

Recebido em 08.10.2020 Aprovado em 10.12.2020 Avaliado pelo sistema double blind review Editor Científico: Marlusa de Sevilha Gosling

DOI: 10.29149/mtr.v6i2.6746

A psychographic segmentation of inbound tourists to South Africa based on country image, the place brand and travel motives



Uma segmentação psicográfica dos turistas que chegam à África do Sul com base na imagem do país, na marca do lugar e nos motivos de viagem.

Tafadzwa Matiza, North-West University, South Africa (matizata@hotmail.com)

Martinette Kruger, North-West University, South Africa (martinette.Kruger@nwu.ac.za)

ABSTRACT

As tourist behaviour evolves due to the effects of globalization, consumerism and contemporary events, tourism practitioners as specialized place managers need to innovate and adapt to market shifts consistently. The paper explores the utility of country image and place brands in conjunction with travel motives as segmentation bases for inbound tourists. A quantitative-deductive study was conducted. Data was generated from a sample of 206 inbound tourists to South Africa using a self-administered questionnaire and was analyzed via exploratory factor, hierarchical cluster, analysis of variance, cross-tabulations and chisquare analyses, respectively. The hierarchical cluster analysis identifies four psychographic segments based on tourists' susceptibility to the influence of country image(s), place brand dimensions, and attributes in their decision-making. Moreover, the inbound tourist segments fit into Plog's seminal psychographic



framework. Critical insights into how country image and place brands are increasingly significant as perceptual dimensions in tourist decision-making are provided and may help tourism marketers synchronize their tourism products and marketing communications with specific target segments.

Keywords: Country image, place brand, psychographic segmentation, pull travel motives, South African tourism.

INTRODUCTION

Travel motivation is the cornerstone of tourism research to better understand and predict tourist behaviour (Farmakia, Khalilzadehb & Altinayc, 2019; Sung, Chang &Sung, 2016). However, globalization and the subsequent competitive forces within the global tourism market have induced a paradigm shift in tourist behaviour towards a very discernable reliance on subjective cognitive representations of destinations as 'branded places' for decision-making (Buhmann, 2015; Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele & Beaumont, 2009). The conceptualization of places as brands has been further buoyed by globalization-induced consumerism, resulting in the subsequent evolution of 'Place Brands' (PBs) as influential micro-image constructs in consumer decision-making (Cohen, Prayag & Moital, 2014; Helmi, Bridson & Casidy, 2020; Källström & Hultman, 2019). Countries' generic perceptions in the form of 'Country Image' (CI) have followed suit, becoming increasingly integral to decision-making (Dinnie, 2008). Moreover, Cls represent the superseding macro-image constructs that consumers utilize as heuristic cues in their consumptive decision-making (Buhmann, 2015). However, academic inquiry into the susceptibility of tourism destinations to the subjective biases [such as the CI and PB] of tourists in their decision-making has generally lagged behind the extent of the proliferation of the strategic adaptation of brands and brand marketing theory by places (countries, regions, cities) to effectively market and differentiate themselves as tourism destinations (Hankinson, 2004;



Nadeau, Heslpo, O'Reilly & Luk, 2008; Palau-Saumell, Forgas-Coll, Amaya-Molinar & Sánchez-García, 2016; Zhang, Wu, Morrison, Tseng & Chen, 2018).

Apart from the impact of amplified competitive forces, African tourism destinations are prone to Afro-pessimism (de B'béri & Louw, 2011). Afropessimism refers to the stereotypical misnomers associated with the continent as a war-ravaged, poverty and disease-ridden, under-developed region of the world (Nothias, 2018; Signé, 2018). Consequently, African tourism destinations, unlike other tourism regions may be susceptible to the adverse socio-economic effects of the perceptual deficit associated with the continent due to the inextricable link between tourism and the perception(s) held of a country (Papadopoulos & Hamzaoui-Essoussi, 2015; Reitsamer & Brunner-Sperdin, 2017). Perception as, "[...] the process by which an individual select, organizes and interprets stimuli in a meaningful and coherent way," (Moutinho, 1993: p.11), is therefore significant in explaining the heterogeneity in tourist behaviour and decision-making (Bertan & Altintas, 2013). Cl and the PB form the mental representations and subjective biases that inform tourist perceptions as antecedents to tourist behaviour (Bertan & Altintaş, 2013; Cohen et al., 2014). Hence, Källström and Hultman (2019) suggest that the effective management of places is predicated on establishing a more nuanced understanding of its stakeholders' perceptions. The present study utilizes perceptions based on CI, PB dimensions, in conjunction with travel motives as psychographic bases to establish discernible inbound tourist segments for South African (SA) tourism.

To date, academic inquiry into the utility of CI and PBs as perceptual psychographic segmentation bases has been deficient, more-so from an African tourism perspective. Tkaczynski et al. (2009) identified 18 studies that have utilized psychographic bases to segment tourists, including the cases of Australia, Canada, Taiwan, South Africa and Kenya. However, the present study aims to examine the utility of CI, PBs and pull travel motives as



psychographic segmentation bases for inbound tourists to South Africa to establish discernable inbound tourist clusters primarily based on tourist perceptions. This study is one of the first to provide empirical evidence of the heterogeneity in tourist perceptions associated with country image (CI), place brand (PB) dimensions in conjunction with travel motives within the African tourism context. Relatedly, the research, to the best of the author's knowledge, is also possibly one of the first to explore tourist segmentation within the nexus of Plog's psychographic typologies and CI, PB and travel motives for an African tourism destination.

