.

Trust is vital in developing strong consumer-brand relationships (Urban, Sultan and Qualls, 2000), and research has demonstrated that this multifaceted construct has a positive effect on loyalty (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema, 2001; Lau and Lee, 1999). Consumer trust is shaped by customer expectations that a service provider will consistently and reliably deliver a service as promised (Sirdeshmukh, Singh and Sabol, 2002). If the customer's expectations are met through the fulfilment of their needs and fair treatment during the service delivery, it results in satisfaction (Choi and La, 2013). Satisfaction consistently provides customers with favourable feelings and associations toward the brand/activity, and consequently, in establishing a trusting relationship (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema, 2001). Ranaweera and Prabhu (2003) contend that trust is a more reliable emotion than satisfaction, and for that reason they argue that it is a better predictor of loyalty. Similarly, in an investigation of sports tourism, Chen (2006) found trust to be fundamental in the development of loyalty.

In their investigation of online customers, Harris and Goode (2004) found that there is a favourable and direct association between trust and loyalty. Keh and Xie (2009) extended this investigation to explore the mediating factors between corporate reputations and customer behavioural intentions, and similarly their study also found that customer trust has a stronger effect on purchase intention. When comparing customer identification; customer satisfaction; and customer trust, Martínez et al. (2013) show that trust has the most influence on loyalty. This confirms that trust is the main predictor of hotel customer loyalty. Moreover, in online transactions, it was established that a customer's faith in the website influenced their behavioural intentions to purchase from or visit the site again, and their intention to recommend the website to others (Liu, Marchewka, Lu and Yu, 2005). According to Kim, Kim, and Kim (2009) trust gives assurance to customers about the service provider, and accordingly, in the future, the customer may willingly and positively be geared toward the company through WOM references, and revisit intentions. Thus, it can be hypothesised that:

H5: Trust in the destination has significant positive influence on behavioural intention.

4.3. SUMMARY

This chapter presented the conceptual framework and hypotheses related to the study. The main objective was to visually present the casual relations between the five constructs. From the discussion above, destination image is the predictor variable. It is has been determined that it is a central concept in tourism studies because it conditions the after-decision-making behavior of tourists. Thus, the study posits that destination image directly influences satisfaction, that is, a favourable destination image held by a tourist has a positive effect on the tourist's satisfaction. Also, it is suggested that if a tourist is satisfied with the performance of a destination, the tourist is likely to revisit and recommend the destination.

However, scholars have challenged the suggestion that satisfaction results to loyalty which is measured by behavioural intentions in the study, but argue that the relationship is mediated by certain factors. For that reason, this study postulates that the relationship between satisfaction and behavioural intentions is mediated by attitude toward destination and trust in destination. Based on literature, the study argues that intention to perform most behaviour is predetermined by attitude. Also, it is stated that trust is a more dependable emotion than satisfaction and as a result, literature puts forward that trust is a better predictor of loyalty.

Therefore, the casual relationships are as follows: destination image directly influences satisfaction, satisfaction directly influences attitude toward destination and trust in destination, attitude toward destination directly influences behavioural intentions and trust in destination directly influences behavioural intentions.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a detailed discussion of the methodology used in this study. It will deliberate on six sections: research approach; research philosophy; research design; sampling technique; data collection tool; statistical methods used; and limitations of the study.

5.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

According to Malhorta and Birks (2007), when conducting research, a deductive or an inductive research approach may be employed. Deductive research refers to investigations that test hypothesised relationships derived from the use of existing theories (Shiu et al., 2009). This approach requires that the researcher deduces hypotheses that must then be subjected to empirical scrutiny (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Basically, the approach must be based on a theory that already exists, and hypotheses derived from the theory inform the process of data collection (Malhorta & Birks, 2007). On the other hand, the inductive research tactic refers to an investigation that gathers and analyses primary data, from which hypotheses are developed and tested to create new theories or extend existing ones (Shiu et al., 2009).

For this study, the deductive approach was used because based on existing theories, hypotheses were derived. Data was gathered to then test the significance of the hypotheses; hence, findings were then presented.

5.3 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

According to Ponterotto (2005), the philosophy of science refers to the conceptual origins undergirding the pursuit for knowledge. Incorporated in a philosophy are the ontology, epistemology, and methodology. Slevitch (2011) states that every scientific investigation is based on a certain paradigm, and Morgan (2007) refers to paradigms as all-encompassing assumptions about the world and a means of experiencing the world, including beliefs about

morals, values, and aesthetics. Scientific paradigms are determined by ontological positions (Sale, Lohfeld & Brazil, 2002), and ontology involves the philosophy of reality (Krauss, 2005). The next concept the epistemology theory, which is concerned with the nature, justification, and scope of human knowledge (Hofer, 2001), that is, how we come to know that reality (Krauss, 2005). According to Slevitch (2011), the epistemology paradigm attempts to answer the questions below:

- How do we know what we know?
- What is the truth?
- What is legitimate knowledge?
- What is the nature of the relationship between the investigator and what can be known?

Denzin and Lincoln (2002) state that each paradigm chosen informs the researcher in philosophical assumptions about the research and in the selection of tools, instruments, participants, and methods used in the investigation.

The paradigm selected for this study was the positivism paradigm. The positivist paradigm asserts that reality can be observed empirically and explained with logical analysis, that is, only one true reality exists that is independent of what humans perceive (Hunt, 1991). The positivist view holds that the researcher and the topic are independent entities; therefore, the investigator is capable of exploring a concept without influencing it or being influenced by it (dualism) (Sale et al., 2002). Moreover, the paradigm dictates that the researchers should follow a rigorous, standard procedure to ensure that the participants and topic can be studied by the researcher without bias (objectivism) (Ponterotto, 2005). Hence, according to Krauss (2005), epistemologically, positivism assumes that science is seen as the effective approach that establishes the truth about reality or phenomenon.

5.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is an outline of how a marketing research project will be carried out (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The process of choosing the design is influenced by the type of data, the data collection technique, sampling method, and budget (Shiu et al., 2009). The

research design that was selected for this study is the descriptive research design because it is a design positing that scientific methods and processes should be employed by the researcher in the entire investigation. Furthermore, it allows the researcher to fully describe the five marketing variables. Moreover, the casual research design was used because descriptive research is not appropriate to determine the relationships between the five variables in the study (Malhorta and Birks, 2007).

5.5 RESEARCH METHOD

5.5.1. Quantitative Research

The quantitative approach was employed for this study, and according to Slevitch (2011) the quantitative method stems from positivism. Quantitative marketing research is a technique that addresses research objectives and tries to solve the research problem through empirical assessment that involves numerical measurement and analysis (Zikmund & Babin, 2007). This view of research states that researchers ought to eliminate their biases by being emotionally detached and uninvolved with the objects of study, and they must test the stated hypotheses of the investigation (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Advantages of quantitative research (Hair, Bush & Ortinau, 2000):

- it accommodates large sample sizes and increases generalisation of results;
- it is easier to administer and record questions and answers;
- it has the ability to distinguish subtle differences; and
- it allows the use of advanced statistical analysis.

This study involved the collection of quantitative data from a large group of respondents, and the results were statistically analysed in an effort to answer the research problem and to determine the cause-effect between destination image and future behavioural intentions.

5.6 SAMPLING DESIGN

Sampling is the selection of units of a fraction of the total population (Parasuraman, Grewal & Krishnan, 2006.

5.6.1 Target Population

A target population refers to the universe of units that possess the characteristics and information required by the researcher from which a sample can be selected (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The target population should be defined precisely with tangible characteristics, and have its extent and time stated (Malhorta & Birks, 2007). The target population for this study comprises both local and foreign tourists aged 18 and above that visited Swaziland between the months of August to October 2015. The population included tourists that are local residents of the country as well international tourists from around the world.

5.6.2 Sampling Frame

A sampling frame is the list of elements from which a sample will be chosen (Zikmund & Babin, 2007). However, the current study did not employ a sampling frame, therefore there is no actual list of elements provided. Tourists were conveniently sampled from those that visited Mantenga Cultural Village, Swazi Candles, and Ngwenya Glass, and tourists departing from the Sikhuphe International Airport. It was proposed respondents would also include tourists visiting the Shewula Mountain Camp, but during the months proposed for the study, the site did not receive any visitors.

5.6.3 Sample Size

Sample size is the number of units that are to be included in a study (Malhorta & Birks, 2007). In deciding the sample size, the researcher took into account the following factors: the level of precision desired; and time and costs related to conducting the investigation. The STA (2015) estimate that tourists annually visiting Swaziland number approximately more than a million. Krejcie & Morgan (1970) argue that with a target population of more than one million, elements selected for a study should include at least 384 participants. The researcher managed to arrive at a total sample of 431 respondents.

5.6.4 Sample Method

There are two main sampling designs: probability and non-probability sampling (Malhorta and Birks, 2007). Probability sampling uses a procedure whereby all elements in the target

population have an equal chance of being chosen to be part of the sample. On the other hand, non-probability sampling is characterised by units of the target population not having an equal probability of not being selected because subjects of a sample are usually selected, based on their accessibility or by the researcher's personal judgment (Zikmund and Babin, 2007). This study employed non-probability sampling, which was non-proportional quota sampling and convenience sampling. In this study, the researcher used the four sites (Mantenga Cultural Village, Swazi Candles, Ngwenya Glass and departing tourists from the Sikhuphe International Airport) chosen for study as the mutually exclusive subgroups from where participants were drawn to meet the predefined quota of a minimum of 100 participants per site to meet the desired sample size (Bhattacherjee, 2012). The researcher obtained 100 participants from three sites and 131 from Mantenga Cultural Village as it proved to be the most visited and popular amongst the tourists. Convenience sampling was then employed (Kumar and Yang, 2014; Akhoondnejad, 2016) when intercepting participants due to the challenge of no knowledge of the number of tourists that visit each area and random visitation of the tourists to these sites. Hence, participants were non-randomly picked as they visited the each site.

5.7 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

The primary data collection instrument used for this study was a research questionnaire. According to Shiu et al. (2009), descriptive and casual research designs are associated with the survey method of data collection because it promotes a questionnaire as the instrument to collect a large representative sample of primary data. This study used a structured survey questionnaire that was divided into six sections and was self-administered by respondents. The questionnaire was designed based on the study's research conceptual model and by using academic literature that was relevant to the research topic. The six sections included demographic information, destination image, satisfaction, customer trust in the destination, attitude towards the destination, and behavioural intentions (intention to revisit and intention to recommend). The questionnaire included 42 fixed-response alternative questions that required the participants to select from a predetermined set of responses (Malhorta & Birks, 2007).

Table 4.1 The questions adapted from published academic articles that were employed to develop the research questionnaire for the current study

Research Constructs	Research Measurement Item	Scale

Destination Image	• Destination brand
	  ○ (Offers personal safety, a good quality of life, cleanliness, a good name and reputation, hospitable and friendly people, quality accommodation, quality infrastructure).
	• Entertainment
	  ○ (Good night life, good shopping venues, varied cuisines, exotic).
	• Nature and Culture
	  ○ (Great variety of fauna and flora, spectacular landscape, unusual ways of life and customs, interesting cultural attractions).
	• Sun
	(Good weather).
	(Chen and Tsai, 2007).
		1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

Satisfaction	• Overall, how satisfied were you with your visit to Swaziland? • How would you rate your satisfaction, considering what you expected? • How would you rate your satisfaction compared with your time and effort spent in visiting Swaziland? (Lee, Yoon & Lee, 2005)	1= not at all to 5 = very satisfied.
Customer trust in destination	• I trust this destination. • I feel that I can trust this destination completely. • I can rely on this destination. • I feel secure when I visit this destination because I know that it will never let me down. (Alan & Kabadayi, 2014).	1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

Attitude toward the destination	As a tourism destination, I think that Swaziland is: • Very bad-Very good. • Very worthless-Very valuable. • Very unpleasant-Very pleasant. (Jalilvand et al., 2012).	1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.
Intention to revisit	• If I revisit Southern Africa, my first choice will be Swaziland. • I am considering revisiting Swaziland destinations in the future • The probability that I visit Swaziland destinations again in the future is high (Artuğer et al., 2013)	1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.
Willingness to recommend	• I will say positive things about Swaziland to those around me. • I will encourage those around me to come and visit Swaziland (destinations). • I will recommend Swaziland as a destination to other people. • When asked about a holiday destination, I will recommend Swaziland. (Artuğer et al., 2013).	1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

5.8 DATA COLLECTION

Primary data was collected through a self- administered questionnaire in English that was distributed amongst tourists who were willing to participate in the study; these tourists visited Mantenga Cultural Village, Swazi Candles, and/or Ngwenya Glass, and/or were those tourists departing from the Sikhuphe International Airport between August and October 2015. A total of 565 questionnaires were distributed: 145 were distributed at Mantenga Cultural Village; 140 were distributed at Swaziland Candles; 140 were distributed at Ngwenya Glass; and 140 were distributed at Sikhuphe International Airport. However, a total of 431 were usable in the study, indicating a response rate of 76.3%.

On the other hand, secondary data was collected from other information previously collected for intentions other than that of the research at hand; however, it was relevant to the study subject. The researcher utilised accredited academic journals relevant to the current research to explain and define key terms of the study obtained from the databases available on the

University of the Witwatersrand library website, as well as text books available in the libraries of the University of the Witwatersrand.

5.9 DATA ANALYSIS

5.9.1 Data Cleaning and Coding

The researcher first examined the completed questionnaires for any errors or any inconsistencies. The editing process was carried out as a quality control measure early, before the data analyses, to ensure accuracy of the data (Parasuraman et al., 2004). The researcher verified the response accuracy and made necessary corrections where applicable, and the questionnaires that were not fully or correctly answered were discarded. The edited dataset was then entered into an Excel spreadsheet and was then coded to allow manipulation and analyses. The coding process involved (Parasuraman et al., 2004):

- transforming responses to each question into a set of meaningful categories; and
- assigning numerical codes to the categories.

5.9.2 Descriptive Statistics

The purpose of descriptive statistics is to reveal features of the basic composition of the data collected (Malhorta & Birks, 2007). They are mainly employed to summarise the data gathered from the research participants. The descriptive statistics in the study included pie or bar charts and tables to show the main data components.

5.9.3 Reliability and Validity of Measurement Scales

According to Bryman and Bell (2007), reliability refers to the consistency of a measure of a construct, that is, the extent to which the scale produces constant results if repeated measurements are made (Malhorta and Birks, 2007). To measure reliability, the study used the Cronbach Alpha, CR, and AVE. Validity is the extent to which a set of indicators have been developed to gauge whether a construct actually measures the construct (Bryman and Bell, 2007). To assess the validity of measurement for this study, convergent validity was used, where items to total correlations and factor loadings were the indicators used for

assessment. Additionally, discriminant validity was then employed, and the indicators used were the AVE and inter- correlation values. Malhorta and Birks (2007) state that if a measure is valid, it follows that it will be reliable. Nevertheless, reliability is necessary, but not a sufficient condition for validity.

5.10 Structural Equation Modeling

Lei and Wu (2007) describe SEM as several statistical models used to evaluate the validity of substantive theories with empirical data, and Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen (2008) point out that it has been a necessity for researchers. SEM has also become a popular statistical tool for scholars in several disciplines, namely psychology, education, the social and behavioural sciences (Fan, Thompson & Wang, 1999), and also tourism studies (Schmidt, Cantallops & dos Santos 2008; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Ramkissoon, Uysal & Brown 2011). SEM is a procedure that handles a large number of endogenous and exogenous variables, as well as latent (unobserved) variables specified as linear combinations (weighted averages) of the observed variables (Golob, 2003). Moreover, it is a method that can examine a series of dependence relationships simultaneously; hence, it enables researchers to address complicated managerial and behavioural issues. SEM has thus been advocated because it can expand the explanatory ability and statistical efficiency for model testing with a single comprehensive method (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). SEM involves the evaluation of two models: a *measurement* model and a *path/structural* model.

5.10.1 Confirmatory factor analysis

The measurement model in SEM is evaluated through a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Lei & Wu, 2007), and this evaluation is a pre-requisite for the evaluation of the structural model (Chi and Qu, 2008). CFA is an analytical tool that the researcher can use to examine hypotheses about what constructs the research topic is measuring and it provides an empirical basis for interpretation (Burton, Ryan, Axelrod, Schellenberger and Richards, 2003). CFA is an imperative step in SEM because it uses systematic methods of determining which model best fits the covariance data. This study employed the CFA approach to assess the measurement quality of the endogenous variables in the proposed theoretical model, and to determine whether or not the collected data fitted the theoretical model. Firstly, CFA was used to determine the dimensions of the various constructs, and secondly, it was used to

evaluate the convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement items (Prayag and Ryan, 2012; Chen et al, 2010). A variety of fit indices have been developed as guidelines in assessing model fit (Hooper et al., 2008; Hair et al., 2005). The current study employed the following indices: Chi-square/degrees of freedom, GFI, NFI, IFI, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), CFI, and the RMSEA.

5.10.2 Path Modelling

Path analysis, also known as causal modeling, provides an effective and direct way of modeling mediation, indirect effects, and other complex relationships among conceptual model variables (Lei &and Wu, 2007). This technique was employed after the confirmatory factory analysis to assess the structural paths of the conceptualised research model. This is the last step of SEM, and it is performed to determine the extent to which correlations between dependent variables and independent variables are consistent with those predicted by the researcher in the structural model (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011). This study mainly used path modelling to examine the structural model, which involved the significance tests for the estimated path coefficients and therefore provided the basis against which the proposed relationships between latent constructs were accepted or rejected (Chi and Qu, 2008; Prayag and Ryan, 2012), as illustrated in the proposed conceptual model. Path coefficients were generated to indicate positivity and the significance of the relationships between the five constructs in the study, consequently, accepting or rejecting the proposed hypotheses.

5.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Due to the human participants involved in the study, the researcher applied for ethical clearance from the University of the Witwatersrand. This process required that the researcher submit all relevant documents, including the permission letters from the five proposed sites where questionnaires were to be distributed. The study was approved by the Human Ethics Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical) on the 14 August 2015, thus, giving the go-ahead to carry out the data collection and ethically complete the study. To acquire the ethics approval, the researcher had to:

- explain what the study was about and the purpose of the survey to participants;

- clearly indicate that this research was conducted purely for academic purposes and therefore participants' particulars would remain confidential and anonymous;
- assure respondents that participation was completely voluntary and involved no risk, penalty, or loss of benefits, whether or not they participated, and they were allowed to withdraw from the survey at any stage; and
- inform participants that once the questionnaire had been completed and handed back to the researcher, this would be taken as consent for answers to be used in the study.

5. 12 LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

This study included a sample of international tourists visiting Swaziland. However, some respondents could not participate in the study because due to language barriers, especially in cases where there was no interpreter. Moreover, on most days, including weekdays and weekends, international tourists were found to be more responsive than the local sample. Based on the season, locals were mostly only able to visit sites selected for the study on weekends, and consequently the international sample represented the majority of the study's participants rather than the local sample.

5.13 SUMMARY

Chapter 5 presented a discussion on the research methodology and design employed in this study. The methodology for the current study is a quantitative study. A self-administered structured questionnaire was used in an effort to establish the perceptions of both local and international tourists about the Kingdom of Swaziland as a tourist destination. The chapter covered the research approach used in the study, the research philosophy, research design, sampling design, data collection tool, data analysis techniques, and the limitations of the study. The next chapter will examine the data analysis process, as well as providing a discussion of the results.

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter considers the study's empirical results. It is structured in four main sections. It firstly discusses the descriptive statistics that involve the depiction of the sampled populations (local and international tourists) with corresponding statistics and accompanying tables. Thereafter, reliability and validity assessment are considered, followed by CFA results, and thereafter path modelling results are tabled.

6.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics are presented to illustrate characteristic information about the sample; it mainly focuses on demographic or descriptive traits of the sampled population. The aim is to discuss characteristics of the sample population in an abridged yet comprehensible manner.