Therefore, by profiling tourists based on their perceived influence of South Africa's CI, PB and pull travel motives (destination attributes), the study makes three significant contributions. First, the study extends CI, PB and travel motives theory to psychographic segmentation within the South African tourism context, thus advancing the body of knowledge in the literature in terms of the notion of the potential influence of generic images, places as brands and tourist motives on tourist behaviour and decision-making. Second, the study complements the extent of the literature by establishing the utility of CI- and PB- induced perceptions as a practical psychographic basis for the segmentation of tourists and valid psychographic explanatory factors in the heterogeneity of tourist decision-making. Third, by exploring the utility and applicability of CI and PB in conjunction with travel motives as a basis for segmenting inbound tourists within Plog's framework, the present study also introduces Plog's framework to place branding theory within the contemporary tourism discourse.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review discusses the role of the PB, CI and travel motives in tourism, before presenting Plog's framework as a basis for psychographic segmentation in tourism.



The place brand and country image in tourism

Conceptually grounded in nation branding theory, the PB is the multidimensional cognitive associations that consumers utilize as reference points for information symmetry in consumptive decision-making (Matiza and Slabbert, 2020a). These points of reference are the generic and intangible attributes (governance; tourism; investment and immigration; exports; people; culture and heritage) that tourists may adapt as subjective heuristic cues to inform their conative behaviour (Dinnie, 2008; Rodrigues, Skinner, Dennis &Melewar, 2019). Prior studies (Cook, 2010; Das & Mukherjee, 2016; Reitsamer and Brunner-Sperdin, 2017) have established the influence of PBs on tourist behaviour, however, from an evaluative perspective, there appears to be no consensus within the literature with regards to a generic measurement of the PB (Matiza & Slabbert, 2020b). Within the tourism context, the PB is a critical contemporary marketing axiom for tourism destinations (Matiza & Slabbert, 2020a), representing a destination's value proposition in tourists' minds (Kladou, Kavaratzis, Rigopoulou & Salonika, 2017). Thus, as a multi-dimensional communication platform, the PB provides a tourism destination's external stakeholders with information symmetry for decision-making (Helmi et al., 2020). Evaluating the PB is considered an approach to better understanding the perceptions and experiences consumers associate with a place (Hanna & Rowley, 2013; Stylidis, Sit & Biran, 2018).

With its conceptual roots in international marketing theory, CI is a summative multi-dimensional construct that refers to, "[...] tangible information, biases, imaginations, impressions, and emotional musings," associated with a specific country (Hwang, Asif & Lee, 2020: p.4). Thus, CI is a cognitive and affective antecedent to consumer perceptions in evaluating products, attributes and ultimately their purchase decisions (Campo & Alvarez, 2010; Septianto, Chiew & Thai, 2020; Stepchenkova, Shichkova, Kim & Rykhtik, 2018). From an eclectic perspective, destinations as brands are susceptible to a country's overall



image; hence the CI is a generic superseding macro-image construct (Matiza & Slabbert, 2020a; Motsi & Park, 2019; Zhang et al., 2018). Within the tourism context, the literature (Alvarez & Campo, 2014; Chung & Chen, 2018; Stepchenkova et al., 2018) suggests that tourists are increasingly utilizing countries' images as heuristic cues in their decision-making process. Notwithstanding the diverse nature of the CI dimensions within the literature, emerging studies have generally established a nexus between CI and tourist behaviour (De Nisco, Papadopoulos & Elliot 2017; Motsi & Park, 2019; Prayag, 2009; Zhang, Xu, Leung & Cai, 2016). To date, tourism studies, though limited, have shown empirical evidence that CI aspects such as the generic image of the country (Farmakia et al., 2019), the product brands associated with a country (Septianto et al., 2020), as well as the ability of the country to manage its affairs in terms of security, governance, political stability (Alvarez & Campo, 2014), impact tourist decision-making.

Travel motives in tourism

Travel motivation is the primary antecedent of tourist behaviour (Chen & Chen, 2015; Farmakia et al., 2019; Villamediana-Pedrosa, Vila-López & Küster-Bolud, 2020). The Push-Pull Framework (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977, 1981; Sung et al., 2016) is a seminal explanatory model of tourist behaviour, whereby tourists are predisposed to be 'pushed' to engage in tourism activity by their personal needs and attracted (pulled) towards a specific tourism destination with the attributes that will optimally satisfy these needs (Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015; Prayag, 2010). Hence, the factors pushing tourists (relaxation, escape, adventure) are demand-oriented dimensions, while the factors pulling tourists (facilities, climate, monuments) to specific destinations are supply-oriented dimensions (Chen & Chen, 2015; Fieger, Prayag & Bruwer, 2019). A comprehensive review of tourism studies by Cohen et al. (2014) discern push and pull motives as a principal segmentation base in profiling tourist behaviour. Prior studies also clarify the dichotomy between push and pull motives as a basis for tourist segmentation, with Pesonen (2012)



establishing four tourist segments in rural tourism in Finland, while Sung et al. (2016) establish five tourist typologies based on their distinction between push and pull travel motives amongst international tourists to Taiwan. The literature points to the lack of consensus regarding a universal typology of tourists based on travel motives (Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015), primarily due to the subjective nature and idiosyncrasies associated with domestic versus international tourists (Kim, 2007), intrinsic (demand-side) versus extrinsic (supply-side) stimuli, as well as in some cases, nationality (Prayag & Ryan, 2011) in decision-making. Hence, the proliferation of and the impetus for country-specific studies when exploring segmentation within the tourism context.

Psychographic segmentation in tourism

Segmentation is a seminal marketing concept that is associated with the decomposition of mass markets into smaller homogenous groups based on a pre-determined criterion that fall within four conventional bases - geographic, demographic, behavioural and psychographic (Albayrak & Caber, 2018; Stylidis et al., 2018; Tkaczynski et al., 2009). As one of the primary data-driven approaches to grouping tourists into distinct discernable typologies, psychographic segmentation is based on idiosyncratic and subjective variables such as perceptions, beliefs, values, and attitudes (Pesonen, 2012). Psychographic variables may thus, be considered to be more effective and practical for marketers than other conventional segmentation bases as they reflect 'personality nuances' that better explain the heterogeneity in aspects such as the affective and conative behaviour(s) of consumers (Barry & Weinstein, 2009). More pertinently, Cohen et al. (2014) view personality traits as a crucial antecedent to the identification and influence of 'brands' in tourism.

Within the tourism discourse, the seminal work of Plog (1974, 2001, 2002) has advanced the notion that the patterns and preferences of travellers/tourists



are predicated on their psychographic profile. According to Plog (2002), psychographic tourist typologies may be decomposed into the five distinct groups summarised.

Table 1: Plog's psychographic classification of travellers

Tourist typology	Inherent characteristics
Psychocentric	Self-inhibitedConservativeNervous
Near psychocentric	 Non-adventuresome Prefer the 'familiar' in vacation travel destinations High revisit intention if satisfied Often have a restricted budget Prefer well-known branded consumer products
Mid-centric	Moderate personality, exhibiting both psychocentric and allocentric characteristics
Near Allocentric	 Outgoing Make decisions easily Self-confident Wants to see and do new things
Allocentric	 Explore the world around them Generally, show lower revisit intentions Spend income readily Choose new products rather than sticking with popular brands Seek new destinations continuously

Adapted from Litvin and Smith (2016); Park and Jang (2014); Plog (1974)

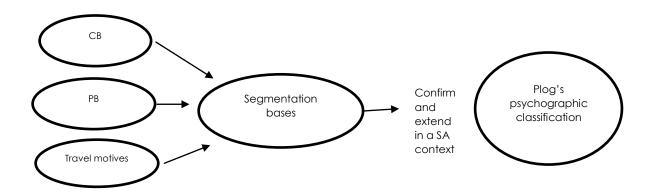
As surmised (Table 1), psychocentric individuals tend to be conservative and cautious, preferring to consume safer, popular, tried and tested options, while allocentric individuals tend to be more open in their consumptive decisions, being more outgoing, confident and adventurous in their decision-making (Cruz-Milán, 2019; Litvin & Smith, 2016; Plog, 1974). It is based on this continuum that tourists could be segmented into distinct typologies. Plog's framework has, however, and quite understandably been subject to critique for being overly simplistic and not taking into account other intrinsic (motives, beliefs, values) and extrinsic (finances, governance, destination management) forces in its definition of tourist typologies (Li & Cai, 2012; Litvin



& Smith, 2016). Despite the afore-mentioned criticisms, Plog's notion of the influence of human personality type on consumptive tourism decisions and behaviour remains seminal as a fundamental explanatory framework for tourist behaviour and is fundamentally a 'useful' segmentation basis (Park & Jang, 2014; Piuchan, 2018; Plog, 2006).

Based on the afore-mentioned discussion, the hypothesized framework is outlined in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Hypothesized model



As shown in Figure 1, apart from establishing the relevance and usefulness of Plog's framework, the discussion of the framework as a segmentation basis informed by heuristic cues (CI and PB) may provide empirical evidence that extends Plog's framework beyond principally behavioural variables - certainly in the case of SA tourism - to include perceptual variables.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling method and survey

The positivistic research paradigm was adopted for the study. A quantitative cross-sectional deductive inquiry was undertaken to generate the data as part of a larger project to examine the relationship between SA's country image, place brand and the travel motives of inbound tourists based on the attributes (pull factors) of SA as a tourism destination. Data were generated



from a survey of international tourists visiting SA between the 6th and 9th of November 2018. The Table Mountain Aerial Cableway in Cape Town, SA was the study site. Table Mountain was suitable as a site as it is one of SA's and Africa's top international tourist attractions. Inbound tourists represent a 'hardto-reach' research population; thus, a convenient-purposive sample was drawn. A team of four trained fieldworkers distributed 400 self-administered questionnaires to visitors, resulting in 395 usable questionnaires being returned. Since only the respondents who fully completed the relevant sections related to the employed psychographic segmentation bases could be included in the cluster analysis, an adequate sample of n=206 was suitable for analysis within the context of the present study. The incomplete surveys are common in convenience samples at busy tourism sites. The incomplete surveys were a result of study site being Ariel Cableway station of Table Mountain. Waiting times varied hence some respondents were able to complete the survey while others were unable to due to time constraints. This research is exploratory, and the literature (Jung & Lee, 2011; Winter, Dodou & Wieringa, 2009) suggests that the sample is adequate for an exploratory data analysis.

The measuring instrument

The survey questionnaire consisted of four sections soliciting, sociodemographic, CI, SA's PB dimensions, and attribute-based (pull) travel motives information. The socio-demographic information solicited included the gender, age, education, employment status, country of residence and travel frequency of the tourists. CI was measured based on nine statements drawn from previous studies (Dinnie 2008; Nadeau et al., 2008; Palau-Saumell et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018) that have attempted to measure CI within the tourism discourse. Tourists were asked to rate certain CI variables' influence on their generic perception of SA as a country. Tourist responses were recorded on a five-point Likert scale of influence [(1) Very negative influence to (5) Very positive influence]. To measure the influence of PB dimensions, tourists were asked to indicate to what extent each statement