Table 6.1 Sample Description of both International and Local Tourists

Gender	**Frequency**		**Percentage**	
	INTERNATIONAL	**LOCAL**	**INTERNATIONAL**	**LOCAL**
Male	156	30	44.8 %	36.1 %
Female	192	53	55.2 %	63.9%
Total	**348**	**83**	**100 %**	
Age	**Frequency**		**Percentage**	
18 -24	89	7	25.6 %	8.4 %
25-34	94	46	27.0 %	55.4 %
35-44	59	20	17.0 %	24.1 %
45-54	57	9	16.3%	10.9 %
55+	49	1	14.1 %	1.2%
Total	**348**	**83**	**100 %**	
Level of Education	**Frequency**		**Percentage**	
Primary	1	2	0.3 %	2.4 %
High School	40	4	11.5 %	4.9 %
Undergraduate	128	50	36.8 %	60.2 %
Post Graduate	179	27	51.4 %	32.5 %
Total	**348**	**83**	**100%**	
Occupation	**Frequency**		**Percentage**	
Student	79	3	22.7 %	3.6 %
Housework	9	1	2.6 %	1.2 %

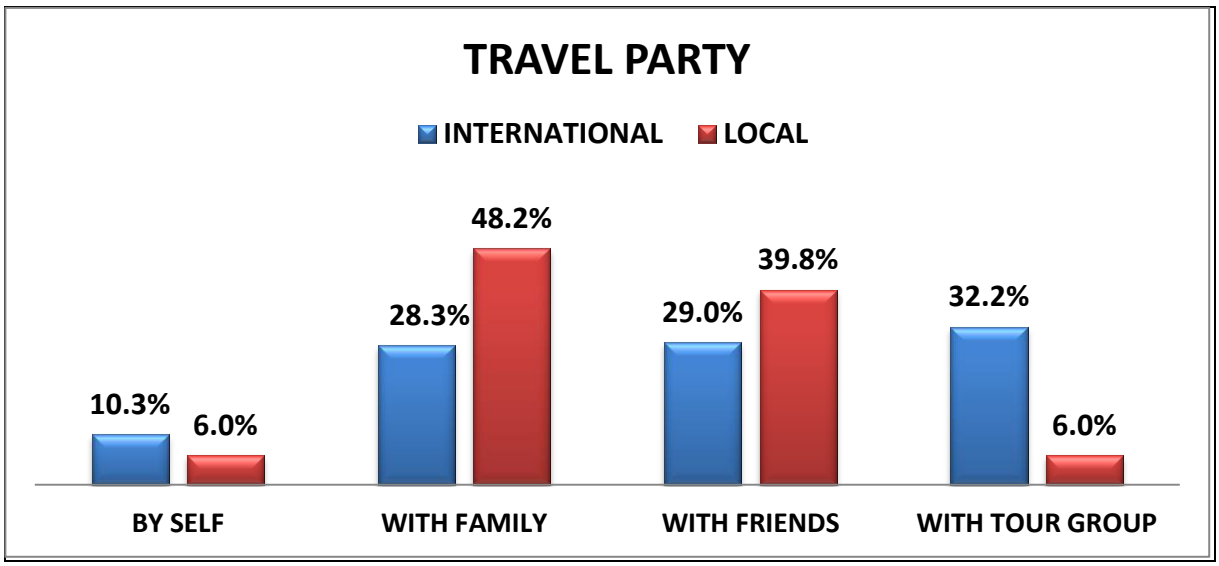
Civil Servant	64	17	18.4 %	20.5 %
Self Employed	48	7	13.8 %	8.4 %
Other (employed by a company)	148	55	42.5 %	66.3 %
Total	**348**	**83**	**100%**	
Traveling with who	**Frequency**		**Percentage**	
By Self	36	5	10.3 %	6.0 %
With Family	99	40	28.5 %	48.2 %
With Friends	101	33	29.0 %	39.8 %
With a tour group	112	5	32.2 %	6.0%
Total	**348**	**83**	**100%**	
Past traveling Experience	**Frequency**		**Percentage**	
First-time visitor	264	10	75.9 %	12.0 %
Second-time visitor	84	73	24.1 %	88.0 %
Total	**348**	**83**	**100%**	

The sample consisted of both local and international tourists that visited Swaziland between the months of August and October 2015. The tourists were intercepted at four sites, namely Mantenga Cultural Village, Ngwenya Glass, Swazi Candles, and those departing from Sikhuphe International Airport. The study had more international respondents (348) than the local respondents (83). As with the international sample (55.2%), the local sample had more female respondents (63.9%) than male respondents (36.1%). From both samples, the majority of the respondents were aged between 25-34 years, however, the international sample also had a high number of the respondents (25.6%) aged between 18-24 years. The international sample had many respondents with a post-graduate degree (51.4%) yet, the local sample had most respondents holding an undergraduate degree (60.2%). The international sample had 42.5% employed in private companies. Similarly, the local sample had most of the respondents employed in private companies (66.3%). Unlike the international sample with 22.7% of respondents being students, 3.6% of the local sample was students.

6.2.1 Travel Party

From the bar charts below, it can be determined that from the international sample, most respondents travelled with a tour group (32.2%), 28.3% travelled with family, and 29.02% travelled with friends. From the local sample, the majority of respondents (48.2%) travelled with family and 39.8% travelled with friends. Approximately, 6% either travelled by themselves or with a tour group.

Figure 6.1 Travel Party of Tourists

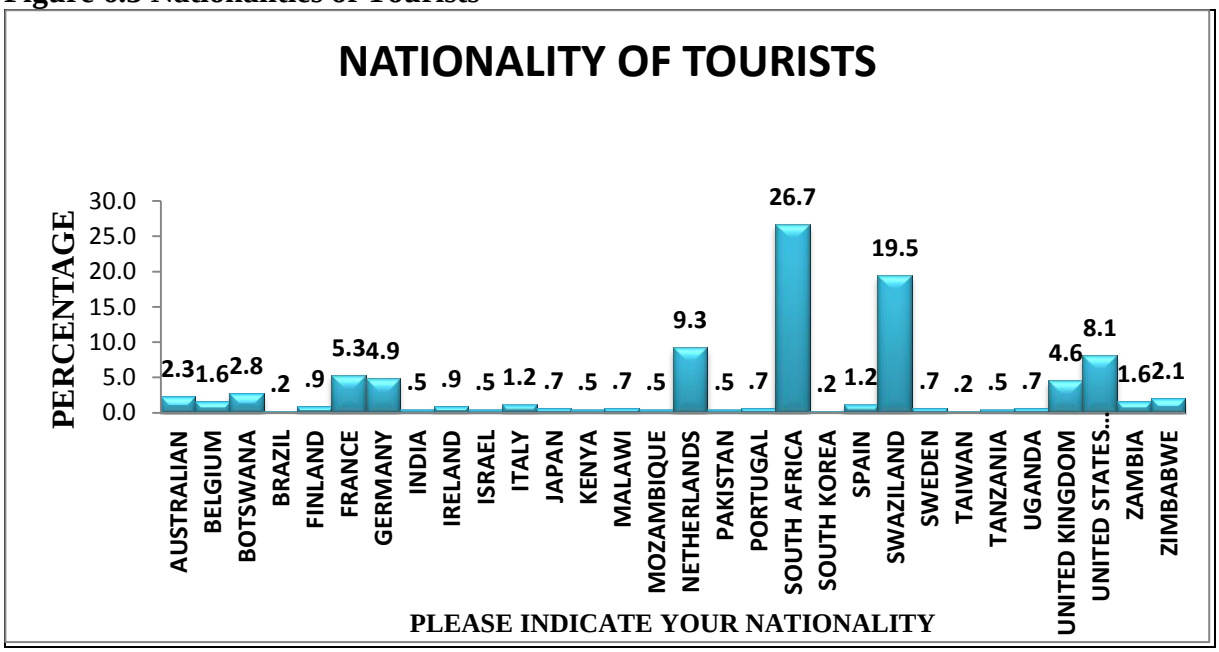


6.2.2 Past Travel Experience

From the graphs below, it is illustrated that the majority of the international tourists (75.9%) were first-time visitors to Swaziland, and local tourists (888.0%) had visited the tourist destinations in the country more than once.

Figure 6.2 Tourists' Past Travel Experience

Figure 6.3 Nationalities of Tourists



The figure above summarises the countries from which the tourists travelled. The highest numbers of tourists received were from the neighbouring country South Africa (26.7%), tourists from Netherlands (9.3%) were the highest number of tourists received from the developed nations, followed by those from the United States of America. From the African continent, the least received tourists were from Tanzania (0.5%), Kenya (0.5%), and Mozambique (0.5%). From the other regions, the least received were from Brazil (0.2%), Taiwan (0.2%), and South Korea (0.2%).

6.3 QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

6.3.1 INTERNATIONAL SAMPLE

Table 6.2 Analysis of Frequencies of the Five constructs (International sample)

			Frequency			
Variable	**Item**	**Strongly Disagree (1)**	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
Destination Image	DI1	0 (0%)	12 (3.4%)	113 (32. 5%)	145 (41.7%)	78 (22.4%)
	DI2	5 (1.4%)	29 (8.3%)	143 (41.1%)	125 (35.9%)	46(13.2%)
	DI3	5 (1.4%)	59 (17.0%)	114 (32.8%)	107 (30.7%)	63 (18.2%)
	DI4	3 (0.9%)	25 (7. 2%)	130 (37.4%)	125 (35.9%)	65 (18.7%)

	DI5	1 (0.2%)	7 (2.0%)	37 (10. 6%)	145 (41.7%)	158 (45.4%)
	DI6	3 (0.9%)	17 (4.9%)	99 (28.4%)	159 (45.7%)	70(20.1%)
	DI7	10 (2.9%)	82 (23.6%)	`131(37.6%)	94(27.0%)	31(8.9%)
	DI8	4 (1.1%)	6(1.7%)	27(7.8%)	85(24.4%)	226(64.9%)
	DI9	28(8.0%)	90(25.9%)	152(43.7%)	55(15.8%)	23(6.6%)
	DI10	1 (0.3%)	50(14.4%)	128(36.8%)	117(33.6%)	52(14.9%)
	DI11	5 (1.4%)	25(7.2%)	135(38.8%)	131(37.6%)	52(14.9%)
	DI12	4 (1.1%)	17(4.9%)	63(18.1%)	156(44.8%)	108(31.0%)
	DI13	3 (0.9%)	5(1.4%)	44(12.6%)	124(35.6%)	172(49.4%)
	DI14	6 (1.7%)	28(8.0%)	82(23.6%)	148(42.5%)	84(24.1%)
	DI15	9(2.6%)	10(2.9%)	78(22.4%)	137(39.4%)	114(32.8%)
	DI16	0(0.0%)	3(0.9%)	25(7.2%)	109(31.3%)	211(60.6%)
	DI17	4 (1.1%)	17(4.9%)	83(23.9%)	133(38.2%)	111(31.9%)
	DI18	6 (1.7%)	3(0.9%)	56 (16.1%)	147(42.2)	136(39.1%)
		Very Dissatisfied (1)	**Dissatisfied (2)**	**Neutral(3)**	**Satisfied (4)**	**Very Satisfied (5)**
Satisfaction	S1	1 (0.3%)	7 (2.0%)	32 (9.2%)	143 (41.1%)	165 (47.4%)
	S2	1 (0.3%)	7(2.0%)	26 (7.5%)	162(46.6%)	152 (43.7%)
	S3	0 (0.0%)	6 (1.7%)	34(9.8%)	157(45.1%)	151(43.4%)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
Customer Trust in Destination	CT1	10 (2.9%)	15 (4.3%)	87(25.0%)	156(44.8%)	80 (23.0%)
	CT2	10 (2.9%)	28 (8.0%)	83 (23.9%)	172(49.4%)	55(15.8%)
	CT3	5 (1.4%)	24(6.9%)	79(22.7%)	171 (49.1%)	69 (19.8%)
	CT4	11 (3.2%)	32 (9.2%)	93(26.7%)	133 (38.2%)	79 (22.7%)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
Attitude toward Destination	AD1	3 (0.9%)	15 (4.3%)	56 (16.1%)	174 (50.0%)	100 (28.7%)
	AD2	2 (0.6%)	16 (4.6%)	63 (18.1%)	175(50.3%)	92(26.4%)
	AD3	8 (2.3%)	8(2.3%)	33(9.5%)	175 (50.3%)	124 (35.6%)
Behavioural Intentions		**Strongly Disagree (1)**	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
Intention to Revisit	BI1	23(6.6%)	50(14.4%)	99(28.4%)	109(31.3%)	67(19.3%)
	BI2	12(3.4%)	29(8.3%)	44(12.6%)	131(37.6%)	132(37.9%)
	BI3	17(4.9%)	40(11.5%)	49(14.1%)	107(30.7%)	135(38.8%)
		Strongly	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly**

		Disagree (1)				Agree (5)
Intention to Recommend	BI4	4(1.1%)	4(1.1%)	37(10.6%)	123(35.3)	180(51.7%)
	BI5	6(1.7%)	7(2.0%)	29 (8.3%)	137(39.4)	169(48.6%)
	BI6	6(1.7%)	7(2.0%)	39(11.2%)	137(39.4%)	159(45.7%)
	BI7	8(2.3%)	16(4.6%)	64(18.4%)	122(35.1%)	138(39.7)

Destination Image (DI 1 to DI 18)

The majority of the respondents agreed that they felt safe in the destination (41.7%), and 35.9% agreed that Swaziland offers a good quality life. 30.7% agreed and 18.2% strongly agreed that Swaziland is a fairly clean destination. Nevertheless, 17.0% of the tourists disagreed that Swaziland is a clean destination, and highlighted that there was a lot of litter along the roads they travelled on. A lot of the respondents agreed that Swaziland has a good reputation and name (35.9%). A lot of the tourists strongly agreed that they experienced excellent hospitality (45.4%) and agreed that the quality of accommodation that destination offers to its visitors was high (45.7%). However, 23.6% of respondents showed that the infrastructure of the country was not of a good quality, mostly complaining of poor roads.

The destination prides itself on its friendly nation, and accordingly, the visitors also attested to this because 64.9% of the visitors strongly agreed that Swazis are friendly people. A lot of the respondents did not have views about the night life in Swaziland (43.7%) because most indicated they did not go out. Nonetheless, for those who attempted to experience the night life, 25.9 % indicated that the night life in Swaziland is neither vibrant nor interesting. Visitors agreed that Swaziland has good shopping places (33.6%) and varied cuisines (37.6%). More importantly, approximately more than 70% of the visitors found Swaziland to be exotic and interesting. Cultural attractions are one of the key areas that attracts tourists to visit Swaziland and evidently just about 85% of the respondents found the Swazi culture to be interesting. Furthermore, visitors showed positive perceptions towards the wildlife (42.5%), variety of vegetation (39.4%), and spectacular landscape (60.6%). Roughly more than 80% of the visitors were happy with the destination's weather.

Satisfaction (S1 to S3)

When asked about their overall satisfaction, 41.1% respondents agreed that they were satisfied and 47.4% of the respondents indicated that they were very satisfied. However, about eight of the visitors highlighted an unsatisfactory experience in Swaziland. 46.6% of the respondents agreed that considering what they had expected, they were satisfied, and, given the resources they put into their vacation, 43.4% respondents strongly agreed that they were satisfied.

Customer Trust in the Destination (CT1 to CT4)

About 44.8% respondents stated that they trusted Swaziland as a destination, and just about half of the respondents (49.4%) indicated that they could rely on the destination to meet their expectations. However, around 9.2% of the visitors showed that they did not feel fully secure, and did not trust the destination completely.

Attitude toward Destination (AD1 to AD3)

About 174 respondents agreed that Swaziland is a very good tourist destination, 50.3% agreed and 35.6% strongly agreed that Swaziland is a pleasant tourist destination. Approximately, half of the respondents (50.3%) agreed that Swaziland is a valuable destination.

Behavioural Intentions (BI1 to BI18)

31.3% of the visitors agreed that if they were to revisit southern Africa, their first choice would be Swaziland, and 37.9% of the respondents strongly agreed that they would revisit Swaziland in future. On the other hand, 11.5% of the visitors showed that there was a slim chance of them revisiting Swaziland in the future. More than half (51.7%) of the visitors strongly agreed that they would spread a positive WOM about Swaziland to individuals around them. Similarly, almost half of the participants (48.6%) strongly agreed they would encourage those around them to visit Swaziland. Additionally, more than 159 of the respondents stated that they would recommend Swaziland as a tourist destination.

Nevertheless, 4.6% respondents said that they would not recommend Swaziland as a holiday destination, and only about 1.7% stated they were not likely to encourage those around them to visit Swaziland.

6.3.2 LOCAL SAMPLE

Table 6.3 Analysis of Frequencies of the Five constructs (Local Sample)

			Frequency			
Variable	**Item**	**Strongly Disagree (1)**	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
Destination Image	DI1	2 (2.4%)	5 (6.0%)	37 (44. 6%)	24 (28.9%)	15 (18.1%)
	DI2	5 (6.0%)	11 (13.3%)	36 (43.4%)	21 (25.3%)	10(12.2%)
	DI3	8 (9.6%)	8 (9.6%)	36 (43.4%)	20 (24.1%)	11 (13.3%)
	DI4	2 (2.4%)	9 (10.8%)	33 (39.8%)	30 (36.1%)	9 (10.8%)
	DI5	0 (0.0%)	2 (2.4%)	13 (15. 7%)	28 (33.7%)	40 (48.2%)
	DI6	0 (0.0%)	4 (4.8%)	34 (41.0%)	33 (39.8%)	12(14.5%)
	DI7	1 (1.2%)	15 (18.1%)	`43(51.8%)	20(24.1%)	4(4.8%)
	DI8	2 (2.4%)	1(1.2%)	7(8.4%)	18(21.7%)	55(66.3%)
	DI9	4 (4.8%)	17(20.5%)	30(36.1%)	17(20.5%)	15(18.1%)
	DI10	5 (6.0%)	18 (21.7%)	36(43.4%)	20(24.1.6%)	4(4.8%)
	DI11	8 (9.6%)	12(14.5%)	33(39.8%)	23(27.7%)	7(8.4%)
	DI12	1 (1.2%)	13(15.7%)	21(25.3%)	28(33.7%)	20 (24.1%)
	DI13	0 (0.0%)	2 (2.4%)	6 (7.2%)	30(36.1%)	45 (54.2%)
	DI14	0 (0.0%)	5(6.0%)	19 (22.9%)	31(37.3%)	28(33.7%)
	DI15	2(2.4%)	4(4.8%)	18(21.7%)	31(37.3%)	28(33.7%)
	DI16	1(1.2%)	12(14.5%)	8(9.6%)	33(39.8%)	29(34.9%)
	DI17	6 (7.2%)	12(14.5%)	28(33.7%)	21(25.3%)	16(19.3%)
	DI18	0 (0.0%)	0(0.0%)	28 (33.7%)	36(43.4)	19(22.9%)
		Very Dissatisfied (1)	**Dissatisfied (2)**	**Neutral(3)**	**Satisfied (4)**	**Very Satisfied (5)**
Satisfaction	S1	0 (0.0%)	3 (3.6%)	13 (15.7%)	49 (59.0%)	18 (21.7%)
	S2	1 (1.2%)	1(1.2%)	14 (16.9%)	46(55.4%)	21 (25.3%)
	S3	1 (1.2%)	5 (6.0%)	15(18.1%)	26 (31.3%)	36(43.4%)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
Customer Trust in Destination	CT1	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.2%)	17 (20.5%)	22(26.5%)	22(26.5%)
	CT2	1 (1.2%)	4 (4.8%)	12 (14.5%)	43(51.8%)	23(27.7%)
	CT3	0 (0.0%)	4 (4.8%)	11(13.3%)	46(55.4%)	22 (26.5%)

	CT4	1 (1.2%)	2 (2.4%)	26(31.3%)	29 (34.9%)	25 (30.1%)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
Attitude towards Destination	AD1	1 (1.2%)	3 (3.6%)	22 (26.5%)	31 (37.3%)	26 (31.3%)
	AD2	0 (0.0%)	4 (4.8%)	27 (32.5%)	36(43.4%)	16(19.3%)
	AD3	1 (1.2%)	1 (1.2%)	16 (19.3%)	39 (47.0%)	26 (31.3%)
Behavioural Intentions		**Strongly Disagree (1)**	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
Intention to Revisit	BI1	2 (2.4%)	21(25.3%)	22(26.5%)	27(32.5%)	11(13.3%)
	BI2	0 0.0%)	6(7.2%)	18(21.7%)	37(44.6%)	22(26.5%)
	BI3	1(1.2%)	4 (4.8%)	13(15.7%)	46(55.4%)	19(22.9%)
		Strongly Disagree (1)	**Disagree (2)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Agree (4)**	**Strongly Agree (5)**
Intention to Recommend	BI4	0(0.0%)	1 (1.2%)	10(12.0%)	38(45.8%)	34 (41.0%)
	BI5	0(0.0%)	1(1.2%)	9 (10.8%)	39 (47.0%)	34 (41.0%)
	BI6	0(0.0%)	3(3.6%)	14(16.9%)	33(39.8%)	33(39.8%)
	BI7	2(2.4%)	8(9.6%)	12(14.5%)	23(27.7%)	38(45.8%)

Destination Image (DI 1 to DI 18)

Unlike the international sample respondents, the majority of the local respondents (44.6%) were neutral about the safety of the destination; nonetheless, 28.9% of the respondents agreed that they felt safe in the destination. Approximately, a quarter of the respondents (25.3%) agreed that Swaziland offers a good quality life. 24.1% agreed that Swaziland is a fairly clean destination. A majority of the respondents (36.1%) agreed that Swaziland has a good reputation and name. A lot of the tourists (48.2%) strongly agreed that Swaziland offered outstanding hospitality and agreed that it offered high quality accommodation (39.8%) to its visitors. 51.8% of respondents were neutral about the quality of the country's infrastructure.