influenced their decision to travel to SA. Forty-four PB statements were utilized within the framework of Nation Brand Hexagon (NBH). Therefore, statements measured governance; tourism; investment and immigration; people; culture and heritage as latent variables (see Matiza & Slabbert, 2020b; Zugic & Konatar, 2018). Exports were excluded as it was not within the scope of the broader study. Uniquely, in addition to the five conventional NBH, the study measured marketing and negative associations as PB dimensions (see Avraham, 2018; Han & Hyun, 2014). Respondents indicated to what extent they believed the statements were influential to their perception of SA as a tourism destination on a five-point Likert scale of agreement, (1 = 'Not at all influential' and 5 = 'Extremely influential'). Data on the attribute-based travel motives was measured based on four latent variables, leisure-, nature-based-, business- (five observed variables each) and medical- (six observed variables) tourism-oriented attributes. Travel motive item statements were drawn from the literature, and tourists were asked to indicate their agreement with the statements related to why they had visited, visit, or consider visiting SA. Tourist responses were recorded on an ordinal five-point Likert scale of agreement [(1) Strongly disagree to (5) Strongly agree].

Statistical analyses

The statistical analysis was conducted in three stages to identify tourists' different segments based on their rating of the brand factors influencing tourism to SA. Firstly, exploratory factor analyses (EFAs) using a Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization, were performed in IBM SPSS Version 26 (2019) [hereafter referred to as SPSS], respectively on the country image, brand identity and the pull attributes. Kaiser's criteria for the extraction of all factors with Eigenvalues greater than one were used(see Dryglas & Salamaga, 2017; Galloway, 2002; Kastenholz, Davis & Paul, 1999). In all cases, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (value should be greater than .70) was used to determine whether the covariance matrix was suitable for factor analysis and Bartlett's test of sphericity should be



significant (p < 0.05). All items with a factor loading greater than 0.5 were considered contributing to a factor (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2019). To test the reliability of the identified factors, reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha above 0.6) and inter-item correlations (between 0.15 and 0.55) were calculated (Clark & Watson, 2016). Factor scores (\bar{x} = mean values) were calculated as the average of all items contributing to a factor to interpret them on the original five-point Likert scales.

Secondly, a cluster analysis was performed in TIBCO Statistica® 13.6.0 (2019) [hereafter referred to as Statistica] with the EFAs as the segmentation base to identify the different segments of tourists based on the branding factors. A multi-segmentation base approach was thus followed. A hierarchical cluster analysis was used to explore the data's natural structure using Ward's method with squared Euclidean distances. Lastly, ANOVAs and Cross-tabulations and chi-square test results were performed in SPSS to indicate statistically significant differences - based on respondents' socio-demographic profile.

RESULTS

Respondent profile

There was a generally even distribution between male and female respondents with slightly more male respondents (53%). The average age of respondents was 34 years with a high level of education [Bachelor's degree (38%) or a post-graduate qualification (23%)]. More than half of the respondents are employed in the private sector (52%), followed by those employed in the public sector (23%). A large percentage of the respondents originated from other various individual source countries (45%), while the rest were from SA's traditional source markets, the United Kingdom (19%); Germany (15%), the United States of America (12%) and the Netherlands (7%), (see Department of Tourism SA, 2018). For 75% of the respondents, it was their first visit to SA, while only 25% had visited the country before. The most influential media channels are word-of-mouth referrals (45%), while the



Internet (24%) and previous visits (11%) also played a role in decision-making. Printed and other mass media channels were less influential (between 2% and 6% respectively).

Identifying the psychographic segmentation bases: Results from the EFAs

To identify the segmentation bases, the EFA was conducted. The sample for the CI, PB dimensions and pull travel motive EFA's was both adequate and suitable for factor analysis, CI [KMO = .82, Bartlett's test of sphericity: x2 (36) = 488.746, p < 0.05]; PB [KMO = .87, Bartlett's test of sphericity: x2 (946) = 4187.382, p < 0.05]; and pull travel motives [KMO = 0.85, Bartlett's test of sphericity: x2 (210) = 2787.29, p < 0.05], respectively. The EFA revealed two CI factors, six PB and five pull travel motive factors (Table 2, refer to Appendix 1 for the statements and factor loading coefficients).

Table 2: EFA results on the country image, place brand and pull travel motives statements

Factor	*Items loaded	Loc	ctor iding ficients	Eigenvalues (EV)	Var. (%)	Cum. Var. (%)	Cronbach alpha	Avg, inter- item correlation	Mean value (x)
		Min	Max						
Country Image (0	CI)								
Stereotypical CI	6	.508	.818	3.55	31.27	31.37	.78	.37	4.09
Reverse-									
Country-of-	3	.630	.826	1.33	22.98	54.25	.69	.43	3.44
Origin CI									
Place Brand dime	ensions (P	В)							
Marketing	6	.568	.818	16.19	14.02	14.02	.89	.57	3.62
Socio-cultural	9	.516	.751	3.18	13.40	27.43	.90	.50	3.32
Governance	5	.713	.802	2.35	11.51	38.93	.86	.56	3.12
Tourism profile	4	.638	.711	2.15	8.27	47.20	.73	.40	2.96
Competitive									
advantages	6	.535	.707	1.75	7.70	54.90	.73	.31	3.88
Negative	3	.504	.609	1.54	6.82	61.72	.80	.58	3.12
associations									
Pull travel motive	factors to	ourists c	ıssociat	e with tourism	to SA				
Medical tourism									
attributes	6	.839	.894	7.46	23.40	23.40	.95	.76	3.16
Nature-based									
tourism	5	.740	.863	3.76	17.15	40.55	.87	.58	4.29
attributes				2.7 0			.3,	.30	



Factor	*Items loaded	Loc	ictor ading ficients	Eigenvalues (EV)	Var. (%)	Cum. Var. (%)	Cronbach alpha	Avg, inter- item correlation	Mean value (x)
		Min	Max						
Business tourism attributes	5	.723	.830	2.06	16.31	56.86	.88	.59	3.05
Leisure tourism attributes	3	.651	.769	1.51	10.46	67.32	.74	.49	3.93
Cultural tourism attributes	2	.682	.784	1.01	7.91	75.22	.68	0.52	3.80

^{*}All item statements are provided in Appendix 1

Principal Component Analysis, Varimax with Kaiser Normalization; Factor loading coefficient (≥.50)

As summarised in Table 2, CI extracted two factors, explaining a cumulative 54% of the variance in the data. Stereotypical CI had a more positive influence ($\bar{x} = 4.09$) on tourist perceptions than Reverse Country-of-origin CI ($\bar{x} = 3.44$). The EFA on the PB dimensions extracted six factors explaining a cumulative 62% of the variance in the data. Competitive advantages ($\bar{x} = 3.88$) was regarded as the most influential factor, followed by Marketing ($\bar{x} = 3.62$). Socio-cultural ($\bar{x} = 3.32$), Governance ($\bar{x} = 3.12$) and Negative associations ($\bar{x} = 3.12$) ranging between somewhat and quite influential. Tourism profile ($\bar{x} = 2.96$) was the lowest-rated factor, considered somewhat influential.

The EFA also extracted five pull travel motive factors that explained 75% of the variance in the data. Nature-based tourism attributes (\bar{x} = 4.29) was the attribute respondents associate with tourism to SA the most. This was followed by Leisure tourism attributes (\bar{x} = 3.93), and Cultural tourism attributes (\bar{x} = 3.80). Medical tourism attributes (\bar{x} = 3.16) and Business tourism attributes (\bar{x} = 3.05) were less associated with tourism attributes. All the factors (Table 2), reported Eigenvalues greater than one, valid Cronbach's alpha statistics (\geq 0.6) and average inter-item correlations within the recommended parameters of between 0.15 and 0.55.

Identifying the market segments through cluster analysis



The cluster analysis using Ward's method with squared Euclidean distances was performed in Statistica on the identified factors' scores (Table 2). A four-cluster (Segment) solution was selected as being the most discriminatory (Figure 2).

Tree Diagram for 206 Cases
Ward's method
Euclidean distances

70

60

50

20

10

0

Figure 2: Four-segment (cluster) solution: Ward's method with squared Euclidean

Source: Statistica Version 13 (2020)

As presented in Table 3, the ANOVAs indicate that all factors contributed to the differentiation between the four segments (p < 0.05). However, only a small to moderate difference between Segment 2 and 4 and Segment 3 and 4 based on some factors. The biggest statistically and practically significant differences are between Segment 1 and the rest. All four segments rated Stereotypical CI as having a more positive influence than Reverse-country-of-origin CI, which was only rated as influential by Segment 1. In terms of the PB dimensions, consistent with the EFA results, Competitive advantages were regarded as the most influential place branding factor with the rating of the other factors varying among the segments. In Table 3, the age of the respondents is also included but indicated no statistically significant difference (p > 0.05) (this variable was not included in the cluster analysis and



only included here since it is a continuous variable measured in the questionnaire).

Table 3: Identified tourist segments differences between the segments

	Seg. 1	Seg.2	Seg. 3	Seg. 4			
	N = 13	N = 42	N = 70	N = 81	F-ratio	#Sig. level	
Country image							
Stereotypical CI	4.77a	3.69b	4.17ab	4.11ab	17.836	0.001	
Reverse-Country-of-Origin CI	4.38a	3.12 ^b	3.61°	3.26 ^b	15.206	0.001	
Place branding							
Marketing	4.20a	2.79 ^b	3.84ª	3.75°	25.782	0.001	
Socio-cultural	4.32a	2.56b	3.63℃	3.26c	34.741	0.001	
Governance	3.95□	2.66b	3.68a	2.78b	23.587	0.001	
Tourism Profile	4.33a	2.51°	3.52 ^b	2.47°	48.929	0.001	
Competitive advantages	4.41a	3.13b	4.10bc	4.00c	35.924	0.001	
Negative associations	4.23a	2.35 ^b	3.49°	3.02c	25.773	0.001	
Pull attributes							
Medical tourism attributes	4.74°	2.84b	2.97b	3.25b	24.017	0.001	
Nature-based tourism attributes	4.88°	3.82b	4.29°	4.45°	14.125	0.001	
Business tourism attributes	4.60a	2.92 ^b	3.22 ^b	2.71b	22.250	0.001	
Leisure tourism attributes	4.97a	3.33 ^b	3.90℃	4.09°	24.187	0.001	
Cultural tourism attributes	4.81ª	3.17b	3.99℃	3.81c	21.780	0.001	
Socio-demographic characteristics							
Av. age	32.77	35.81	33.17	32.06	0.447	0.720	

[#] Statistically significant difference: $p \le 0.05$

Cross-tabulations and chi-square tests were performed on the categorical variables. This was done to create a detailed profile of the different tourist segments. No statistically significant differences were yielded (p>0.05). When interpreting the level of significance and the phi-values (ϕ), there were small and only one medium effect size difference between the segments (0.1 for a small effect, 0.3 for a medium effect and 0.5 for a large effect based on Cohen, 1988). Overall, the results showed that the segments have a distribution among respondents in terms of gender (p=0.573; $\phi=0.099$), level of education (p=0.740; $\phi=0.205$) and country of residence (p=0.306; $\phi=0.260$). All four segments were mainly employed in the private sector (60%, 55%, 51% and 49% respectively, p=0.145; $\phi=0.269$). The majority of respondents in all four segments were first-time visitors to SA (p=0.881; $\phi=0.881$; $\phi=$



a Group differs significantly from type (in a row) where b or c is indicated.