As with the international sample, the majority of the local respondents (66.3%) strongly agreed that Swazi people are friendly. There was an equal view about the quality night life, 20.5% respondents disagreed and 20.5% agreed about the good night life available in Swaziland. The majority of the respondents were neutral regarding the quality of shopping

places and varied cuisines in Swaziland. A big fraction of the respondents (33.7%) agreed that Swaziland is an exotic and interesting destination. Furthermore, a lot of local respondents (54.2%) confirmed loving the cultural attractions of the destination. Similarly, the majority of the respondents indicated having positive perceptions towards the variety of wildlife (37.3%), the variety of vegetation (37.3%), and the spectacular landscape (39.8%). Approximately a quarter of the respondents (25.3%) agreed that Swaziland has unusual ways of life and customs. More than 70 of the local respondents agreed that the destination has favourable weather.

Satisfaction (S1 to S3)

The majority (59.0%) of the respondents said they were satisfied with their visit to Swaziland destinations. Similarly, most of them agreed (55.4%) and approximately more than a quarter strongly agreed (25.3%) that their expectations were met. Nonetheless, about six of the respondents were not satisfied.

Customer's Faith in the Destination (CT1 to CT4)

More than half of the respondents found the destination to be safe and secure, and 51.8% of the respondents agreed that they completely trusted Swaziland as a destination. Approximately 55.4% of the respondents felt that they could rely on the destination, nevertheless, 2.4% of the respondents indicated that they did not feel secure in the destination, and thus could not rely on the destination.

Attitude toward Destination (AD1 to AD3)

37.3% of the respondents agreed that Swaziland is a very good destination, and similarly 43.4% found Swaziland to be a valuable destination. More importantly, a major percentage of the respondents (47.0%) agreed that Swaziland is a pleasant destination.

Behavioural Intentions (BI1 to BI18)

A major percentage (32.5%) of the respondents highlighted that if they were to revisit any destination in future, Swaziland would be their first choice. Many respondents (44.6%) said they consider revisiting Swaziland in future and more than half of the visitors (55.4%) showed that there was a high probability they would revisit Swaziland in future. Respondents

from the local sample indicated that they would spread positive WOM about Swaziland, encourage others to visit the destination, and would recommend the destination to others.

Table 6.4 The Differences between the Destination Image of Swaziland for Local and International Visitors

Item	Local	International	Significance
Personal safety	3.54	3.83	0.011
Good quality life	3.24	3.51	0.015
Cleanliness	3.22	3.47	0.045
Good name and reputation	3.42	3.64	0.044
Hospitality	4.28	4.30	0.818
Quality accommodation	3.64	3.79	0.131
Quality infrastructure	3.13	3.16	0.826
Friendly people	4.48	4.50	0.845
Good night life	3.27	2.87	0.004
Good shopping venues	3.00	3.49	0.000
Varied cuisines	3.11	3.57	0.000
Exotic and interesting	3.64	4.00	0.005
Interesting cultural attractions	4.42	4.31	0.266
Great variety of wildlife	3.99	3.79	0.093
Great variety of vegetation	3.95	3.97	0.887
Spectacular landscape	3.93	4.52	0.000
Unusual ways of life and customs	3.35	3.95	0.000
Good weather	3.89	4.16	0.008

Significance level: $P \leq 0.05$

To examine the differences between the local and international visitors, a *t* test was performed (Quintal et al., 2014). The test was mainly used to investigate the differences in perceptions about the 18 items that were measuring Swaziland's destination image. From the table above, it can be determined that from the perceptions held about the hospitality, quality of accommodation, quality of infrastructure, the friendliness of the Swazi nation, cultural attractions, variety of wildlife and variety of vegetation, there was no difference.

On the other hand, with regard to the destination offering personal safety, international tourists felt more secure than the local tourists. Similarly, the international tourists found the destination to offer a good quality life, unlike the locals, which may be attributed to the element of the high quality of tourists' facilities in the country that the visitors are exposed to, such as the accommodation, which a majority (45.7%) indicated to be of high quality. International tourists showed a higher appreciation for the cleanliness of the country, and also

asserted that they know the destination to have a good name and reputation, which could be one the factors why Swaziland was chosen as the destination they should visit.

Predictably, local tourists were seen to have a higher appreciation for the night life in the country since they have knowledge of the entertainment sites that could be visited at night and have more time to visit the sites, while most tourists indicated they spend very few nights in Swaziland, and consequently do not have time to visit the evening entertainment areas. Moreover, international tourists demonstrated a higher appreciation for the shopping places the destination offered, as opposed to the local visitors, which may have been heightened by crafts sold in most destinations found in the country that the tourists visit. Similarly, the international sample appreciated the cuisine they got to enjoy in Swaziland, which may be because it is a different diet to that that they experience in their own countries.

Notably, international visitors had a significantly higher appreciation for the destination, and indicated that Swaziland is interesting and exotic. International tourists demonstrated significantly higher appreciation for the spectacular landscape and weather they experienced in the destination. Moreover, the international respondents indicated that the destination had unusual ways life and customs. However, it the local sample demonstrated different results because it is likely that local visitors have a deeper understanding of and familiarity with the destination.

6.4 RELIABILITY TEST

For purposes of this research, the Cronbach's Alpha, CR, and AVE were conducted to assess the reliability of the measures. Table 6.3 below illustrates the results for the tests, which will be explored in greater detail in the sections that follow.

Table 6.5 Frequency/Percentage Indicators of the Questionnaire Results

Variable	Descriptive Statistics				Cronbrach's Alpha Coefficient		CR Value	AVE Value	Highest Shared Variance	Factor Loadings
	Item	Mean Value	Standard Deviation	Item-total Correlation						
Destination Image	DB2	3.46	0.914	0.384	0.692	0.714	0.969	0.817	0.216	0.659
	DB1	3.77	0.845	0.310	0.708					0.704
	DE4	3.93	0.934	0.405	0.672					0.606
	DE3	3.48	0.937	0.513	0.659					0.689
	DE2	3.39	0.937	0.463	0.687					0.614
	DN3	3.97	0.955	0.465	0.682					0.753
	DN2	3.83	0.948	0.425	0.671					0.745
Satisfaction	S1	4.27	0.757	0.455	0.727	0.790	0.963	0.896	0.186	0.754
	S2	4.26	0.738	0.379	0.661					0.787
	S3	4.26	0.777	0.428	0.754					0.704
Customer Trust	CT1	3.85	0.903	0.540	0.860	0.879	0.973	0.764	0.249	0.747
	CT2	3.74	0.927	0.567	0.812					0.880
	CT3	3.84	0.872	0.603	0.829					0.857
	CT4	3.72	1.005	0.543	0.866					0.737
Attitude toward Destination	AD1	4.00	0.852	0.562	0.695	0.798	0.964	0.901	0.249	0.793
	AD2	3.94	0.827	0.492	0.762					0.686
	AD3	4.13	0.847	0.597	0.713					0.782
Behavioural Intentions	BI1	3.40	1.132	0.546	0.878	0.892	0.976	0. 856	0.234	0.568
	BI2	3.97	1.038	0.661	0.862					0.703
	BI3	3.88	1.129	0.619	0.866					0.661
	BI4	4.34	0.790	0.657	0.872					0.763
	BI5	4.30	0.817	0.707	0.862					0.832
	BI6	4.23	0.856	0.637	0.872					0.793
	BI7	4.05	1.008	0.621	0.874					0.691

6.4.1 Cronbach's Alpha

The Alpha was developed by Lee Cronbach in 1951 as a measure of the internal consistency of a scale. According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011), internal consistency describes the extent to which all the items in a test measure the same construct. A calculated alpha coefficient will commonly range between 0 (indicating no internal reliability) and 1 (indicating perfect internal reliability) (Bryman &Bell, 2007). It is important for researchers to aim for perfect internal reliability. A low alpha coefficient could result from a small number of questions, poor interrelatedness between items, or heterogeneous constructs (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). Since its introduction, it has been a widely used measure of scale reliability (Raykov and Grayson, 2003). Commonly, a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient that meets or exceeds 0.7 is considered adequate (Tavakol et al., 2011). In this study, the alpha coefficients ranged from 0.714 to 0.892, thus confirming the reliability of the measures used in this study.

6.4.2 Composite Reliability

CR characterises an index reflecting the impact of error upon the scale (Raykov et al., 2003). Cronbach's Alpha has been a widely used measure of reliability, but due to being lower bound, it underestimates true reliability (Peterson & Kim, 2013). Hence, recently there has been recent interest in employing CR, which is computed in conjunction with SEM (Raykov, 2000). Composite reliability is similar to coefficient α and a value higher than 0.70 is acceptable for composite reliability (Nunkoo et al., 2012). It is calculated using the following formula:

(CR): $CR_{\eta} = (\Sigma\lambda yi)^2 / [(\Sigma\lambda yi)^2 + (\Sigma\varepsilon i)]$

Composite Reliability = (square of the summation of the factor loadings)/ {(square of the summation of the factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}.

As indicated in table above, the results in this study show composite reliability indexes all above 0.9, with the highest being 0.976 of the behavioural intention construct. This validated the existence of internal consistency of items measuring each variable.

6.4.3 Average Variance Extracted

The AVE estimate is the average amount of variation that an unobserved variable is able to explain in the observed variables to which it is theoretically related (Farrell, 2010). The variance estimate should be equal to 50% or higher (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), however, values less than 0.5 will be adequate if the composite reliability is higher than 0.6 (Huang, Wang, Wu & Wang, 2013). The formula below is used to calculate AVE:

$V_{\eta} = \Sigma\lambda yi^2 / (\Sigma\lambda yi^2 + \Sigma\varepsilon i)$

AVE = {(summation of the squared of factor loadings)/{(summation of the squared of factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}

From the results in the table above, AVE estimates ranged from 0.764 to 0.901, which is above the minimum 0.5, thereby showing a good representation of the latent construct by the items (Fraering & Minor, 2006).

6.5 VALIDITY TESTS

According to Malhotra et al. (2007), validity refers to the degree to which a measurement represents characteristics that exist in the construct being investigated. The current study will explore construct validity.

6.5.1 Construct Validity

This type of validity looks at the extent to which variables in a study are completely and accurately identified prior to hypothesising any functional relationships (Shui et al., 2009). Convergent validity and discriminant validity are related to construct validity.

6.5.2 Convergent Validity

This type of validity allows the appraising of a scale to establish whether or not it will be consistent in measuring the same concept under different circumstances (Bryman & Bell, 2007), that is, gauging whether or not the scale correlates positively with other measurements of the same construct. The study employed item-total correlations to assess validity, and, as indicated in the table above, all estimates were above the cut of a minimum value of 0.3. The estimates ranged from 0.310 to 0.707, indicating that the measurement instruments are converging well with the constructs they intended to measure.

To further demonstrate convergent validity, the factor loadings were assessed. According to literature, an acceptable minimum of 0.5 is recommended, and the higher the loading, the more accurate the results of the study will be (Hair et al., 2006). Factor loadings related to each variable were above 0.5, however, some items in the destination image variable were below 0.5, and therefore had to be deleted. The destination image was sub-divided into three dimensions, namely brand, entertainment, and nature and culture, to allow further proper analysis (Chen & Tsai, 2007). From the eight items making the brand dimension , six items were deleted; from the four items making up the entertainment dimension one item was deleted and from the five items making up the nature and culture dimension, three items were deleted. As indicated in the table above, all factor loadings ranged from 0.568 to 0.880, which further confirmed the presence of convergent validity.

6.5.3 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity checks if a measure does not correlate to the other constructs from which it is supposed to differ (Malhotra et al. (2007). To assess discriminant validity, the study employed two methods, namely assessing the AVE and the Inter-construct Correlation Matrix. The highest shared variance of each construct was less than the AVE of each variable, which confirmed that constructs were discriminant (Nusair & Hua, 2010).

Moreover, when observing the inter-construct correlation coefficients for this study, the coefficients were all below 1, which confirmed the existence of discriminant validity (Bagozzi &and Yi, 2012).

Table 6.6 Correlation Matrix

Interconstruct Correlation Matrix					
	D	**S**	**CT**	**AD**	**BI**
Destination Image **D**	1				
Satisfaction **S**	.306**	1			
Customer Trust **CT**	.318**	.208**	1		
Attitude toward Destination **AD**	.400**	.371**	.499**	1	
Behavioural Intentions **BI**	.465**	.420**	.461**	.484**	1
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

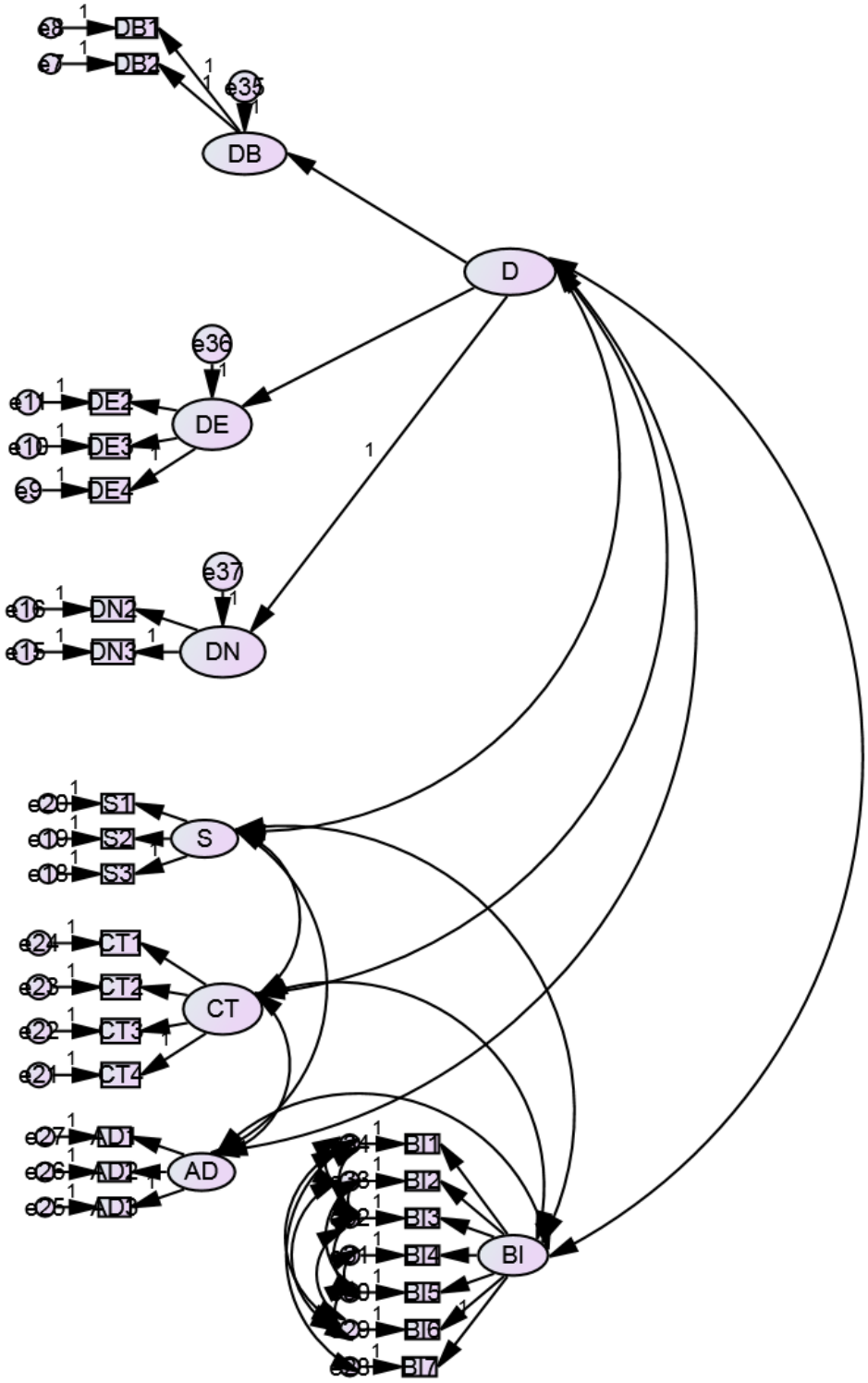
6.6 CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

6.6.1 Measurement Model

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to test scale accuracy, that is, the reliability and validity of the multiple-item construct measures, and to assess the model fit using AMOS 22. Basically, CFA is performed to determine the extent to which the hypothesised theoretical model fits the empirical data. The figure below is a diagrammatic representation of the measurement model from the first phase when using SEM for data

analysis. Latent variables are denoted by the oval, whereas observed variables are represented by the rectangular shapes. Together with the observed, are measurement errors that are represented by smaller circular shapes. The bi-directional arrows signify the relationship between latent variables.

Figure 6.4 Measurement Model (CFA Model)



6.6.2 Model Fit Results

Model fit assessment was performed to determine how well the model is represented by the sampled data. Model fit indices, which will be discussed below, are observed for this

assessment. In this research study, modification indices suggest that error terms with high values be correlated in an attempt to improve the model fit (Byrne, 2001).

Table 6.7 Model Fit Results

Model fit criteria	Chi-square (χ^2/DF)	GFI	CFI	TLI	IFI	RFI	NFI	RMSEA
Indicator value	2,23	0.910	0.941	0.929	0.942	0.879	0.900	0.054

6.6.2.1 Chi-square (χ^2)

The most popular way of evaluating model fit is the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic (Nunkoo et al., 2012). The acceptable model fit is indicated by chi-square value over degree of freedom (χ^2/df) of a value between 1 and 3. The results in the table above show a chi-square value of 2.23, which is within the recommended threshold suggesting a good fit.

6.6.2.2 Goodness-of-fit Index

The χ^2 as a goodness-of-fit measure has limitations, since it is heavily influenced by the sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1995), as a result the GFI was developed (Nunkoo et al., 2012). GFI values vary from 0-1 and values greater than 0.90 are usually interpreted as indicating an acceptable model, with values greater than 0.95 indicating a good model fit (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). This study has a GFI value of 0.910, showing an acceptable model fit.

6.6.2.3 The Norm Fit Index

NFI is an incremental fit index that reflects the proportion of which the researcher's model improves fit compared to the null model (random variables). It varies from 0 to 1, and values closer to 1 indicate better fit. Values above 0.90 are generally regarded to be a good fit (Bentler, 1992). In this study, the value is 0.900, indicating a good fit.

6.6.2.4 The Comparative Fit Index

CFI is another fit index and comes after revision of the NFI (Nunkoo et al., 2012) The CFI takes sample size into account in the comparison of the hypothesised model with the independence model. CFI varies from 0 to 1. A CFI close to 1 indicates a very good fit. By convention, CFI should be equal to or greater than 0.90 to accept the model, indicating that 90% of the covariation in the data can be reproduced by the given model (Hu &and Bentler, 1998). The results in the study show the presence of a good model fit, since the CFI value is 0.941.

6.6.2.5 The Incremental Fit Index

The IFI was developed by Bollen (1989) to address the issue of parsimony and sample sizes that are associated with the NFI. Thus, its computation is basically the same as the NFI's, except that degrees of freedom are taken into account. By convention, an IFI should be equal to or greater than 0.90 to accept the model and this study has an IFI value of 0.942. Thus the model can be accepted.

6.6.2.6 Tucker-Lewis Index

The TLI employs simple models and considers the sample size associated with the NFI. Recommended values must meet or exceed 0.9 (Hooper et al., 2008). The current study has an acceptable value of 0.929.

6.6.2.7 Relative Fit Index

Literature also states that an RFI value that exceeds 0.9 is an indication of acceptable fit. In this study, the RFI value is 0.879, signifying a marginally acceptable model fit.

6.6.2.8 Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

The RMSEA index will answer the question, how well would the model with unknown but optimally chosen parameter values fit the population covariance matrix if it were available? (Bollen (1989). Literature states that the value of RMSEA should be below 0.08, which

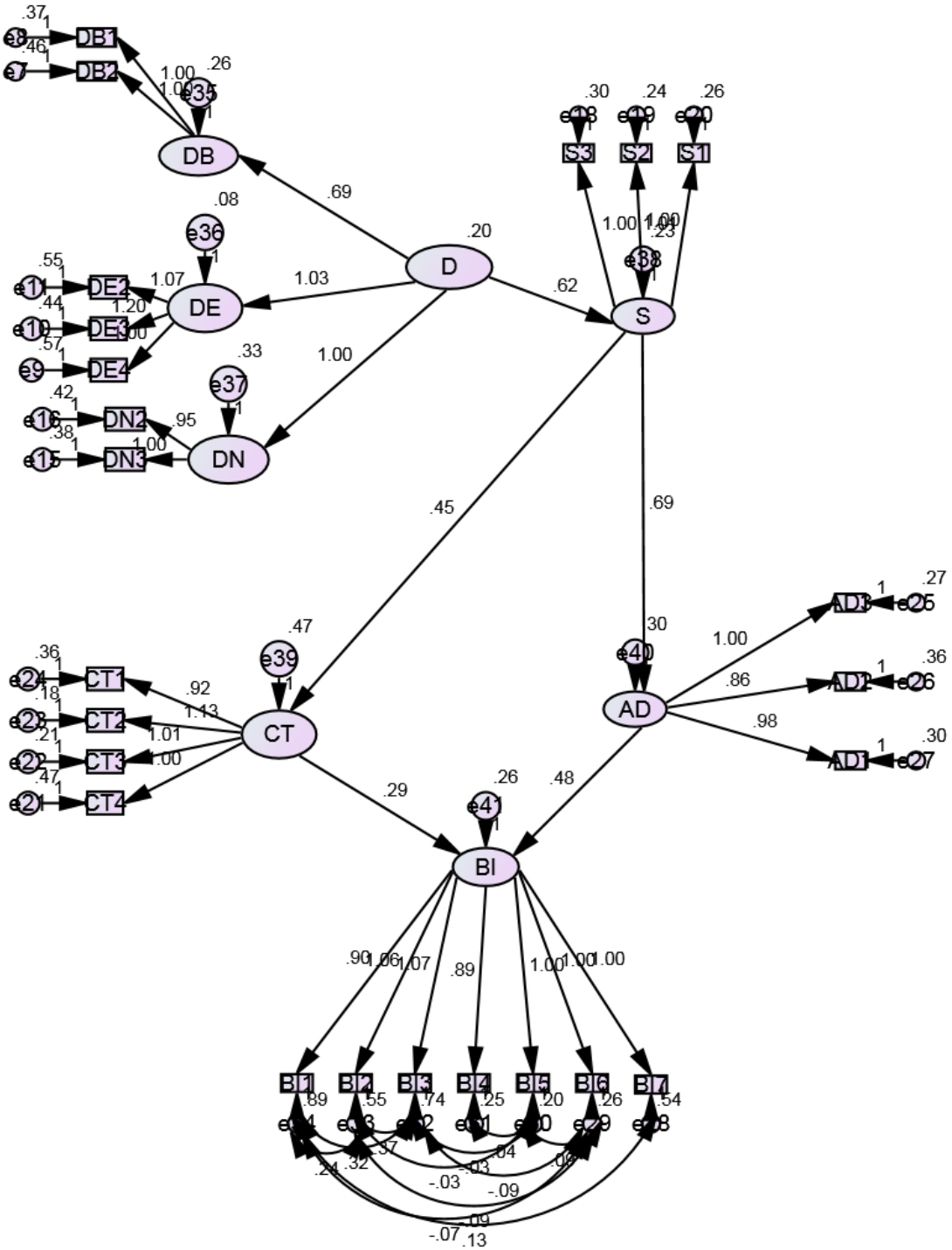
denotes a good model fit (Golob, 2003). The RMSEA value for this study is 0.054, therefore indicating a good fit.

Looking at the results of the model fit indices, it can be suggested that the proposed conceptual model converged well and could be a plausible representation of the underlying empirical data structure collected in Swaziland.

6.7 STRUCTURAL MODEL

Below is figure 6.5 illustrating the structural model. As seen in the measurement model, the circular shapes symbolise the latent variables, while measurement items are demonstrated by rectangles. Together with measurement items in circular shapes, are measurement errors, and the unidirectional arrows between latent variables are used to convey the causal relationships.

Figure 6.5 Path Model



6.7.1 Hypothesis Testing Results (Path Modelling)

The second phase of structural equation modelling was performed to evaluate the relationships between the five latent variables, therefore testing the hypotheses in the study. Below are the results.

Table 6.8 Results of the Path Model Analysis

Proposed relationship hypothesis	Hypothesis	Path Coefficient	P Value	Supported/ Rejected
Destination Image **(D)** ⟶ Satisfaction **(S)**	H_1	0.62^c	0.01	Supported and significant
Satisfaction **(S)** ⟶ Attitude towards Destination **(AD)**	H_2	0.69^c	0.01	Supported and significant
Attitude toward Destination **(AD)** ⟶ Behavioural Intentions **(BI)**	H_3	0.48^c	0.01	Supported and significant
Satisfaction **(S)** ⟶ Customer Trust **(CT)**	H_4	0.45^c	0.01	Supported and significant
Customer Trust **(CT)** ⟶ Behavioural Intentions **(BI)**	H_5	0.29^c	0.01	Supported and significant

Path analysis involves the estimation of presumed causal relations among observed variables. The table above demonstrates the proposed hypothesis, path coefficients, and the rejected/supported hypothesis. According to Chinomona, Lin, Wang, and Cheng (2010) $p<0.05$, $p<0.01$ and $p<0.001$ are indicators of relationship significance between the variables, and positive path coefficients indicate favourable strong relationships among latent variables. Path coefficients in the table above denote positive relationships between the variables, and the P value indicates a 0.01 level of confidence, which denotes support and significance of the hypotheses. Below is the discussion of the hypotheses test results

- **The Results of the Relationship between Destination Image and Satisfaction**

The hypothesis for this relationship was:

H1: Destination image has significant positive influence on satisfaction

The path coefficient for H1 was 0.62[c], which suggests that there is a positive and strong relationship between destination image and satisfaction. Furthermore, the P value was 0.01, demonstrating that the hypothesis is supported and significant.

- **The Results of the Relationship between Satisfaction and Attitude towards Destination**

The hypothesis for this relationship was:

H2: Satisfaction has significant positive influence on attitude toward destination.

The path coefficient for H2 was 0.69[c], which suggests that there is a positive and strong relationship between satisfaction and attitude toward destination. Also, the P value was 0.01, demonstrating that the hypothesis is supported and significant.

- **The Results of the Relationship between Attitude towards Destination and Behavioural Intentions**

The hypothesis for this relationship was:

H3: Attitude toward destination has significant positive influence on behavioural intention

The path coefficient for H3 was 0.48[c], which suggests that attitude towards destination positively influences behavioural intentions. In addition, the P value was 0.01, demonstrating that the hypothesis is supported and significant.

- **The Results of the Relationship between Satisfaction and Tourists' trust in the Destination**

The hypothesis for this relationship was:

H4: Satisfaction has significant positive influence on trust in destination.

The path coefficient for H4 was 0.45[c], which demonstrates that satisfaction has a positive effect on customer faith in the destination. Also, the P value was 0.01, demonstrating that the hypothesis is supported and significant.

- **The Results of the Relationship between Customers' Faith and Behavioural Intentions**

The hypothesis for this relationship was:

H5: Trust in the destination has significant positive influence on behavioural intention

The path coefficient for H5 was 0.29^{c}, which revealed that the customers' trust in the destination positively influences the behavioural intentions of visitors. In addition, the P value was 0.01, demonstrating that the hypothesis is supported and significant.

6.8 SUMMARY

Chapter 6 provided a detailed presentation of the study's results. The chapter covered several sections that looked at the descriptive statistics for the study, the reliability, and the validity of measures used in the study. It also discussed the study's confirmatory factor analysis results, which deliberated on the model fit indices employed in the study, and lastly it discussed the path modelling that demonstrated the hypothesis test and the relationships between the variables.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

7.1. INTRODUCTION

A discussion of the empirical results is presented in this chapter. The results are interpreted and related back to literature and theory. The empirical results are used to explain whether or not the destination image has influenced tourist behaviour. Furthermore, the results are used to demonstrate whether or not the EDP helps to explain satisfaction and whether or not the TRA best explains whether or not attitude predicts behavioural intentions.

7.2. DESTINATION IMAGE AND SATISFACTION

The research model theorised that destination image has a significant positive influence on satisfaction. Therefore, the study questioned the extent to which a perceived destination image influences satisfaction of both local and international tourists to Swaziland. According to Prayag (2009), a favourable destination image results in high levels of satisfaction and an unfavourable image leads to dissatisfaction.

The empirical results of this study supported this hypothesis (H1). It was found that destination image has a significant positive influence on satisfaction. This finding is consistent with the Bigne et al.'s (2001) conclusion that there is a direct and positive relationship between destination image and satisfaction. This is not surprising since other scholars such as Kozak (2001) and Chi and Qu (2008) have demonstrated the same relationship effect. Thus, it can be suggested that an improvement in the overall image of a destination held by a tourist increases their predisposition to make a positive assessment of their stay. Hence, it is valuable for destination markets in Swaziland to make meaningful investments towards improving safety, quality of life, shopping venues, cuisines, exoticness of destination, vegetation, and wildlife in Swaziland, since it is evident in this study that these underlying factors contribute significantly to satisfaction levels.

7.3. SATISFACTION AND ATTITUDE TOWARD DESTINATION

The research model posited that satisfaction has a significant positive influence on attitude toward destination. Thus, the study questioned to what extent satisfaction influences local and international tourists' attitude toward Swaziland as a destination.

The study's empirical results supported this hypothesis (H2). It was found that satisfaction has a significant positive influence on attitude toward destination. This is consistent with Huang and Hsu's (2009) conclusion that tourists who are satisfied with a destination will hold positive attitudes towards the destination. Additionally, what can also be drawn from this finding is that an increase in satisfaction results in a more favourable attitude towards the destination. Therefore, it is important for destination marketers to ensure that tourists are satisfied at all times, as this helps to develop a favourable attitude towards a destination. According Schiffmam and Kanuk (2010), all consumer behaviour is driven by attitude, that is, consistency of purchases, evaluations, intentions, and recommendations to others are associated to attitude. Hence, to influence tourist behaviour in a positive direction, it is important for destination marketers to improve tourists' attitudes, and according to the findings of this study, this can be achieved through satisfaction.

7.4. ATTITUDE TOWARDS DESTINATION AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS

The research model postulated that attitude towards satisfaction has a significant positive influence on behavioural intentions. Thus, the study questioned to what extent attitude towards a destination influences behavioural intentions of both local and international tourists in Swaziland.

The study's empirical results supported this hypothesis (H3). It was established that attitude toward destination has a significant positive influence behavioural intentions. The findings of this study are consistent with the TRA, which holds that one of the factors that determine intention is attitude (Spears et al., 2004). Similarly, in their investigation Kassem and Lee (2004) found that attitudes best predicted behavioural intention, and due to the consistency of attitude, consumers' behaviour will depend on the attitude they hold (Solomon. 2009). As a result, it is important to note that to increase favourable behavioural intentions in tourists, it is essential that tourists' attitudes are improved. The most important behavioural intentions

required from tourists are the intention to revisit and to recommend the destination. This study has established that there is a significant and positive causal relationship between destination image and behavioural intentions; however, the relationship is mediated by satisfaction and attitude towards destination.

7.5. SATISFACTION AND TRUST IN DESTINATION

The research model theorised that satisfaction has a significant positive influence on trust in the destination. Thus, the study questioned to what extent satisfaction influences trust in the destination in both local and international tourists visiting Swaziland.

The study's empirical results supported this hypothesis (H4). It was found that satisfaction has a significant positive influence on trust in destination. The conclusions are consistent with Loureiro and González (2008) and Su and Fan's (2011) findings, where it was established that tourists' satisfaction influences tourists' trust. According to Moliner et al., (2007), the more satisfied a customer is, the more trust generated in the consumer, which is important in the development of a long-lasting relationship. Thus, it can be determined that for destination markets to establish a destination that is perceived to be credible, it is necessary that tourists are satisfied with the performance of the destination, that it builds trust. Similarly, Kim et al. (2011) proposed that if service is of a high quality and consistent, the service is likely to be perceived reliable and trustworthy. Moreover, according to Morgan and Hunt (1994), trust is essential in building long-term relationships with customers.

7.6. TRUST IN DESTINATION AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS

The research model hypothesised that trust in a destination has a significant positive influence on behavioural intentions. Thus, the study questioned to what extent trust in a destination influences behavioural intentions of both local and international tourists in Swaziland.

The study's empirical results supported this hypothesis (H5). It was established that trust in a destination has a significant positive influence behavioural intentions. The findings of this study are consistent with Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema (2001) and Ranaweera and Prahbu (2003) who are affirmed that trust has a direct positive influence on loyalty (Singh &

Sirdeshmukh, 2000). Moreover, Kim et al. (2009) suggest that trust confirms a customer's perception about the service provider; hence, the customer is likely to show favourable behaviour through WOM references, and the intention to revisit. This means that destination marketers are required to employ the appropriate techniques to develop tourists' faith in the destination, which will ultimately influence tourists' behavioural intentions.

7.7. CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the study's empirical results with reference to literature. From the discussion above, it can be determined that destination image has a direct positive influence on satisfaction, therefore destination markets need to work towards improving the overall image of the destination, because of its influence on satisfaction. Satisfaction is an important factor because it was found to positively influence both attitude towards destination and trust in a destination. As a result, a high level of satisfaction results in tourists having a favourable attitude toward the destination and they are more likely to trust the destination. Also, attitude and trust were found to have a positive effect on tourist behavioural intentions, hence, to increase the probability of a revisit intention and the intention to recommend, destination marketers are required to cultivate a favourable attitude and credibility of destination.

The next chapter concludes the study by discussing the conclusion, contributions to knowledge and practice, limitations, and recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS, CONTRIBUTION, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

8.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter will deal with the conclusion of the study. Futhermore, it will discuss contributions of the study for practitioners and to the existing body of knowledge. Suggestions for furture research are discussed at the end of the chapter.

8.2. CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

From the results of the study, it can be established that most visitors that travel into Swaziland are females. From both the national and international sample, most of the visitors are aged between 25-34 years. However, the international respondents also have a high number of tourists aged between 18-24 years, and the local sample has a high number of visitors aged between 35-44 years. From both samples, the majority of tourists have a minimum university undergraduate degree, while the international respondents mostly hold post-graduate qualifications. Accordingly, most visitors are employed by private companies. Moreover, most of the international tourists that visited Swaziland were students, which may be the reason why the majority of them were aged between 18-24 years.

From both sample groups, most tourists were travelling either accompanied by family or friends, but most international visitors travelled with tour groups. The majority of international visitors were first-time visitors to Swaziland and local visitors had visited destinations around the country more than once. During the months of August to October, most visitors to Swaziland were from South Africa, Netherlands, United States of America, United Kingdom, Germany, France, and Swaziland, and their visits coincided with some of the cultural events in the country during the period when the country receives a lot of visitors.

When assessing the responses to questions about the destination image of Swaziland, both samples demonstrated to hold a generally positive perception of Swaziland as a destination. However, about 13.3% of the local visitors indicated that Swaziland does not necessarily

offer a good quality experience. Such views are likely to be heightened by the locals who are more knowledgeable of the challenges that the country faces. Additionally, although generally found to be a clean destination, roughly 17.0% of international respondents, and about 18% of locals also disagreed about the cleanliness of the destination and complained of a lot of litter. Also, from the local and international samples, a sizeable fraction held negative views about the quality of infrastructure and the night life that the destination offers.

When investigating the difference in perceptions about the 18 items measuring the destination image, it can be concluded that there were no differences between the local and international samples on views regarding hospitality, quality of accommodation, quality of infrastructure, friendliness of people, cultural attractions, wildlife and vegetation. However, international tourists held significantly higher perceptions than the local sample on safety, quality of life, cleanliness, good name and reputation, shopping places, cuisines, landscape, and weather. Conversely, the local respondents demonstrated a significantly higher appreciation for night life offered by the destination.

In general, the tourists were very satisfied with Swaziland as a tourist destination; however, some of the visitors reported an unsatisfactory experience. About half of the tourists felt secure during their visit in Swaziland, although some indicated that they did not feel safe in Swaziland. In the main, a lot of the tourists had a favourable attitude toward Swaziland as a destination and thus, most tourists agreed they had intentions to visit Swaziland in the future and would recommend the destination to those around them. Nevertheless, from both the local and international samples, some visitors stated that if they were to revisit a southern African destination in future, Swaziland would not be their first choice.

Mainly, the focus of the study was to investigate the influence of perceptions held by tourists about Swaziland as a tourist destination on the tourists' behavioural intentions. The study investigated what the influence of destination image was on the intention to revisit and to recommend the destination. This relationship was mediated by satisfaction, which was also mediated by attitude toward the destination and the tourists' trust in the destination. To test the relationship between the variables, five hypotheses were tested. From the table below, it was concluded that all the relationships between the five variables were significant and supported. It can be determined that there is a positive and significant relationship between destination image and satisfaction. Also, it is demonstrated that satisfaction positively

influences tourists' trust in the destination, and there is a favourable relationship between satisfaction and attitude toward the destination. In addition, attitude toward destination has a positive effect on behavioural intentions, and trust in the destination favourably influences behavioural intentions.

Additionally, based on the path coefficients in the table below, it can be determined that there is strong relationship (0.62) between the destination image and satisfaction. Similarly, satisfaction was found have more influence (0.69) on the attitude toward the destination than trust in the destination (0.45). Likewise, there was stronger relationship (0.48) between attitude toward destination and behavioural intentions than the relationship between trust in the destination and behavioural intentions.

8.3. THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The beneficiaries of the current study will include tourism marketing practitioners, especially destination marketing organisations and other relevant stakeholders in the tourism industry, particularly in the Kingdom of Swaziland. Moreover, the study aimed to contribute to the body of knowledge in the tourism marketing field, especially in the area of place marketing.

8.3.1. CONTRIBUTION TO PRACTICE

From both sample groups, most tourists were aged between 25-34 years. The implication is that most visitors are young adults. This finding is important to practitioners since it will assist them as they try to develop packages that will fit this age group. Moreover, another important age group that should be taken into consideration is the 18-24 year old group from the international sample. The understanding is that international visitors include more young people who are more likely to be tertiary students. However, another age group to be considered is 35-44 year old group from the local sample. These are more likely to be adults. These findings mean that as practitioners package the product, they should take into account segmentation according to age. Furthermore, this also affects the communication and marketing strategies targeted to each age group. Additionally, an important result was that most visitors travel in groups (with friends, family members, or tour groups) rather than on

their own, and thus, it is important to package a product that is more inclusive of all age groups and that they can enjoy at the same time.