^{*1} = Segment 1; 2 = Segment 2; 3 = Segment 3 and 4 = Segment 4

0.057) and mainly relied on word-of-mouth referrals and the Internet in their decision-making (p = 0.359; $\phi = 0.315$). The tourist typology is discussed with reference to Table 3, in conjunction with the data summarised in Appendix 2.

A typology of tourists to SA

To the best of the author's knowledge, the present study is one of the first to utilize CI, PB and travel motives as a unitary segmentation base for inbound tourists to an African tourism destination. For this study, it was deemed prudent to ensure rigour and utilize an established, albeit generic, psychographic framework to categorize tourists. Therefore, Plog's (1974, 2001, 2002) psychographic tourist typologies were applied to the four identified segments. The segments were labelled to resemble each segment's psychographic profile based on perceptions (CI and PB), and the perceived attributes tourists consider as pull motivation factors of SA as a tourist destination (Table 3). The segmentation is also buoyed by the socio-demographic attributes of tourists (cross-tabulation results).

Segment 1: Psychocentric tourists

Segment 1 was labelled *Psychocentric tourists*. Within the SA context, the average *Psychocentric tourist* was aged 33, female (62%), possessed a post-graduate qualification (33%), was employed in the private sector (60%) and originated predominantly from countries outside SA's traditional source markets (62%). Despite making up the smallest segment, with only 13 respondents, compared to the other segments, *Psychocentric tourists* had the highest rating across all the factors. Both CI factors had a very positive influence on tourists' perception of SA, while all six PB dimensions were very influential to their decision to travel to SA. *Competitive advantages, Tourism profile* and *Socio-cultural* factors were the most influential PB dimensions, respectively.



Furthermore, all five pull attributes influenced their decision to visit and may influence their decision to revisit the country. Leisure- and Naturebasedtourism attributes were the highest-rated travel motives. Tourists in this segment fit within Plog's (1974, 2001, 2002) Psychocentrictourist typology. It appears as though that they are highly susceptible to extrinsic stimuli (CI and PB) and the subsequent subjective biases in their decision-making, after indicating that various factors highly influenced them, appearing to seek information symmetry from sources including word-of-mouth and credible media platforms such as television (25% respectively). This corresponds with the self-inhibited, conservative and nervous nature of psychocentric individuals who may seek validation and information symmetry from multiple sources and prefer well-known branded products to make their consumptive decisions. Moreover, the socio-demographic results also showed that Psychocentrictourists to SA represented the highest return visitors (31%), fulfilling the inherent familiarity and return visit characteristics of Psychocentric tourists in this segment.

Segment 2: Allocentric tourists

Segment 2, with 42 respondents (the second smallest segment) was labelled Allocentric tourists. In terms of age, Allocentric tourists were the oldest with an average age of 36 years old (55%), predominantly male (57%), possessed a Bachelor's degree (38%) and were employed in either the private (55%) or the public sector (24%). While Allocentric tourists also originated from 'Other countries' (43%), a large percentage also originated from the UK (26%), one of SA's major tourist source markets. This segment of tourists fit within Plog's (1974, 2001, 2002) Allocentrictourist typology, because contrary to Psychocentric tourists, this segment has the lowest ratings across all the factors, only indicating the positive influence of Stereotypical CI.

Allocentric tourists also indicated that all PB dimensions were somewhat influential (Competitive advantages, Marketing and Governance,



respectively) to their decision to visit SA, revealing that while CI and PB factors influenced their perception of SA as a tourism destination, it was to a much lesser extent than other tourist typologies. *Nature-based tourism* attributes rated highest with this segment corroborating the Allocentric tourist's affinity for exploring and seeking a new destination to suit their outgoing nature. Additionally, typical of Plog's (1974, 2001, 2002) assertions of Allocentrics, most respondents in this segment had visited the country for the first time (79%) during the survey period, reporting the smallest percentage return visitors of all the segments. Word-of-mouth (41%) and the Internet (24%) were the most influential media to Allocentrictourist's decision-making, confirming the notion that Allocentric tourists are self-confident and are more likely to make their own decisions based on initial recommendations (word-of-mouth) and possibly reinforced by their information search (Internet).

Segment 3:Near psychocentric tourists

With 71 respondents, Segment 3 was the second largest segment and was labelled Near psychocentric tourists. A slight majority of Near psychocentric tourists were female (51%), possessed a Bachelor's degree (39%) or professional qualification (23%), respectively, and similar to Allocentric- and Psychocentric tourists were mainly employed in the private (51%) or the public sector (32%). This segment also had a high percentage of UK respondents (20%). Tourists within this segment fall within the Near psychocentric tourist category as it appears that similar to Psychocentric tourists, Both CI factors have a positive influence on their perceptions of SA, albeit with lower ratings in comparison. Near psychocentric tourists also rated the PB factors almost similar to Psychocentric tourists, with lower ratings (somewhat influential to quite influential), however the influence of the PB factors was higher than Segments 2 and 4, respectively.

Near psychocentric tourists were significantly influenced by SA's Competitive advantages (similar to Psychocentric tourists), followed by Marketing and



Governance (similar to Allocentrics), respectively. Nature-based tourism attributes were the most important pull motive attribute (rating higher than Allocentric- but lower than Psychocentric tourists), followed by Cultural- and Leisure tourism attributes. Near psychocentric tourists were more susceptible to both the CI and PB than Segments 2 and 4, suggesting inherent characteristics closer to Psychocentric tourists on Plog's spectrum. Word-ofmouth (42%) and the Internet (24%) were the most influential media channels suggesting that while others' views may have been important, self-verification was also important. Like Psychocentrics, a relatively significant proportion of Near psychocentric tourists (26%) had visited the country before.