Interestingly, it was found that international travellers included more first-time visitors and local travellers included more repeat visitors. According to McKercher, Shoval, Ng, and Birenboim (2012), recognising such groups is fundamental because these groups differ in terms of needs, behaviours, and responses to different stimuli. Rosenbaum and Spears (2005) concluded that first-time visitors are active consumers who are interested in discovering experiences, while repeaters are more interested in passive consumption.

First-time visitors are more curious and thus seek uniqueness and new experiences. Consequently, international tourists are more likely to travel widely throughout the destination (McKercher, et al., 2012). This is important to practitioners because international tourists are destination unaware, and therefore the implication is that practitioners need to create packages that will enable this segment to explore the key attractions in the destination in a short time. On the other hand, repeat visitors who are mostly local visitors are destination-familiar visitors who seek out relaxing activities and want to spend more time with their families (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001). Thus, packages that will enable them to spend more time with their families will be more attractive to them.

Tourism marketing practitioners are mainly concerned about the loyalty of tourists, mainly their intention to revisit, or their intention to recommend the destination to others. This study investigated the literature and established how tourists' perceptions of the destination image influenced their post-purchase behaviour. Thus, the investigation focused on examining some of the key factors that influence tourists' loyalty in the tourism context. The importance of the relationship between destination image and satisfaction has been highlighted as has the casual relationship between satisfaction and loyalty. Nonetheless, the current study proposes to mediate the latter relationship using two variables: attitude toward destination and customer's trust in the destination.

The structural relationships proposed in the study are significant, and these findings are consistent with Chen et al. (2007) who conclude that the destination image influences the decision-making process of tourists and conditions the behaviour of tourists in general. Consequently, it is vital for practitioners to develop effective strategies that will cultivate a

positive destination image, and which will facilitate loyal tourists' revisiting or recommending behaviour (Bigne et al., 2001).

The relationship between destination image and satisfaction was found to be significant. The confirmatory analysis revealed that the destination image variable consisted of seven underlying factors; these are safety, quality of life, shopping venues, varied cuisines, exoticness, vegetation, and wildlife. This is important because it could help destination marketers better understand the factors comprised in the destination image, all of which are key contributors to tourist satisfaction. Therefore, it is important for practitioners to consider these items in developing a positive image, and hence increasing tourist satisfaction.

According to literature, if visitors are satisfied with their travel experiences, they are more willing to revisit a destination and spread positive WOM (Chi et al., 2008). However, scholars have proved that this relationship is mediated. The results in this study indicate that attitude toward destination and trust in destination has a positive effect on loyalty, which is shown by behavioural intentions. Nonetheless, practitioners should develop effective ways of changing and improving attitudes of tourists towards the destination since attitude was found to be a more influential variable on behavioural intentions than trust (Aleassa et al., 2011).

8.3.2. CONTRIBUTION TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE

Academically, the current study contributes to literature regarding relationships between the five varaibles, namely destination image, satsifaction, attitude toward destination, faith in destination, and behavioural intentions. The current study was underpinned by two theories, namely the EDP and the TRA. The results in the study proved that EDP best explains staisfaction. Generally, the majority of participants in the study indicated that their expections were met, and consequently, most of them were satisfied. Moreover, the satisfaction of tourists had an effect on their post-purchase intentions, therefore, the relationship between satisfaction and the two other variables - attitude toward destination and faith in destination- were significant. Additionally, the TRA was employed to explain that attitude is the best predictor of behavioural intentions. Compared to trust in the destination, the results in the study further confirmed that because the relationship between attitude toward destination and behavioural intentions was found to be the strongest.

Also, results from the literature review conducted in this study found that minimum empirical academic research has been undertaken to understand the role of trust in influencing loyalty, especially in a tourism context. The findings in the study concluded that there is a significant relationship between trust and loyalty, denoted by behavioural intentions in this study, hence, suggesting that even in building long-lasting relationships with tourists, trust is a key factor that needs to be developed. However, trust is a multifacted construct and it is affected by different factors, and scholars may need to further investigate which dimensions of trust are more robust in influencing loyal behaviour in a tourism context.

8.4. LIMITATIONS AND SUGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The current study did not segment the international market per country. Future research may consider focusing on samples from each international market targeted by the STA in an attempt to better understand the perceptions of each segment.

Participants were intercepted as they arrived in the different sites chosen for study. Future research may consider intercepting travellers before visiting the destination and again after their visit. This will provide an opportunity to compare perceptions held before travelling and after travelling therefore, help destination marketers identify areas of improvement.

Also, the current did not consider segmenting the sample into first time or repeat visitors in depth. Future studies may consider focusing in exploring and comparing the perceptions of each sample.

During the data collection period which included weekdays and weekends, international tourists were found to be more than the local sample. Based on the season, locals were mostly able to visit sites selected for the study mostly on weekends consequently, the international sample was generally a majority of the study than the local sample. Future research may consider focusing solely on the local sample, thus improve the sample size and obtain a better understanding of the variables explored in study.

8.5. SUMMARY

This study developed and tested a conceptual model that mainly focused on investigating the influence of destination image on tourist future behavioural intentions, where the relationship was mediated by satisfaction, attitude and trust. The study confirmed that EDP best explains staisfaction and through the TRA it was demonstrated that attitude is a strong predictor of behavioural intentions. The study has confirmed that destination image has a positive indirect influence on future behavioural intentions, where the mediating causal relationship between satisfaction and attitude was found to have a stronger effect on behavioural intentions than the mediating causal relationship between relationship between satisfaction and trust. The results have practical implications for destination marketers that are aiming to increase and retain their tourist target markets.

REFERENCES

Abubakar, B. and Mavondo, F. (2014). Tourism destinations: antecedents to customer satisfaction and positive word-of-mouth. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management, 23*(8):833-864.

Aguilo, E., Alegre, J. and Sard, M. (2005). The persistence of the sun and sand tourism model. *Tourism Management, 26*(2):219-231.

Ajzen, I. (1985). *From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior*. Berlin: Springer. pp.11-39.

Ajzen, I. and Fishbein, M. (2000). Attitudes and the attitude-behavior relation: Reasoned and automatic processes. *European Review of Social Psychology,11*(1):1-33.

Ajzen, I. (2001). Nature and operation of attitudes. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*(1):27-58.

Ajzen, I. (2012). Attitudes and persuasion. *The Oxford Handbook of Personality and Social Psychology*:367-393

Akhlaghi, E., Amini, S., and Akhlaghi, H. (2012). Evaluating educational service quality in technical and vocational colleges using SERVQUAL model. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 46*:5285-5289.

Akhoondnejad, A. (2016). Tourist loyalty to a local cultural event: The case of Turkmen handicrafts festival. *Tourism Management, 52*:468-477.

Alan, A. K. and Kabadayı, E. T. (2014). Quality Antecedents of Brand Trust and Behavioral Intention. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences,150*: 619-627.

Albarracin, D., Johnson, B.T., Fishbein, M., and Muellerleile, P.A. (2001). Theories of reasoned action and planned behavior as models of condom use: a meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *127*(1):142.

Aleassa, H., Pearson, J.M., and McClurg, S. (2011). Investigating software piracy in Jordan: An extension of the theory of reasoned action. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *98*(4):663-676.

Alegre, J. and Juaneda, C. (2006). Destination loyalty: Consumers' economic behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *33*(3):684-706.

Allameh, S.M., Khazaei Pool, J., Jaberi, A., Salehzadeh, R., and Asadi, H. (2015). Factors influencing sport tourists' revisit intentions: The role and effect of destination image, perceived quality, perceived value and satisfaction. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, *27*(2):191-207.

Al-Mahadin, S. and Burns, P. (2007) Visitors, Visions and Veils: The Portrayal of the Arab World in Tourism Advertising. In R. Daher (ed.) *Tourism in the Middle East: Continuity, Change and Transformation.* Clevedon: Channel View Publications. pp.137-160.

Alsajjan, B. and Dennis, C. (2006). The impact of trust on acceptance of online banking.

Anastasopoulos, P.G. (1992). Tourism and attitude change: Greek tourists visiting Turkey. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *19*(4):629-642.

Andaleeb, S.S. (1992). The trust concept: Research issues for channels of distribution. *Research in Marketing*, *11*(1):1-34.

Anderson, E.W. (2003). The formation of market-level expectations and its covariates. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *30*(1):115-124.

Anderson, J.C. and Gerbing, D.W. (1984). The effect of sampling error on convergence, improper solutions, and goodness-of-fit indices for maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, *49*(2):155-173.

Anholt, S. (2007). Brand Africa: what is competitive identity? *African Analyst*, *2*(2):72-81.

Artuger, S., Cetinsoz, B.C., and Kilic, I. (2013). The Effect of Destination Image on Destination Loyalty: An Application In Alanya. *European Journal of Business and Management*:125-136.

Assaker, G. and Hallak, R. (2013). Moderating effects of tourists' novelty-seeking tendencies on destination image, visitor satisfaction, and short-and long-term revisit intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*. p.0047287513478497.

Assaker, G., Vinzi, V.E., and O'Connor, P. (2011). Examining the effect of novelty seeking, satisfaction, and destination image on tourists' return pattern: A two factor, non-linear latent growth model. *Tourism Management*,*32*(4):890-901.

Awaritefe, O.D. (2004). Destination image differences between prospective and actual tourists in Nigeria. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *10*(3):264-281.

Azzopardi, E. and Nash, R. (2013). A critical evaluation of importance–performance analysis. *Tourism Management*, *35*:222-233.

Back, K.J. and Parks, S.C. (2003). A brand loyalty model involving cognitive, affective, and conative brand loyalty and customer satisfaction. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *27*(4):419-435.

Backman, S.J. and Crompton, J.L. (1991). The usefulness of selected variables for predicting activity loyalty. *Leisure Sciences*, *13*(3):205-220.

Bagozzi, R.P., Baumgartner, H., and Yi, Y. (1989). An investigation into the role of intentions as mediators of the attitude-behavior relationship. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *10*(1):35-62.

Bagozzi, R.P. and Yi, Y. (2012). Specification, evaluation, and interpretation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*,*40*(1):8-34.

Bajs, I.P. (2013). Selecting Target Tourists Groups For The Croatian Tourist Destination Dubrovnik. *EMAC Regional Conference" Marketing Theory Challenges in Emerging Societies, 4*.

Baker, D.A. and Crompton, J.L. (2000). Quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions. *Annals of Tourism Research, 27*(3):785-804.

Balakrishnan, M.S. (2008). Dubai – a star in the east. *Journal of Place Management and Development, 1*(1):62-91.

Baloglu, S. and Love, C. (2005). Association meeting planners' perceptions and intentions for five major US convention cities: the structured and unstructured images. *Tourism Management, 26*(5):743-752.

Baloglu, S. and Mangaloglu, M. (2001). Tourism destination images of Turkey, Egypt, Greece, and Italy as perceived by US-based tour operators and travel agents. *Tourism Management, 22*(1):1-9.

Baloglu, S. and McCleary, K.W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 26*(4):868-897.

Bandyopadhyay, S. and Martell, M. (2007). Does attitudinal loyalty influence behavioral loyalty? A theoretical and empirical study. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 14*(1):35-44.

Bang, H.K., Ellinger, A.E., Hadjimarcou, J., and Traichal, P.A. (2000). Consumer concern, knowledge, belief, and attitude toward renewable energy: An application of the reasoned action theory. *Psychology and Marketing, 17*(6):449-468.

Barney, J.B. and Hansen, M.H. (1994). Trustworthiness as a source of competitive advantage. *Strategic Management Journal, 15*:175-190.

Battour, M.M., Battor, M.M., and Ismail, M. (2012). The mediating role of tourist satisfaction: A study of Muslim tourists in Malaysia. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *29*(3):279-297.

Bedi, M. (2010). An integrated framework for service quality, customer satisfaction and behavioral responses in Indian banking industry: A comparison of public and private sector banks. *Journal of Services Research*, *10*(1):157.

Bentler, P.M. (1992). On the fit of models to covariances and methodology to the Bulletin. *Psychological bulletin*, *112*(3):400.

Berrittella, M., Bigano, A., Roson, R., and Tol, R.S. (200)6. A general equilibrium analysis of climate change impacts on tourism. *Tourism Management*, *27*(5):913-924.

Beerli, A. and Martin, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(3):657-681.

Berrittella, M., Bigano, A., Roson, R., and Tol, R.S. (2006). A general equilibrium analysis of climate change impacts on tourism. *Tourism Management*, *27*(5):913-924.

Bhattacherjee, A. (2012). *Social Science Research: Principles, Methods, and Practices*. Accessed on 30 June 2015 at http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/oa_textbooks/3/

Boyle, T.A. and Strong, S. (2004). Key Skills Organisations expect of ERP graduates. *ASAC*, Canada, 2006

Big Game Parks. (2015). *The Kingdom of Swaziland's Big Game Parks.* Accessed 15 March 2015 at http://www.biggameparks.org/

Bigné, J.E. and Andreu, L., 2004. Emotions in segmentation: An empirical study. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(3):682-696.

Bigné, J.E., Andreu, L. and Gnoth, J., 2005. The theme park experience: An analysis of pleasure, arousal and satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, *26*(6):833-844.

Bigné, J.E., Sanchez, M.I. and Sanchez, J. (2001). Tourism image, evaluation variables and after purchase behaviour: inter-relationship. *Tourism Management*, 22(6):607-616.

Biscaia, R., Correia, A., Rosado, A.F., Ross, S.D., and Maroco, J. (2013). Sport sponsorship: the relationship between team loyalty, sponsorship awareness, attitude toward the sponsor, and purchase intentions. *Journal of Sport Management*, *27*(4):288-302.

Blau, P.M. (1968). Social exchange. *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, 7*:452-457.

Blomqvist, K. (1997). The many faces of trust. *Scandinavian Journal of Management, 13*(3):271-286.

Bodet, G. (2008). Customer satisfaction and loyalty in service: Two concepts, four constructs, several relationships. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *15*(3):156-162.

Bollen, K.A. (1989). A new incremental fit index for general structural equation models. *Sociological Methods and Research*, *17*(3):303-316.

Bochner, S. (Ed). (2013). *Cultures in contact: Studies in cross-cultural interaction, (Vol. 1).* Oxford: Pergamon.

Bowen, D. and Clarke, J. (2002). Reflections on tourist satisfaction research: Past, present and future. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *8*(4):297-308.

Bowen, J.T. and Chen, S.L. (2001). The relationship between customer loyalty and customer satisfaction. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *13*(5):213-217.

Bradach, J.L. and Eccles, R.G. (1989). Price, authority, and trust: From ideal types to plural forms. *Annual Review of Sociology*:97-118.

Breckler, S.J. (1984). Empirical validation of affect, behavior, and cognition as distinct components of attitude. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *47*(6):1191

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2007). *Business Research Methods. 2nd ed.* NY: Oxford University Press Inc.

Burton, D.B., Ryan, J.J., Axelrod, B.N., Schellenberger, T., and Richards, H.M. (2003). A confirmatory factor analysis of the WMS-III in a clinical sample with cross validation in the standardization sample. *Archives of Clinical Neuropsychology*, *18*(6):629-641.

Byrne, B.M. (2001). Structural equation modeling with AMOS, EQS, and LISREL: Comparative approaches to testing for the factorial validity of a measuring instrument. *International Journal of Testing*, *1*(1):55-86.

Cable News Network (2014). *Ebola fears crippling Africa's safari industry*. Accessed 20 September 2015 at http://edition.cnn.com/2014/10/17/travel/africa-safaris-ebola/

Cai, L.A., WU, B.T., and Bai, B. (2003). Destination image and loyalty. *Tourism Review International*, *7*(3-4):153-162.

Caro, L.M. and García, J.A.M. (2007). Cognitive–affective model of consumer satisfaction. An exploratory study within the framework of a sporting event. *Journal of Business Research*, *60*(2):108-114.

Caruana, A., Money, A. H. and Berthon, P. R. (2000). Service quality and satisfaction-the moderating role of value. *European Journal of Marketing*, *34*(11/12):1338-1353.

Central Bank of Swaziland. (2014). *Annual Report 2012/2013.* Accessed 23 March 2015 at http://www.centralbank.org.sz/publications/annual/2012-13.pdf

Chaudhuri, A. and Holbrook, M.B. (2001). The chain of effects from brand trust and brand affect to brand performance: the role of brand loyalty. *Journal of Marketing,* 65(2):81-93.

Chen, C. (2006). Identifying significant factors influencing consumer trust in an online travel site. *Information Technology and Tourism*, *8*(3-4):197-214.

Chen, H.J., Chen, P.J., and Okumus, F. (2013). The relationship between travel constraints and destination image: A case study of Brunei. *Tourism Management*, *35*:198-208.

Chen, C.C., Lin, Y.H. and Petrick, J.F. (2012). International stereotype and the collective construction of destination image. *Tourism Analysis, 17*(1):55-66.

Chen, C.F. and Chen, F.S. (2010). Experience quality, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions for heritage tourists. *Tourism Management, 31*(1):29-35.

Chen, C. and Tsai, D. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions? *Tourism Management, 28*(4):1115-1122.

Cherifi, B., Smith, A., Maitland, R., and Stevenson, N. (2014). Destination images of non-visitors. *Annals of Tourism Research, 49*:190-202.

Chi, C.G.Q. and Qu, H. (2008). Examining the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: An integrated approach. *Tourism Management, 29*(4):624-636.

Chi, G. (2005). *A study of developing destination loyalty model.* Doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University.

Chi, T. and Kilduff, P. P. (2011). Understanding consumer perceived value of casual sportswear: An empirical study. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 18*(5):422-429.

Chinomona, R., Lin, J.Y.C., Wang, M.C.H., and Cheng, J.M.S. (2010). Soft power and desirable relationship outcomes: the case of Zimbabwean distribution channels. *Journal of African Business*, *11*(2):182-200.

Choi, B. and La, S. (2013). The impact of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and customer trust on the restoration of loyalty after service failure and recovery. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *27*(3):223-233.

Choi, J.G., Tkachenko, T., and Sil, S. (2011). On the destination image of Korea by Russian tourists. *Tourism Management, 32*(1):193-194.

Cleverdon, R.G. (2002). Tourism development in the SADC region: the opportunities and challenges. *Development Southern Africa*, *19*(1):7-28.

Conner, M., Rhodes, R.E., Morris, B., McEachan, R., and Lawton, R. (2011). Changing exercise through targeting affective or cognitive attitudes. *Psychology and Health*, *26*(2):133-149.

Court, B. and Lupton, R.A. (1997). Customer Portfolio Development: Modeling Destination Adapters, Inactives and Rejecters. *Journal of Travel Research, 36*(1):35-43.

Cronbach, L.J. and Warrington, W.G. (1951). Time-limit tests: estimating their reliability and degree of speeding. *Psychometrika*, *16*(2):167-188.

Cronin, J.J., Brady, M.K. and Hult, T.M. (2000). Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioral intentions in service environments. *Journal of retailing, 76*(2):193-218.

Czernek, K. and Czakon, W. (2016). Trust-building processes in tourist coopetition: The case of a Polish region. *Tourism Management*, *52*:380-394.

Dasgupta, P. (1988). *Trust as a Commodity. S. in Gambetta* (Doctoral dissertation, D.(ed.), Trust. Making and Breaking Cooperative Relations. New York: Basil Blackwell. pp.49-72.

de Boer, A., Pijl, S.J., and Minnaert, A. (2011). Regular primary schoolteachers' attitudes towards inclusive education: A review of the literature. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 15*(3):331-353.

Deci, E.L. and Ryan, R.M. (2002). Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic dialectical perspective. *Handbook of Self-determination Research*:3-33.

Decrop, A. (1999). Tourists' decision-making and behavior processes. *Consumer Behavior in Travel and Tourism*:103-133.

De Jesus, J. (2013). *Visitor Perception of Destination Image: A Case Study of Palestinian Tourism*. Master's Dissertation: London Metropolitan University.

del Bosque, I.R. and San Martin, H. (2008). Tourist satisfaction a cognitive-affective model. *Annals of Tourism Research, 35*(2):551-573.

Delgado-Ballester, E. and Munuera-Alema, J. L. (2001). Brand trust in the context of consumer loyalty. *European Journal of Marketing, 35*(11/12):1238-1258.

de Melo Pereira, F.A., Ramos, A.S.M., Gouvêa, M.A., and da Costa, M.F., 2015. Satisfaction and continuous use intention of e-learning service in Brazilian public organizations. *Computers in Human Behavior, 46*:139-1.

Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (2002). *The qualitative inquiry reader*. : Sage.

De Rojas, C. and Camarero, C. (2008). Visitors' experience, mood and satisfaction in a heritage context: Evidence from an interpretation center. *Tourism Management, 29*(3):525-537.

De Ruyter, K., Wetzels, M. and Bloemer, J. (1998). On the relationship between perceived service quality, service loyalty and switching costs. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 9*(5):436-453.

Deutsch, M., 1960. The Effect of Motivational Orientation upon Trust and Suspicion. *Human Relations*, *13*(2):123-139.

Dominique, S. and Lopes, F. (2011). Destination image: Origins, Developments and Implications. *Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural,9(2)*:305-315.

East, R., Gendall, P., Hammond, K., and Lomax, W. (2005). Consumer loyalty: singular, additive or interactive? *Australasian Marketing Journal*, *13*(2):10-26.

Echtner, C.M. and Ritchie, J.B. (1993). The measurement of destination image: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, *31*(4):3-13.

Echtner, C.M. and Ritchie, J.B. (2003). The meaning and measurement of destination image. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, *14*(1):37-48.

Eitzinger, C. and Wiedemann, P.M. (2008). Trust in the safety of tourist destinations: Hard to gain, easy to lose? New insights on the asymmetry principle. *Risk Analysis*, *28*(4):843-853.

Engeset, M.G. and Elvekrok, I. (2014). Authentic concepts: Effects on tourist satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research, 54*(4). p.0047287514522876.

Enright, M.J. and Newton, J. (2004). Tourism destination competitiveness: a quantitative approach. *Tourism Management*, *25*(6):777-788.

Fakeye, P.C. and Crompton, J.L. (1991). Image differences between prospective, first-time, and repeat visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley. *Journal of Travel Research, 30*(2):10-16.

Fam, K.S., Foscht, T., and Collins, R.D. (2004). Trust and the online relationship—an exploratory study from New Zealand. *Tourism Management*, *25*(2):195-207.

Fan, X., Thompson, B., and Wang, L. (1999). Effects of sample size, estimation methods, and model specification on structural equation modeling fit indexes. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, *6*(1):56-83.

Fang, M., Yodmanee, T., and Muzaffer U. (2008). Measuring tourist satisfaction by attribute and motivation: The case of a nature-based resort. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *14*(1):41-56.

Farrell, A.M. (2010). Insufficient discriminant validity: A comment on Bove, Pervan, Beatty, and Shiu (2009). *Journal of Business Research*, *63*(3):324-327.

Fishbein, M. and Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*.

Fishbein, M. and Ajzen, I. (1980). Predicting and understanding consumer behavior: Attitude-behavior correspondence. *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior*: 148-172.

Fly Airlink. (2014). *Airlink to commence Sikhuphe - Swaziland flights 30 September 2014.* Accessed on 25 November 2015 at http://flyairlink.com/news/airlink_to_commence_sikhuphe_swaziland_flights_30_september_2014

Fornell, C. and Larcker, D.F. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *Journal of Marketing Research*:382-388.

Forstner, K. (2004). Community ventures and access to markets: The role of intermediaries in marketing rural tourism products. *Development Policy Review*, *22*(5):497-514.

Forsyth-Thompson, C. (2012). *Swaziland discovery: Swaziland's official tourist guide 2012*. Mbabane: Christina Forty-Thompson

Fraering, M. and Minor, M. S. (2006). Sense of community: An exploratory study of US consumers of financial services. *International Journal of Bank Marketing, 24*(5):284-306.

Gallarza, M.G., Saura, I.G., and García, H.C. (2002). Destination image: Towards a conceptual framework. *Annals of Tourism Research, 29*(1):56-78.

Gambetta, D. (1988). Trust: Making and breaking cooperative relations.

García, J. A., Gómez, M. and Molina, A. (2012). A destination-branding model: An empirical analysis based on stakeholders. *Tourism Management, 33*(3): 646-661.

Garland, R. and Gendall, P. (2004). Testing Dick and Basu's customer loyalty model. *Australasian Marketing Journal, 12*(3):81-87.

Gartner, W.C. (1993). Image formation process. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 2*(2/3):191, 215.

Gefen, D. (2000). E-commerce: the role of familiarity and trust. *Omega, 28*(6):725-737.

Gefen, D., Karahanna, E., and Straub, D.W., 2003. Trust and TAM in online shopping: an integrated model. *MIS Quarterly, 27*(1):51-90.

Geyskens, I., Steenkamp, J.-B.E.M. and Kumar, N. (1999). A meta-analysis of satisfaction in marketing channel relationships. *Journal of Market Research, (*36): 223-238.

Ghorban, Z.S. (2012). Brand Attitude, Its Antecedents and Consequences. Investigationinto Smartphone Brands in Malaysia. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management, 2*(3):31-35.

Gibson, H.J., Qi, C.X., and Zhang, J.J. (2008). Destination image and intent to visit China and the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport Management, 22*(4):427-450.

Giese, J.L. and Cote, J.A. (2000). Defining consumer satisfaction. *Academy of Marketing Science Review, 1*(1):1-22.

Glasman, L.R. and Albarracín, D. (2006). Forming attitudes that predict future behavior: a meta-analysis of the attitude-behavior relation. *Psychological Bulletin*, *132*(5):778.

Golob, T.F. (2003). Structural equation modeling for travel behavior research. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, *37*(1):1-25.

Gomez-Jacinto, L., Martin-Garcia, J.S., and Bertiche-Haud'Huyze, C. (1999). A model of tourism experience and attitude change. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 26(4):1024-1027.

Goudge, J. and Gilson, L. (2005). How can trust be investigated? Drawing lessons from past experience. *Social Science & Medicine, 61*(7):1439-1451.

Govers, R. and Go, F.M. (2005). Projected Destination Image Formation Online: Websie content analysisof pictures and text. *Infomation Technology and Tourism, 7*(2):73-89.

Gronroos, C. (1990). Service management: a management focus for service competition. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *1*(1):0-0.

Gunn, C.A. (1988). *Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions, (2nd Ed.)* NY: Van Nostrand.

Gursoy, D. and McCleary, K.W. (2004). Travelers' prior knowledge and its impact on their information search behavior. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 28*(1):66-94.

Gursoy, D., McCleary, K.W. and Lepsito, L.R. (2007). Propensity to complain: effects of personality and behavioral factors. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *31*(3):358-386.

Gurviez, P. and Korchia, M. (2003). Proposal for a multidimensional brand trust scale. In *32nd Emac-Conference-Glasgow, Marketing: Responsible and Relevant*.

Ha, H.Y. and Perks, H. (2005). Effects of consumer perceptions of brand experience on the web: Brand familiarity, satisfaction and brand trust. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *4*(6):438-452.

Hair, J.F., Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L., and Black, W.C. (1998), *Multivariate Data Analysis, 5th ed.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall,

Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., Anderson, R.E., and Tatham, R.L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis (Vol. 6).* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hair, J.F., Bush, R.P. and Ortinau, D.J. (2000). *Marketing research: A practical approach for the new millennium*. Irwin Professional Publishing.

Håkansson, E. (ed.). (1982). *International marketing and purchasing of industrial goods, an interactive approach*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Halpenny, E. (2006). *Environmental Behaviour, Place attachment and park visitation: A case study of visitors to Point Pelee National Park*. Ph.D dissertation for the University of Waterloo (Canada).

Hamilton, J.M. (2003). *Climate and the Destination Choice of German Tourists*. Working Paper FNU-15 (rev.). Hamburg: Research Unit Sustainability and Global Change, Centre for Marine and Climate Research, University of Hamburg

Han, H. and Ryu, K. (2009). The roles of the physical environment, price perception, and customer satisfaction in determining customer loyalty in the restaurant industry. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *33*(4):487-510.

Hansen, T. (2012). Understanding Trust in Financial Services The Influence of Financial Healthiness, Knowledge, and Satisfaction. *Journal of Service Research*, *15*(3):280-295

Hansen, T., Moller, J.J. and Stubbe, S.H. (2004). Predicting online grocery buying intention: a comparism of the theory of reasoned action and the theory planned behaviour. *Intentional Journal of Information Management, 24*(6):539-550.

Harris, L.C. and Goode, M.M. (2004). The four levels of loyalty and the pivotal role of trust: a study of online service dynamics. *Journal of Retailing*, *80*(2):139-158.

Harrison, D. (1992). Tradition, Modernity and Tourism in Swaziland. *Tourism and the less developed countries:*148-162.

Harrison, D. (2001). Tourism and less developed countries: Key issues. *Tourism and the less developed world: issues and case studies:*23-46.

Hart, C.W. and Johnson, M.D. (1999). Growing the trust relationship. *Marketing Management*, *8*(1):8.

Helson, H. (1964). *Adaptation-Level Theory*. New York, NY: Harper and Row.

Hernández-Lobato, L., Solis-Radilla, M.M., Moliner-Tena, M.A., and Sánchez-García, J. (2006). Tourism destination image, satisfaction and loyalty: a study in Ixtapa-Zihuatanejo, Mexico. *Tourism Geographies*, *8*(4):343-358.

Hofer, B.K., 2001. Personal epistemology research: Implications for learning and teaching. *Educational Psychology Review*, *13*(4):353-383.

Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., and Mullen, M. (2008). Structural equation modelling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *Articles*:2.

Horng, J.S., Liu, C.H., Chou, H.Y., and Tsai, C.Y. (2012). Understanding the impact of culinary brand equity and destination familiarity on travel intentions. *Tourism Management*, *33*(4):815-824.

Houran, J., Lange, R., and Lange, X., 2013. Applying the theory of reasoned action to a computerized test of intuition: I. Methodological Note. *Journal of the Society for Psychical Research*, *77*:178-189.

Howard, K.A. (1974). Fresh lunar impact craters-Review of variations with size. In *Lunar and Planetary Science Conference Proceedings*, *5*:61-69.

Howcroft, B., Hamilton, R., and Hewer, P. (2002). Consumer attitude and the usage and adoption of home-based banking in the United Kingdom. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, *20*(3):111-121.

Hsu, C. and Cai, L. A. (2009) August. Brand Knowledge, Trust and Loyalty-A Conceptual Model of Destination Branding. *n International CHRIE Conference-Refereed Track:*12.

Hsu, C.H. and Song, H. (2013). Destination image in travel magazines A textual and pictorial analysis of Hong Kong and Macau. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 19*(3):253-268.

Hu, L.T. and Bentler, P.M. (1998). Fit indices in covariance structure modeling: Sensitivity to underparameterized model misspecification. *Psychological Methods, 3*(4):424.

Huang, S. and Hsu, C.H. (2009). Effects of Travel Motivation, Past Experience, Perceived Constraint, and Attitude on Revisit Intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, *48*(1):29-44.

Huang, C.C., Wang, Y.M., Wu, T.W., and Wang, P.A., 2013. An empirical analysis of the antecedents and performance consequences of using the moodle platform. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, *3*(2):217.

Hudson, S. and Ritchie, J.B. (2001). Cross-cultural tourist behavior: An analysis of tourist attitudes towards the environment. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *10*(2-3):1-22.

Hui, T.K., Wan, D., and Ho, A. (2007). Tourists' satisfaction, recommendation and revisiting Singapore. *Tourism Management*, *28*(4):965-975.

Hunt, J.D. (1971). Image-A factor in Tourism.

Hunt, S.D. (1991). Positivism and paradigm dominance in consumer research: toward critical pluralism and rapprochement. *Journal of Consumer Research*:32-44.

Ibrahim, E.E. and Gill, J. (2005). A positioning strategy for a tourist destination, based on analysis of customers' perceptions and satisfactions. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, *23*(2):172-188.

IFAD. (2007). *Swaziland: Enabling the Rural poor to overcome poverty in Swaziland report.* Accessed on 12 August 2015 at http://www.ifad.org/operations/projects/regions/pf/factsheets/swaziland.pdf

Islam, M.A., Khadem, M., and Sayem, A. (2012). ervice quality, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty analysis in Bangladesh apparel fashion retail: an empirical study. *International Journal of Fashion Design, Technology and Education, 5*(3):213-224.

Jalilvand, M.R., Samiei, N., Dini, B., and Manzari, P.Y. (2012). Examining the structural relationships of electronic word of mouth, destination image, tourist attitude toward destination and travel intention: An integrated approach. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management, 1*(1):134-143.

Janda, S., Trocchia, P.J., and Gwinner, K.P. (2002). Consumer perceptions of Internet retail service quality. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 13*:412-431.

Jang, S.S. and Feng, R. (2007). Temporal destination revisit intention: The effects of novelty seeking and satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, *28*(2):580-590.

Jani, D. and Han, H. (2011). Investigating the key factors affecting behavioral intentions: Evidence from a full-service restaurant setting. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 23*(7):1000-1018.

Jenkins, O.H. (1999). Understanding and measuring tourist destination images. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 1*(1):1-15.

Jesca, C., Kumbirai, M. and Brighton, H. (2014). Destination Rebranding Paradigm in Zimbabwe: A stakeholder Approach. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences, 3*(1):30-41.

Johnson, R.B. and Onwuegbuzie, A.J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational researcher*, *33*(7):14-26.

Jones, T. and Taylor, S.F. (2007). The conceptual domain of service loyalty: How many dimensions. *Journal of Services Marketing, 21*:36-51

Jones, T.O. and Sasser, W.E. (1995). Why satisfied customers defect. *Harvard Business Review, 73*(6):88.

Kanning, U.P. and Bergmann, N. (2009). Predictors of customer satisfaction: testing the classical paradigms. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, *19*(4):377-390.

Kassim, N. and Abdullah, N.A. (2010). The effect of perceived service quality dimensions on customer satisfaction, trust, and loyalty in e-commerce settings: a cross cultural analysis. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 22*(3):351-371.

Kassem, N.O. and Lee, J.W. (2004). Understanding soft drink consumption among male adolescents using the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, *27*(3):273-296.

Keh, H.T. and Xie, Y. (2009). Corporate reputation and customer behavioral intentions: The roles of trust, identification and commitment. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *38*(7):732-742.

Kim, D. and Perdue, R.R. (2011). The influence of image on destination attractiveness. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *28*(3):225-239.

Kim, H. and Richardson, S.L. (2003). Motion picture impacts on destination images. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *30*(1):216-237.

Kim, H. and Stepchenkova, S. (2015). Effect of tourist photographs on attitudes towards destination: Manifest and latent content. *Tourism Management*, *49*:29-41.

Kim, J., Hong, S., Min, J., and Lee, H. (2011). Antecedents of application service continuance: A synthesis of satisfaction and trust. *Expert Systems with Applications*, *38*(8):9530-9542.

Kim, K., Uysal, M., and Sirgy, M.J. (2013). How does tourism in a community impact the quality of life of community residents? *Tourism Management*, *36*:527-540.

Kim, T.T., Kim, W.G. and Kim, H.B. (2009). The effects of perceived justice on recovery satisfaction, trust, word-of-mouth, and revisit intention in upscale hotels. *Tourism Management*, *30*(1):51-62.

Klipfel, J.A.L., Barclay, A.C., and Bockorny, K.M. (2013). *Self-Congruity: A Determinant of Brand.* PhD dissertation, Northern State University, USA.

Ko, D.W. and Stewart, W.P. (2002). A structural equation model of residents' attitudes for tourism development. *Tourism Management*, *23*(5):521-530.

Kopalle, P.K. and Lehmann, D.R. (2001). Strategic management of expectations: The role of disconfirmation sensitivity and perfectionism. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *38*(3):386-394.

Kozak, M., 2001. Repeaters' behavior at two distinct destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *28*(3):784-807.

Kozak, M. and Rimmington, M. (2000). Tourist satisfaction with Mallorca, Spain, as an off-season holiday destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, *38*(3):260-269.

Krauss, S.E. (2005). Research paradigms and meaning making: A primer. *The Qualitative Report*, *10*(4):758-770.

Krishnamurthi, L. and Papatla, P. (2003). Accounting for heterogeneity and dynamics in the loyalty–price sensitivity relationship. *Journal of Retailing*,*79*(2):121-135.

Krejcie, R. and Morgan, D. (1970). Determing Samples Sizes for Research Activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement:*607-610.

Kumar, J. and Yang, C.L. (2014). Service quality and loyalty of international students studying in the field of hospitality and tourism. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Management*, *2*(3):97-118.

Kumar, V., Dalla Pozza, I., and Ganesh, J. (2013). Revisiting the satisfaction–loyalty relationship: empirical generalizations and directions for future research. *Journal of Retailing*, *89*(3):246-262.

Kwong, T.C. and Lee, M.K. (2002). *Behavioral intention model for the exchange mode internet music piracy.* In *System Sciences, 2002. HICSS. Proceedings of the 35th Annual Hawaii International Conference.* IEEE. pp. 2481-2490.

Larzelere, R.E. and Huston, T.L. (1980). The dyadic trust scale: Toward understanding interpersonal trust in close relationships. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*:595-604.

Lau, G.T. and Lee, S.H. (1999). Consumers' trust in a brand and the link to brand loyalty. *Journal of Market-Focused Management*, *4*(4):341-370.

Lee, C.K., Kang, S., Reisinger, Y., and Kim, N. (2012). Incongruence in destination image: Central Asia region. *Tourism Geographies*, *14*(4):599-624.

Lee, C., Lee, Y., and Lee, B. (2005). Korea's destination image formed by the 2002 world cup. *Annals of Tourism Research 32*(4):839-858.

Lee, C.K., Yoon, Y.S. and Lee, S.K. (2007). Investigating the relationships among perceived value, satisfaction, and recommendations: The case of the Korean DMZ. *Tourism Management, 28*(1):204-214.

Lee, J., Graefe, A.R., and Burns, R.C. (2004). Service quality, satisfaction, and behavioral intention among forest visitors. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *17*(1):73-82.

Lee, J.S. and Back, K.J. (2010). Examining antecedents and consequences of brand personality in the upper-upscale business hotel segment. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *27*(2):132-145.

Lee, S., Jeon, S, and Kim, D. (2011). The impact of tour quality and tourist satisfaction on tourist loyalty: The case of Chinese tourists in Korea. *Tourism Management*, *32*(5):1115-1124.

Lee, Y.K., Kim, S., Lee, C.K., and Kim, S.H. (2014). The Impact of a Mega Event on Visitors' Attitude Toward Hosting Destination: Using Trust Transfer Theory. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *31*(4):507-521.

Leisen, B. (2001). Image segmentation: the case of a tourism destination. *Journal of Services Marketing, 15*(1):49-66.

Lei, P.W. and Wu, Q. (2007). Introduction to structural equation modeling: Issues and practical considerations. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice*, *26*(3):33-43.

Leonard, L.N., Cronan, T.P. and Kreie, J. (2004). What influences IT ethical behavior intentions—planned behavior, reasoned action, perceived importance, or individual characteristics? *Information and Management*, *42*(1):143-158.

Lepp, A. (2007). Residents' attitudes towards tourism in Bigodi village, Uganda. *Tourism Management, 28*(3):876-885.

Lewis, J.D. and Weigert, A. (1985). Trust as a Social Reality. *Social Forces*, *63*:967-985.

Li, F., Zhou, N., Kashyap, R., and Yang, Z. (2008). Brand trust as a second-order factor. *International Journal of Market Research, 50*(6):817-839.

Li, M., Cai, L.A., Lehto, X.Y., and Huang, J. (2010). A missing link in understanding revisit intention—The role of motivation and image. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 27*(4):335-348.