Segment 4: Near allocentric tourists

Finally, Segment 4, with the largest number of respondents (81 tourists), was labelled Near allocentric tourists. Near allocentric tourists were the youngest based on their average age (32 years), and represented the most male respondents (57%) compared to the other segments. Near allocentric tourists also mainly possessed at least a Bachelor's degree (36%) or post-graduate qualification (23%), with the majority of respondents being employed in the private (49%) or public sector (28%). Furthermore, Near allocentric tourists had the widest distribution of respondents from SA's traditional source markets with the highest representation from Germany (22%), the UK and the Netherlands (14% each) compared to the other segments. This segment rated the CI and PB factors similar to Allocentric tourists but, slightly higher. Stereotypical CI had a positive influence and was rated higher than the Reverse Country-of-Origin CI. Competitive advantages and Marketing were the PB factors that were quite influential, followed by Socio-cultural (fairly influential).

Similar to Allocentrictourists, Near allocentric tourists rated Nature-based and Leisuretourism attributes highest, respectively. Within Plogs's (1974, 2001, 2002) typology framework, Near allocentric tourists appeared to be less susceptible to the influence of SA's CI and PB factors akin to Allocentric tourists,



suggesting that they were somewhat self-confident and made decisions more readily, with limited influence from extrinsic forces. The influence of the key PB factors (Competitive Advantages and Marketing) may point to their propensity to choose new products rather than sticking just with popular brands and seeking adventure and exploring new things. Near allocentric tourists reported the second-highest number of return visitors, unlike Allocentric tourists. Like the other segments, word-of-mouth (48%) and the Internet (27%) were the most influential media channels, potentially pointing to Allocentric tourists' reliance on others' opinions and recommendations, reinforced by self-directed information search.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

SA's CI is dichotomous as tourists are susceptible to both Stereotypical CI and Reverse-country-of-origin CI when forming generic perceptions of SA as a country. The literature (Buhmann, 2015; Hanna & Rowley, 2013, Liu, Hultman, Eisingerich & Wei, 2020) generally supports the dichotomy in the image of countries into organic (stereotypical) and induced (resulting in the reverse country-of-origin effect) oriented CI. However, what is unique is the finding that both CI typologies were pertinent in the SA context and that there was heterogeneity in the extent of influence of each CI typology regarding informing tourist perceptions. Stereotypical CI gave psychocentric tourists a very positive perception of SA and a favourable impression of the country to tourists within the three segments, albeit to varying degrees of influence. While SA's Reverse-country-of-origin CI only typically had a positive perceptual influence on psychocentric and near psychocentric tourists, who are predisposed to familiarity and preference for well-known branded products. The literature establishes that stereotypical organic aspects such as image (Fetscherin & Stephano, 2016), cultural heritage (Lunt, Mannion&Exworthy, 2013), openness to international visitors (Cook, 2010), as well as the stereotypical beliefs associated with the people of a country (Das & Mukherjee, 2016) are influential to the conative behaviour of tourists. While



induced reverse country-of-origin effect aspects such as branded export products (Madaleno, Eusébio& Varum, 2017), public diplomacy (Detotto, Giannoni & Goavec, 2017), as well as international business opportunities (Tichaawa, 2017) also influence the consumptive behaviour of tourists.

The study also established that tourist perceptions were, at a micro-level, influenced by six PB dimensions - including two novel PB dimensions (Sociocultural and Competitive advantages), hence, corroborating the literature (Hanna & Rowley, 2013; Helmi et al., 2020; Stylidis et al., 2018) on the subjectivity of PBs in tourist decision-making. The influence of SA's competitive advantages was synonymous with psychocentric-, near psychocentric- and near allocentric tourist segments, which may seek a certain level of certainty and ease of travel. The literature supports the influence of destination competitiveness aspects such as favourable visa policy towards the tourist's home country (Neumayer, 2010), the ease of immigration visa procedures associated with the destination (Matiza & Slabbert, 2020a), as well as the availability of human-made tourism attractions (Mussalam & Tajeddini, 2016) on tourist's decision-making and behaviour. Additionally, five distinct attributebased travel (pull) motives were significant to tourists' decision-making process. Notably, this included cultural tourism-oriented attributes which were not initially measured; hence, advancing the extent of the literature (Chen & Chen, 2015; Cohen et al., 2014; Fieger, Prayag & Bruwer, 2019), which has previously determined the role of destination attributes as travel motives in the selection of tourist destinations. Typically, nature-based tourism attributes were unanimously the highest-rated PB dimension across the spectrum of segments, buoyed by SA's competitive advantages as a tourism destination, including its pleasant climate and attractive scenic beauty (Van Dyk, Tkaczynski &Slabbert, 2019).

Overall, the empirical findings confirmed that tourists to SA might be segmented into four discernable psychographic groups of tourist typology



based on both non-traditional (CI and PB dimensions) and traditional (travel motives) psychographic factors. While travel motivation is an established market segmentation basis (Tkaczynski et al., 2009; Villamediana-Pedrosa et al., 2020), globalization and paradigm shifts in consumer behaviour necessitate the expansion of psychographic segmentation to include perceptual variables such as CI and PB (Buhmann, 2015; Stylidis et al., 2018). Evidence from the case of SA, thus reinforces the paradigm shift in tourist market segmentation. Simultaneously, the findings offer fresh insights into the application of Plog's (1974, 2001, 2002) tourist typology framework to an African tourism destination, while establishing the increasingly pervasive role that CI and PBs have in the cognitive and affective behaviour of tourists - in line with Plog's assertion of the integral nature of tourist personalities to their conative behaviour. Considering some of the criticisms (Li & Cai, 2012; Litvin &Smith, 2016) of Plog's theory, the present study to some extent considers tourist segmentation from a more contemporary and complex perspective. The study successfully establishes tourist segments based on the influence of CI (stereotypical and reverse country-of-origin) and PB (marketing, tourism profile, governance, socio-cultural, competitive advantages and negative associations) in conjunction with destination attributes as travel motives. Therefore, it can be concluded that inbound tourists to SA may be aggregated into Psychocentric-, Near psychocentric- Allocentric-, and Near allocentric- tourist market segments based on the extent to which SA's country image, place brand dimensions and destination attributes (pull travel motives) informs their perceptions.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The paper provides tourism practitioners with insights into a relatively new multivariate basis for segmenting inbound tourists in emerging and developing tourism markets such as SA. More so, as tourists become more circumspect in their consumptive decision-making due to the proliferation of information sources. Hence, it is prudent for tourism practitioners to expand



their segmentation strategies to incorporate market aggregation based on tourists' predisposition to the influence of both macro (CI) and micro (PB) on tourist's subjective preferences. Moreover, acknowledging the heterogeneity in inbound tourists and portioning tourists into more homogenous segments based on image-oriented perceptual factors, in conjunction with travel motives provides tourism practitioners [more pertinently SA tourism practitioners] with an explanatory framework that would better inform contemporary strategic tourism marketing and promotions decisions. As a result, competitive pressure may be alleviated due to more effective targeting of the desired tourists with the available marketing resources.

Academics in tourism marketing also need to consider Plog's tourist typology framework's relevance to tourism and place brands' nexus. The empirical evidence shows that perceptual variables can be assimilated into Plog's framework as part of a place branding-specific extended framework. For instance, Allocentric-Near allocentric-, Psychocentric-Near and psychocentric tourists alike are susceptible to the influence of CI as a heuristic cue in their decision-making, albeit skewed towards organic (stereotypical) more than induced (reverse country-of-origin effect) CI. Likewise, while all the segments identified by the study are also susceptible to the influence of PB dimensions, in the case of tourists to SA, all segments on the spectrum were primarily influenced by Competitive advantages, discernible disparities can be identified and be attributed to each segment in SA's explanatory framework. For instance, while all segments view Marketing and Governance to be influential, it is evident that Psychocentric and Near psychocentric are more concerned with aspects such as value for money and sufficient information about SA as a tourism destination country (Marketing), as well as the risk of terrorist attacks and safety from crime in SA (Governance). Hence, the study's findings warrant further research into the applicability and utility of Plog's framework in extending both CI and PB theory within the tourism discourse.



While PBs may be more easily assimilated with destination brand marketing at a tourism micro-level (Matiza & Slabbert, 2020a), the emergence of CIs as an increasingly superseding extrinsic stimulus in tourists consumptive decisionmaking signals a paradigm shift in conventional tourist market segmentation practice. Hence, a multi-stakeholder approach to tourism marketing is required to integrate the effective management and harnessing of the CI as a tool for comparative and competitive advantage. Consolidating CI and PBs will help tourism practitioners manage their destinations better and predict tourist behaviour in conjunction with the destination's attributes. Furthermore, considering the potential impact of the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic on the global tourism market and its potential influence on tourist behaviour, it will be imperative that tourism destinations be reflexive towards evolving market conditions to catalyze their resilience and recovery, post the crisis. Countries like SA may achieve this by place brands, synchronizing their product offering and consolidated CI and PB-based image with the most relevant psychographic profiles and their behavioural predilections to aid in their tourism demand recovery strategies.

Due to resource constraints brought on by the pandemic, it would also be prudent for tourism marketers to strategically segment their tourist market to target the desired high-value post-crisis segments rather than indiscriminate mass marketing. For instance, in SA's case, post-crisis marketing expenditure may be optimized by targeting psychocentric and near psychocentric tourist segments with relevant information, including innovative attribute-based marketing well products, targeted promotions, as post-crisis as communication. As it emerged from the findings, these segments would be most susceptible to stereotypical and induced marketing information since they tend to be more conservative, risk-averse and self-inhibited, hence their dependence on various information sources and heuristic cues to achieve information symmetry to support their consumptive tourism decisions.



STUDY LIMITATIONS AND THE DIRECTIONS OF FURTHER RESEARCH

While the study contributes to the literature and tourism marketing practice, a limitation to the study is that the present study's findings are cross-sectional and may only be inferred to the case of SA. Nevertheless, this is consistent with studies associated with psychographic segmentation with reference to specific tourism destinations. Another limitation of the present study was that in light of the limited literature on psychographic segmentation based on CI, PB and travel motives within the tourism context, the authors took a more cautious approach to identify tourist typologies and labelling the respective segments, relying instead on Plog's generic framework. This approach was suitable for the exploratory nature of the study, given the context of the study. Supplementary, multi-destination research will further validate the psychographic variables in this study and provide more suitable tourist segment labels associated with CI, PB and travel motives-based segmentation. It would also be prudent to replicate the study on a broader longitudinal scale, particularly within SA's tourist source markets, to establish and validate more generalizable tourist segments. Additionally, future research with a larger multi-dimensional sample may result in an adequate statistically significant representation of a fifth segment as per Plog's full theory. Thus, our study is a viable primer to more advanced CI and PB research incorporating the subjective multi-dimensional constructs as psychographic variables in tourist market segmentation in Africa and beyond. The