Li, X.R. and Vogelsong, H. (2006). Comparing methods of measuring image change: A case study of a small-scale community festival. *Tourism Analysis, 10*(4):349-360.

Lin, C.H., Morais, D.B., Kerstetter, D.L., and Hou, J.S. (2007). Examining the role of cognitive and affective image in predicting choice across natural, developed, and theme-park destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, *46*(2):183-194.

Litvin, S.W. (2003). Tourism and understanding: The MBA study mission. *Annals of Tourism Research, 30*(1):77-93.

Liu, C., Marchewka, J.T., Lu, J., and Yu, C.S. (2005). Beyond concern—a privacy-trust-behavioral intention model of electronic commerce. *Information and Management, 42*(2):289-304.

Liu, X., Li, J.J., and Kim, W.G. (2015). The role of travel experience in the structural relationships among tourists' perceived image, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*. p.1467358415610371.

Lopes, S.D.F. (2011). Destination image: Origins, developments and implications. *Pasos, 9*(2):305-315.

López-Mosquera, N. and Sánchez, M. (2014). Cognitive and affective determinants of satisfaction, willingness to pay, and loyalty in suburban parks. *Urban Forestry and Urban Greening*, *13*(2):375-384.

Loureiro, S.M.C. and González, F.J.M. (2008). The importance of quality, satisfaction, trust, and image in relation to rural tourist loyalty. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *25*(2):117-136.

Lovelock, C. (2000). Functional integration in services. *Handbook of Services Marketing and Management.* Thousand Oaks: Sage. pp.421-437.

Lukhele, S.E. (2013). *An Investigation into the Opreational Challenges of Community-Based Tourism in Swaziland.* Masters Dissertation-University of Johannesburg. pp.1-170.

Lukhele, S.E. and Mearns, K.F. (2013). The operational challenges of community-based tourism ventures in Swaziland. *African Journal for Physical Health Education, Recreation and Dance: Tourism research issues in Southern African: Supplement, 3:*1992-216.

MacKay, K.J. and Fesenmaier, D.R. (2000). An exploration of cross-cultural destination image assessment. *Journal of Travel Research, 38*(4):417-423.

Macneil, I.R. (1980). Economic analysis of contractual relations: its shortfalls and the need for a rich classificatory apparatus. *Northwestern University Law Review, 75*:1018.

Madjid, R. (2013). Customer Trust as Relationship Mediation Between Customer Satisfaction and Loyalty At Bank Rakyat Indonesia (BRI) Southeast Sulawesi. *The International Journal Of Engineering And Science, 2*(5):48-60.

Makochekanwa, A. (2013). An analysis of tourism contribution to economic growth in SADC countries. *Botswana Journal of Economics, 11*(15).

Malhotra, N. and Peterson, M. (2006). *Basic Marketing Research; a decision-making approach.* New Jersey: Sage Publications.

Malhotra, N.K. and Birks, D.F. (2007). *Marketing research: An applied approach*. Pearson Education.

Maoz, D. (2006). The mutual gaze. *Annals of Tourism Research, 33*(1):221-239.

Marinao, E., Torres, E., and Chasco, C. (2012). Trust in tourism destinations. The role of local inhabitants and institutions. *Academia: Revista Latinoamericana de Administración, 51*:27-47.

Martín, M.B.G. (2005). Weather, climate and tourism a geographical perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research, 32*(3):571-591.

Martínez, P. and del Bosque, I.R. (2013). CSR and customer loyalty: The roles of trust, customer identification with the company and satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 35*:89-99.

Masuku, N.R.S. (2010). *The Economic Impact of Tourism in Swaziland*.

Matzler, K., Grabner-Kräuter, S. and Bidmon, S. (2006). The value-brand trust-brand loyalty chain: An analysis of some moderating variables. *Innovative Marketing, 2*(2):76-88.

Mayo, E.J. (1973). *Regional images and regional travel behaviour*. The Travel Research Association Fourth Annual Conference Proceedings. Sun Valley, Idaho.

McCole, P. (2002). The role of trust for electronic commerce in services. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 14*(2):81-87.

McCollough, M.A., Berry, L.L., and Yadav, M.S. (2000). An empirical investigation of customer satisfaction after service failure and recovery. *Journal of Service Research*, *3*(2):121-137.

McKercher, B. and Denizci-Guillet, B.D. (2011). Are tourists or markets destination loyal? *Journal of Travel Research*, *50*(2):121-132.

McKercher, B., Shoval, N., Ng, E., and Birenboim, A., 2012. First and repeat visitor behaviour: GPS tracking and GIS analysis in Hong Kong. *Tourism Geographies*, *14*(1):147-161.

McKnight, D.H. and Chervany, N.L. (2006). Reflections on an initial trust-building model. *Handbook of Trust Research*:29-51.

Meng, F., Tepanon, Y., and Uysal, M. (2008). Measuring tourist satisfaction by attribute and motivation: The case of a nature-based resort. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *14*(1):41-56.

Meyer, C., Hickson, L., Khan, A., and Walker, D., 2014. What Is Important for Hearing Aid Satisfaction? Application of the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Model. *Journal of the American Academy of Audiology*, *25*(7):644-655.

Ministry of Tourism and Environmental Affairs. (2010). *National Tourism Policy of the Kingdom of Swaziland*. Accessed on 7 March 2015 at *http://www.gov.sz/images/swaziland%20tourism.pdf*

Mitchell, A. A. (1986). The Effect of Verbal and Visual Components of Advertisments on Brand Attitudes and Attitude toward the advertisment. *Journal of Consumer Research: 13*(1):12-23.

Mitra, D. and Golder, P.N. (2006). How does objective quality affect perceived quality? Short-term effects, long-term effects, and asymmetries. *Marketing Science*, *25*(3):230-247.

Mittal, B. and Lasar, W. M. (1998). Why do customers switch? The dynamics of satisfaction versus loyalty. *The Journal of Services Marketing, 12*:177-194.

Mohamad, M., Ali, A.M., and Ab Ghani, N.I. (2011). A structural model of destination image, tourists' satisfaction and destination loyalty. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies*, *3*(2):167-177.

Molina, A., Gomez, M., and Martín-Consuegra, D.,(2010). Tourism marketing information and destination image management. *African Journal of Business Management*, *4*(5):722-728

Moliner, M.A., Sánchez, J., Rodríguez, R.M., and Callarisa, L. (2007). Perceived relationship quality and post-purchase perceived value: An integrative framework. *European Journal of Marketing, 41*(11/12):1392-1422.

Morgan, D.L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *1*(1):48-76.

Morgan, R.M. and Hunt, S.D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. *The Journal of Marketing, 50:*20-38.

Motsa, B.N. (2007). *Levels of Participation in Outdoor Recreation at Molotja Game Reserve, Swaziland.* Postgraduate Diploma Dissertation, University of Zululand.

Murphy, P., Pritchard, M.P., and Smith, B. (2000). The destination product and its impact on traveller perceptions. *Tourism Management, 21*(1):43-52.

Neal, J.D., Sirgy, M.J., and Uysal, M. (1999). The role of satisfaction with leisure travel/tourism services and experience in satisfaction with leisure life and overall life. *Journal of Business Research*, *44*(3):153-163.

Nguyen, N., Leclerc, A., and LeBlanc, G., 2013. The mediating role of customer trust on customer loyalty. *Journal of Service Science and Management*, *6*(1):96.

Nielsen, B.B. (2011). Trust in strategic alliances: Toward a co-evolutionary research model. *Journal of Trust Research*, *1*(2):159-176.

Nooteboom, B., Berger, H., and Noorderhaven, N.G. (1997). Effects of trust and governance on relational risk. *Academy of Management Journal*, *40*(2):308-338.

Norizan, M.K. and Salaheldin, I. (2009). Investigating the complex drivers of loyalty in e-commerce. *Measuring Business Excellence, 13*(1):56-71.

Nunkoo, R. and Ramkissoon, H. (2011). Developing a community support model for tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *38*(3):964-988.

Nunkoo, R., Ramkissoon, H., and Gursoy, D. (2012). Public trust in tourism institutions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *39*(3):1538-1564.

Nusair, K. and Hua, N. (2010). Comparative assessment of structural equation modeling and multiple regression research methodologies: E-commerce context. *Tourism Management*, *31*(3):314-324.

Nyaupane, G.P., Paris, C.M., and Teye, V. (2011). Study abroad motivations, destination selection and pre-trip attitude formation. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *13*(3):205-217.

Nyaupane, G.P., Teye, V., and Paris, C. (2008). Innocents abroad: Attitude change toward hosts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *35*(3):650-667.

Nystrand, B.T. and Fjørtoft, K.L. (2015). Evidence of attitude change through taste experience in 10–19year-olds. *Food Quality and Preference*, *40*:61-67.

Oh, H. (1999). Service quality, customer satisfaction, and customer value: A holistic perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 18*(1):67-82.

Oh, H. (2003). Price fairness and its asymmetric effects on overall price, quality, and value judgments: the case of an upscale hotel. *Tourism Management, 24*(4):387-399.

Oliver, R.L., 1977. Effect of expectation and disconfirmation on postexposure product evaluations: An alternative interpretation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 62*(4):480.

Oliver, R.L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*:460-469.

Oliver, R.L. (1997). *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the customer*. New York:

Oliver, R.L. (1999). Whence consumer loyalty? *Journal of Marketing, 63*:33-44.

Olshavsky, R.W. and Kumar, A. (2001). Revealing the actual roles of expectations in consumer satisfaction with experience and credence goods. *Journal Of Consumer Satisfaction Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior, 14*:60-73.

Oppermann, M. (2000). Tourism destination loyalty. *Journal of Travel Research, 39*(1):78-84.

Orbell, S., Blair, C., Sherlock, K., and Conner, M. (2001). The theory of planned behavior and ecstasy use: Roles for habit and perceived control over taking versus obtaining substances. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 31*(1):31-47.

Özdemir, G. and Şimşek, O. F. (2015). The Antecedents of Complex Destination Image. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 175*:503-510.

Pan, B. and Li, X.R. (2011). The long tail of destination image and online marketing. *Annals of Tourism Research, 38*(1):132-152.

Pan, Y., Sheng, S, and Xie, F.T. (2012). Antecedents of customer loyalty: An empirical synthesis and reexamination. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *19*(1):150-158.

Parasuraman, A. and Grewal, D. (2000). The impact of technology on the quality-value-loyalty chain: a research agenda. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28*(1):168-174.

Parasuraman, A., Grewal, D. and Krishnan, R. (2006). *Marketing research*. : Cengage Learning.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A., and Berry, L.L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing*:41-50.

Pereira, F.A.D.M., Ramos, A.S.M., Andrade, A.P.V.D., and Oliveira, B.M.K.D. (2015). Use of virtual learning environments: a theoretical model using decomposed expectancy disconfirmation theory. *Journal of Information Systems and Technology Management, 12*(2):333-350.

Peter, J.P. and Olson, J.C. (1996). *Understanding consumer behaviour*. : Irwin Professional Publishing.

Peterson, R.A. and Kim, Y. (2013). On the relationship between coefficient alpha and composite reliability. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*(1):194.

Peterson, R.A. and Wilson, W.R. (1992). Measuring customer satisfaction: fact and artefact. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 20*(1):61-71.

Petrick, J.F. (2004). The roles of quality, value, and satisfaction in predicting cruise passengers' behavioral intentions. *Journal of Travel Research, 42*(4):397-407.

Petrick, J.F. and Backman, S.J. (2002). An examination of the determinants of golf travelers' satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research, 40*(3):252-258.

Phau, I., Sequeire, M. and Dix, S. (2009). To buy or not to buy a counterfet Ralph Lauren polo shirt the role of lawfulness and legality toward purchasing counterfiets. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Administration, 1*(1):68-80.

Phillips, W. and Jang, S. (2008). Destination image and tourist attitude. *Tourism Analysis, 13*(4):401-411.

Pierce, J.L. and Jussila, I. (2010). Collective psychological ownership within the work and organizational context: Construct introduction and elaboration. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(6):810-834.

Pike, S. (2005). Tourism destination branding complexity. *Journal of Product and Brand Management, 14*(4): 258-259.

Pike, S. and Ryan, C. (2004). Destination positioning analysis through a comparison of cognitive, affective, and conative perceptions. *Journal of Travel Research, 42*(4):333-342.

Pizam, A., Jafari, J, and Milman, A. (1991). Influence of tourism on attitudes: US students visiting USSR. *Tourism Management, 12*(1): 47-54.

Pizam, A., Uriely, N., and Reichel, A., 2000. The intensity of tourist–host social relationship and its effects on satisfaction and change of attitudes: the case of working tourists in Israel. *Tourism Management, 21*(4):395-406.

Ponterotto, J.G. (2005). Qualitative research in counseling psychology: A primer on research paradigms and philosophy of science. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52*(2):126.

Prayag, G., 2009. Tourists' Evaluations Of Destination Image, Satisfaction, And Future Behavioral Intentions—The Case Of Mauritius. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *26*(8):836-853.

Prayag, G. and Ryan, C. (2012). Antecedents of tourists' loyalty to Mauritius The role and influence of destination image, place attachment, personal involvement, and satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(3):342-356.

Prebensen, N.K. (2006). Segmenting the group tourist heading for warmer weather: A Norwegian example. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing,19*(4):27-40.

Prebensen, N.K. (2007). Exploring tourists' images of a distant destination. *Tourism Management, 28*(3):747-756.

Qu, H., Kim, L.H., and Im, H.H. (2011). A model of destination branding: Integrating the concepts of the branding and destination image. *Tourism Management, 32*(3):465-476.

Qu, H. and Ping, E.W.Y. (1999). A service performance model of Hong Kong cruise travelers' motivation factors and satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, *20*(2):237-244.

Quintal, V., Phau, I., and Polczynski, A. (2014). Destination brand image of Western Australia's South-West region Perceptions of local versus international tourists. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 20*(1):41-54.

Rajesh, R. (2013). Impact of tourist perceptions, destination image and tourist satisfaction on destination loyalty: A conceptual model. *Pasos: Revista de turismo y patrimonio cultural, 11*(3):67-78.

Ramkissoon, H. and Uysal, M.S. (2011). The effects of perceived authenticity, information search behaviour, motivation and destination imagery on cultural behavioural intentions of tourists. *Current Issues in Tourism, 14*(6):537-562.

Ramseook-Munhurrun, P., Seebaluck, V.N., and Naidoo, P. (2015). Examining the Structural Relationships of Destination Image, Perceived Value, Tourist Satisfaction and Loyalty: Case of Mauritius. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 175*:252-259.

Ranaweera, C. and Prabhu, J. (2003). The influence of satisfaction, trust and switching barriers on customer retention in a continuous purchasing setting. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *14*(4):374-395.

Rasheed, F.A. and Abadi, M.F. (2014). Impact of Service Quality, Trust and Perceived Value on Customer Loyalty in Malaysia Services Industries. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 164*:298-304.

Raykov, T. (2000). A method for examining stability in reliability. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *35*(3):289-305.

Raykov, T. and Grayson, D. (2003). A test for change of composite reliability in scale development. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *38*(2):143-159.

Regan, D.T. and Fazio, R. (1977). On the consistency between attitudes and behavior: Look to the method of attitude formation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *13*(1):28-45.

Reisig, M.D. and Stroshine Chandek, M. (2001). The effects of expectancy disconfirmation on outcome satisfaction in police-citizen encounters. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, *24*(1):88-99.

Report of the Expert Panel to Minister Hanekom (2015) Review of South African Tourism. Accessed 23 August 2015 at http://www.tourism.gov.za/AboutNDT/Publications/Final%20report%20of%20the%20SA%20Tourism%20Review%20June%202015.pdf

Reynolds, W.H. (1965). The Role of the Consumer in Image Building. *California Management Review*, *7*(3):69-76.

Rivera, M.A. and Croes, R. (2010). Ecotourists' loyalty: will they tell about the destination or will they return? *Journal of Ecotourism*, *9*(2):85-103.

Robinson, J.W. and Preston, J.D. (1976). Equal-status contact and modification of racial prejudice: A reexamination of the contact hypothesis. *Social Forces*, *54*(4):911-924.

Rodríguez, I. and San Martín, H. (2008). Tourist satisfaction. A cognitive-affective model. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *35*(2):551-573.

Roodurmun, J. and Juwaheer , T.D. (2010). Influence of trust on destination loyalty—an empirical analysis—the discussion of the research approach. *International Research Symposium in Service Management:*1-23.

Rosenbaum, M.S. and Spears, D.L. (2005). Who buys that? Who does what? Analysis of cross-cultural consumption behaviours among tourists in Hawaii. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *11*(3):235-247.

Rotter, J.B. (1980). Interpersonal trust, trustworthiness, and gullibility. *American Psychologist*, *35*(1):1.

Rufín, R., Medina, C., and Rey, M. (2012). Adjusted expectations, satisfaction and loyalty development. *The Service Industries Journal*, *32*(14):2185-2202.

Rust, R.T. and Oliver, R.L. (1994). *Service quality: insights and managerial implications from the frontier. Service quality: New directions in theory and practice.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications. pp.72-94.

Ryu, K. and Han, H. (2010). Predicting tourists' intention to try local cuisine using a modified theory of reasoned action: The case of New Orleans. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *27*(5):491-506.

Ryu, K. and Jang, S.S. (2006). Intention to experience local cuisine in a travel destination: The modified theory of reasoned action. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *30*(4):507-516.

Sahin, S. and Baloglu, S. (2011). Brand personality and destination image of Istanbul. *Anatolia–An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *22*(01):69-88.

Sale, J.E., Lohfeld, L.H., and Brazil, K. (2002). Revisiting the quantitative-qualitative debate: Implications for mixed-methods research. *Quality and Quantity*, *36*(1):43-53.

Salleh, M., Omar, K., Yaakop, A.Y., and Mahmmod, A.R. (2013). Tourist satisfaction in Malaysia. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, *4*(5):221-226.

Sannassee, R.V. and Seetanah, B. (2015). The Influence of Trust on Repeat Tourism: The Mauritian Case Study. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*:1-20.

Santos, J. and Boote, J. (2003). A theoretical exploration and model of consumer expectations, post-purchase affective states and affective behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *3*(2):142-156.

Sarma, M.K. (2007). Influence of Information Sources on Tourists: A Segement- Wise Analysis with Special Focus on Destination Image. *The Journal of Business Perspective, 11*(1): 35-45.

Schiffman, L.G. and Kanuk, L.L. (2010). *Consumer Behaviour. 10th Ed.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Schmidt, S., Cantallops, A.S., and dos Santos, C.P., 2008. The characteristics of hotel websites and their implications for website effectiveness. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *27*(4):504-516.

Schofield, P. (2000). Evaluating Castlefield Urban Heritage Park from the consumer perspective: destination attribute importance, visitor perception, and satisfaction. *Tourism Analysis, 5*(2/4):183-189).

Schumacker, R.E. and Lomax, R.G. (2004). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling*. Psychology Press.

Scott, D., Jones, B., and Konopek, J. (2007). Implications of climate and environmental change for nature-based tourism in the Canadian Rocky Mountains: A case study of Waterton Lakes National Park. *Tourism Management, 28*(2):570-579.

Sekaran, U. and Bougie, R. (2013). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill- Building Approach. 6th Ed.* West Sussex: John Wiley and Sons.

Sever, I. 2015. Importance-performance analysis: A valid management tool? *Tourism Management, 48*:43-53.

Shiu, E., Hair, J., Bush , R., and Ortinau, D. (2009). *Marketing Research. 1st Ed.* Berkshire: McGraw Hill.

Sinclair, M.T. (1998). Tourism and economic development: a survey. *The Journal of Development Studies, 34*(5):1-51.

Singh, J. and Sirdeshmukh, D. (2000). Agency and trust mechanisms in consumer satisfaction and loyalty judgments. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28*(1):150-167.

Singh, T., Slotkin, M.H. and Vamosi, A.R. (2007). Attitude towards ecotourism and environmental advocacy: Profiling the dimensions of sustainability. *Journal of Vacation marketing, 13*(2):119-134.

Sirakaya, E., Petrick, J., and Choi, H.S. (2004). The role of mood on tourism product evaluations. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(3):517-539.

Sirakaya-Turk, E., Nyaupane, G., and Uysal, M. (2013). Guests and Hosts Revisited: Prejudicial Attitudes of Guests toward the Host Population. *Journal of Travel Research*. p.0047287513500580.

Sirdeshmukh, D., Singh, J., and Sabol, B. (2002). Consumer trust, value, and loyalty in relational exchanges. *Journal of Marketing, 66*(1):15-37.

Sirgy, M.J. and Su, C. (2000). Destination image, self-congruity, and travel behavior: Toward an integrative model. *Journal of Travel Research, 38*(4):340-352.

Skogland, I. and Siguaw, J.A. (2004). Are your satisfied customers loyal?v*Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 45*(3):221-234.

Slevitch, L. (2011). Qualitative and quantitative methodologies compared: ontological and epistemological perspectives. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism, 12*(1):73-81.

So, K.K.F., King, C., Sparks, B.A., and Wang, Y. (2013). The influence of customer brand identification on hotel brand evaluation and loyalty development. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 34*:31-41.

Söderlund, M. (2006). Measuring customer loyalty with multi-item scales: a case for caution. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 17*(1):76-98.

Soemodinoto, A., Wong, P.P. and Saleh, M. (2001). Effect of prolonged political unrest on tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 28*(4):1056-1060.

Solomon, M.R. (2009). *Consumer Behaviour Buying. Having and Being.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Som, A.P.M. and Badarneh, M.B. (2011). Tourist satisfaction and repeat visitation; toward a new comprehensive model. *International Journal of Human and Social Sciences, 6*(1):38-45.

Song, H., Li, G., van der Veen, R., and Chen, J.L. (2012). Assessing mainland Chinese tourists' satisfaction with Hong Kong using tourist satisfaction index. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 13*(1):82-96.

Song, H., van der Veen, R., Li, G., and Chen, J.L. (2012). The Hong Kong tourist satisfaction index. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(1):459-479.

Song, Z., Su, X., and Li, L. (2013). The indirect effects of destination image on destination loyalty intention through tourist satisfaction and perceived value: The bootstrap approach. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 30*(4):386-409.

Sönmez, S. and Sirakaya, E. (2002). A distorted destination image? The case of Turkey. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*(2):185-196.

Spears, N. and Singh, S.N., 2004. Measuring attitude toward the brand and purchase intentions. *Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising, 26*(2):53-66.

Spreng, R.A. and Page, T.J. (2003). A Test of Alternative Measures of Disconfirmation*. *Decision Sciences, 34*(1):31-62.

Stepchenkova, S. and Mills, J.E. (2010). Destination image: A meta-analysis of 2000–2007 research. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management, 19*(6):575-609.

Stepchenkova, S. and Morrison, A.M. (2008). Russia's destination image among American pleasure travelers: Revisiting Echtner and Ritchie. *Tourism Management, 29*(3):548-560.

Stewart, K.J. (2003). Trust transfer on the world wide web. *Organization Science, 14*(1):5-17.

Stylidis, D., Belhassen, Y., and Shani, A. (2015). Destination image, on-site experience and behavioural intentions: path analytic validation of a marketing model on domestic tourists. *Current Issues in Tourism*:1-18.

Su, L. and Fan, X. (2011). *A study on the relationships between service quality, satisfaction, trust and loyalty among rural tourism.* In Service Systems and Service Management (ICSSSM), 2011 8th International Conference. IEEE. pp. 1-6.

Suh, B. and Han, I. (2003). Effect of trust on customer acceptance of Internet banking. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, *1*(3):247-263.

Suki, N.M. (2014). Passenger satisfaction with airline service quality in Malaysia: A structural equation modeling approach. *Research in Transportation Business and Management*, *10*:26-32.

Sweeney, J.C. and Soutar, G.N. (2001). Consumer perceived value: The development of a multiple item scale. *Journal of Retailing, 77*(2): 203-220.

Szivas, E., Riley, M., and Airey, D., 2003. Labor mobility into tourism: attraction and satisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research, 30*(1):64-76.

Szymanski, D.M. and Henard, D.H. (2001). Customer satisfaction: A meta-analysis of the empirical evidence. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *29*(1):16-35.

Tanford, S. (2013). The impact of tier level on attitudinal and behavioral loyalty of hotel reward program members. *International Journal of Hospitality Management:* 285-294.

Tang, L. and Jang, S. (2014). Information value and destination image: Investigating the moderating role of processing fluency. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, *23*(7):790-814.

Tarkiainen, A. and Sundqvist, S. (2005). Subjective norms, attitudes and intentions of Finnish consumers in buying organic food. *British Food Journal*, *107*(11):808-822

Tasci, A.D., 2009. Social Distance The Missing Link in the Loop of Movies, Destination Image, and Tourist Behavior. *Journal of Travel Research, 47*(4):494-507.

Tasci, A.D., Gartner, W.C., and Cavusgil, S.T. (2007). Conceptualization and operationalization of destination image. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 31*(2):194-223.

Tavakol, M. and Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education, 2*:53.

The Global Fund. (2015). Swaziland Aims for Malaria Elimination. Accessed on 29 September 2015 at http://www.theglobalfund.org/en/news/2015-01-14_Swaziland_Aims_for_Malaria_Elimination/

The Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, Ministry of Trade and Industry. (2004). *Strategic approach to tourism as an export and development opportunity in small states. Small states in transition – from vulnerability to competitiveness.* Accessed on 23 August at http://www.google.co.za/url?sa=tandrct=jandq=andesrc=sandsource=webandcd=1andved=0ahUKEwimjdiP4eLJAhWKORoKHU9BAQcQFggaMAAandurl=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.intracen.org%2FWorkArea%2FDownloadAsset.aspx%3Fid%3D52374andusg=AFQjCNG5xN_-S5IGNziTclna4qYvCfhVkAandsig2=MBvcI_w8IqJ0xm9V9g1JFQandbvm=bv.110151844,d.d2s

The Swaziland Tourism Authority. (2014). *The Kingdom of Swaziland: A Royal experience. Annual Report: Tourism Statistics 2011/2012/2013.* Accessed on 25 March 2015 at http://www.thekingdomofswaziland.com/downloads/STA/Accommodationstatistics2013.pdf

The Swaziland Tourism Authority. (2015). *The Kingdom of Swaziland: The Royal Experience.* Accessed on 20 January 2015 at http://www.thekingdomofswaziland.com/

The Swaziland Poverty Eradication Strategy and Action Plan (2007). Avaliabke at: http://www.tralac.org/files/2012/12/Final-Poverty-Reduction-Strategy-and-Action-Plan-for-Swaziland.pdf (accessed 15 September 2015)

The Tourism Business Council of South Africa. (2015). *TBCSA's Report on the Impact of the New Immigration Regulations on the Travel and Tourism Industry*. Accessed on 25 October 2015 at http://www.capetown.travel/uploads/files/TBCSA_Second_Impact_Assessment_Report__1.pdf

Thevathayan, C., Harland, J., and Bertok, P. (2013). An endorsement trust model. In *Trust, Security and Privacy in Computing and Communications (TrustCom), 2013, 12th IEEE International Conference*. IEEE. pp. 829-836.

Tribe, J. and Snaith, T. (1998). From SERVQUAL to HOLSAT: holiday satisfaction in Varadero, Cuba. *Tourism Management, 19*(1):25-34.

Truong, T.H. and Foster, D. (2006). Using HOLSAT to evaluate tourist satisfaction at destinations: The case of Australian holidaymakers in Vietnam. *Tourism Management, 27*(5): 842-855.

Tsai, M.T., Chen, K.S., and Chien, J.L. (2012). The factors impact of knowledge sharing intentions: the theory of reasoned action perspective. *Quality and Quantity*, *46*(5):1479-1491.

Turner, L.W. and Reisinger, Y. (2001). Shopping satisfaction for domestic tourists. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *8*(1):15-27.

Um, S., Chon, K., and Ro, Y. (2006). Antecedents of revisit intention. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *33*(4):1141-1158.

Um, S. and Crompton, J.L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *17*(3):432-448.

United Nations World Tourism Organization. (2015). *UNWTO World Tourism Barometer 13*. Accessed on 10 October 2015 at

http://dtxtq4w60xqpw.cloudfront.net/sites/all/files/pdf/unwto_barom15_01_january_excerpt_1.pdf

United Nations World Tourism Organization. (2015). *UNWTO Annual Report 2014, Madrid*. Accessed on 10 October 2015 at http://dtxtq4w60xqpw.cloudfront.net/sites/all/files/pdf/unwto_annual_report_2014.pdf (accessed 10 October 2015).

Urban, G.L., Sultan, F., and Qualls, W.J. (2000). Placing trust at the center of your Internet strategy. *Sloan Management Review*, *42*(1):39-48.

Uysal, M., Chen, J.S. and Williams, D.R. (2000). Increasing state market share through a regional positioning. *Tourism Management, 21*(1):89-96.

Vajčnerová, I., Žiaran, P., Ryglová, K., and Andráško, I., 2014. Quality management of the tourist destination in the context of visitors' satisfaction. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, *12*:718-724.

Valle, P.O., Silva, J.A., Mendes, J., and Guerreiro, M. (2006). Tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty intention: a structural and categorical analysis. *International Journal of Business Science and Applied Management, 1*(1):25-44.

Vallerand, R.J., Deshaies, P., Cuerrier, J.P., Pelletier, L.G. and Mongeau, C., (1992). Ajzen and Fishbein's theory of reasoned action as applied to moral behavior: A confirmatory analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 62*(1):98.

Velázquez, B.M., Saura, I.G., and Molina, M.E.R. (2011). Conceptualizing and measuring loyalty: Towards a conceptual model of tourist loyalty antecedents. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 17*(1):65-81.

Vincent, V.C. and Thompson, W. (2002). Assessing community support and sustainability for ecotourism development. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*(2):153-160.

Wang, C.Y. and Hsu, M.K. (2010). The relationships of destination image, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions: An integrated model. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 27*(8):829-843.

Wang, L., Law, R., Hung, K., and Guillet, B.D. (2014). Consumer trust in tourism and hospitality: A review of the literature. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 21*:1-9.

Weber, K. (1997). The assessment of tourist satisfaction using the expectancy disconfirmation theory: a study of the German travel market in Australia. *Pacific Tourism Review, 1*(1):35-45.

Westbrook, R.A., and Oliver, R.L. (1981). Developing Better and Appraisals, Paper Presented at the 98th Annual Convention of Measures of Consumer Satisfaction: Some Preliminary Results. The American Psychological Association, Boston. 1990. *Advances in Consumer Research, 8*:94-99.

White, C.J. (2004). Destination image: to see or not to see? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 16*(5):309-314.

Wijethunga, W.M.H.U. and Warnakulasooriya, B.N.F. (2014). Destination Image Perception Of International Tourists The Case Of Sri Lanka As A Tourist Destination. In *Proceedings of International Conference on Business Management* (11).

Wilson, R.M., Runciman, W.B., Gibberd, R.W., Harrison, B.T., Newby, L., and Hamilton, J.D. (1995). The quality in Australian health care study. *Medical Journal of Australia, 163*(9):458-471.

Wirtz, J., Mattila, A.S., and Tan, R.L. (2000). The moderating role of target-arousal on the impact of affect on satisfaction—an examination in the context of service experiences. *Journal of Retailing, 76*(3):347-365.

Wong, I.A. and Dioko, L.D.A. (2013). Understanding the mediated moderating role of customer expectations in the customer satisfaction model: The case of casinos. *Tourism Management*, *36*:188-199.

World Health Organisation. (2015). Swaziland:WHO Statistical profile. Statistics and global health estimates by WHO and UN partners. Accessed on 19 June 2015 at http://www.who.int/gho/countries/swz.pdf?ua=1

World Travel and Tourism Council. (2015). Economic Impact 2015: Swaziland. Accessed on 12 September at http://www.wttc.org//media/files/reports/economic%20impact%20research/countries%202015/swaziland2015.pdf

Xia, W.J.Z., Chaolin, G., and Feng, Z. (2009). Examining Antecedents and Consequences of Tourist Satisfaction: A Structural Modeling Approach. *Tsinghua Science and Technology*, *17*(18):397-406.

Yang, Z. and Peterson, R.T., 2004. Customer perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty: The role of switching costs. *Psychology and Marketing*, *21*(10):799-822.

Yi, Y. and La, S. (2003). The moderating role of confidence in expectations and the asymmetric influence of disconfirmation on customer satisfaction. *The Service Industries Journal*, *23*(5):20-47.

Yi, Y. (1990). A critical review of consumer satisfaction. *Review of Marketing*:168-123.

Yi, Y. (1993). The determinants of consumer satisfaction: the moderating role of ambiguity. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *20*(1):502-506.

Yoo, M. and Bai, B. (2013). Customer loyalty marketing research: A comparative approach between hospitality and business journals. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *33*:166-177.

Yoon, Y. and Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: a structural model. *Tourism Management, 26*(1):45-56.

Yu, H. and Littrell, M.A. (2005). Tourists' shopping orientations for handcrafts: what are key influences? *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 18*(4):1-19.

Yu, L. and Goulden, M. (2006). A comparative analysis of international tourists' satisfaction in Mongolia. *Tourism Management, 27*(6):1331-1342.

Yuksel, A. and Yuksel, F. (2001). The Expecancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm: A critique. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 25*(1):107-131.

Yuksel, A., Yuksel, F., and Bilim, Y. (2010). Destination attachment: Effects on customer satisfaction and cognitive, affective and conative loyalty. *Tourism Management, 31*(2):274-284.

Yuksel, E., Philip, L.D., and Graham, R.M. (2008). An extended model of the antecedents and consequences of consumer satisfaction for hospitality services. *European Journal of Marketing, 42*(1):35-68.

Zboja, J.J. and Voorhees, C.M. (2006). The impact of brand trust and satisfaction on retailer repurchase intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing, 20*(6):381-390.

Zehrer, A., Crotts, J.C., and Magnini, V.P. (2011). The perceived usefulness of blog postings: An extension of the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm. *Tourism Management, 32*(1):106-113.

Zeithaml, V.A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: a means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *The Journal of Marketing:*2-22.

Zeithaml, V.A., Bitner, M.J., and Gremler, D.D. (2006). *Services marketing: integrating customer focus across the firm. (4th ed.)*. Singapore: McGraw-Hill. pp.117.

Zikmund, W.G. and Babin, B.J. (2007). *Exploring Marketing Research*. Ohio: Thomson South-Western.

APPENDIX A

Sample Participant Letter

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND,

JOHANNESBURG

Date: 30 July 2015

Good Day

My name is Vuyelwa C. Mashwama and I am a Master of Commerce student in the Marketing Division at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. As part of completing my programme at the University, I am conducting a research assignment.

The study aims to find out the perceptions of both local and international tourists about Swaziland as a tourist destination, including how the views held by tourists about Swaziland will influence their intention to return to Swaziland or to recommend Swaziland as destination to others.

As a tourist currently in Swaziland and a potential future visitor to Swaziland, I am asking that you complete the questionnaire. It consists of seven sections with a total of 58 questions, kindly read each question carefully and please answer all questions as honestly as you can. The entire survey should take between 15 to 20 minutes to complete.

Your response is important and there are no right or wrong answers. This survey is both confidential and anonymous. Anonymity and confidentiality are guaranteed by not asking you to enter your name or contact information on the questionnaire. Your participation is completely voluntary and involves no risk, penalty, or loss of benefits whether or not you participate. You may omit any question you do not want to answer. Completing and returning the questionnaire will be taken as consent that your answer can be used in the study.

Thank you for considering participating. Should you have any questions, or should you wish to obtain a copy of the results of the survey, please contact me on
Cell: +2760 396 7564
Email: vuyelwa.mashwama@students.wits.ac.za

Or contact my supervisor
Mr Norman Chiliya
Email: norman.chiliya@wits.ac.za

Kind Regards

Vuyelwa C. Mashwama
Honours Student: Division of Marketing
School of Economic and Business Sciences
University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS

- **Please read each question carefully.**
- **This questionnaire will be kept completely confidential, so please answer questions as honestly as you can.**

SECTION A - BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

Please indicate your answer by drawing a cross in the appropriate box

A1 What gender are you?

1	Male	
2	Female	

A2 What age are you?

1	18-24	
2	25-34	
3	35-44	
4	45-54	
5	54 and over	

A3 What is your current level of education?

1	Primary	
2	High School	
3	University	
4	Postgraduate	

A4 What is your current occupation?

1	Student	

2	Housework	
3	Civil servant	
4	Self-employed	
5	Other	

A5 Who are you traveling with?

1	By myself	
2	With family	
3	With friends	
4	With a tour group	

A6 What is your past travelling experience to Swaziland?

1	First-time visit to Swaziland?	
2	Repeated visit to Swaziland?	

A7 Please indicate your nationality

_____

SECTION B – DESTINATION IMAGE

This section explores your perception of the **IMAGE** of Swaziland as a destination.

			1	2	3	4	5	
B1	Swaziland offers personal safety	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B2	Swaziland offers a good quality of life	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B3	Swaziland is clean	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B4	Swaziland has a good name and reputation	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B5	Swaziland is hospitable	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B6	Swaziland has high quality accommodation	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B7	Swaziland has high quality infrastructure	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B8	Swaziland has friendly people	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B9	Swaziland has a good night life	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B10	Swaziland has good shopping places	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree

B11	Swaziland has varied cuisines (foods)	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B12	Swaziland is exotic and interesting	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B13	Swaziland has interesting cultural attractions	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B14	Swaziland has a great variety of wildlife	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B15	Swaziland has a great variety of vegetation	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B16	Swaziland has a spectacular landscape	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B17	Swaziland has unusual ways of life and customs	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
B18	Swaziland has good weather	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree

SECTION C – SATISFACTION

This section explores your **SATISFACTION** with your visit to Swaziland (destinations).

			1	2	3	4	5	
C1	Overall, how satisfied were you with your visit to Swaziland?	Very satisfied						Not satisfied
C2	How would you rate your satisfaction, considering what you expected?	Very satisfied						Not satisfied
C3	How would you rate your satisfaction compared with your time and efforts spent in visiting Swaziland?	Very satisfied						Not satisfied

SECTION D – CUSTOMER TRUST IN THE DESTINATION

This section explores your **TRUST** of Swaziland as a destination.

			1	2	3	4	5	
D1	I trust this destination	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
D2	I feel that I can trust this destination completely	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
D3	I can rely on this destination	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
D4	I feel secure when I visit this destination because I know that it will never let me down	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree

SECTION E – ATTITUDE TOWARD THE DESTINATION

This section explores your **ATTITUDE TOWARD SWAZILAND** as a destination.

As a tourism destination, I think that Swaziland is:								
			1	2	3	4	5	
E1	Very Good	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
E2	Very Valuable	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
E3	Very Pleasant	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree

SECTION F – INTENTITION TO REVISIT

This section explores your **INTENTION TO REVISIT** Swaziland in future.

			1	2	3	4	5	
F1	If I revisit southern Africa, my first choice will be Swaziland	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
F2	I consider revisiting Swaziland in the future	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
F3	The probability that I visit Swaziland again in the future is high	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree

SECTION G – INTENTION TO RECOMMEND

This section explores your **INTENTION TO RECOMMEND** Swaziland as a destination.

			1	2	3	4	5	
G1	I will say positive things about Swaziland to those around me	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
G2	I will encourage those around me to come visit Swaziland	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
G3	I will recommend Swaziland as a destination to other people	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
G4	When asked about a holiday destination, I will recommend Swaziland	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree

Thank You for Time to Fill up the Questionnaire

APPENDIX C

Ethics Clearances Certificate

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Mashwama

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H15/07/33**
PROJECT TITLE	Destination image of Swaziland: Perceptions of local and International tourists
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Ms V Mashwama
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Economics and Business Science/
DATE CONSIDERED	24 JUly 2015
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved unconditionally
EXPIRY DATE	13 August 2018

DATE 14 August 2015 **CHAIRPERSON** _____
(Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Mr N Chilliya

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10005, 10th Floor, Senate House, University.

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

_____ _____/_____/_____
Signature **Date**

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES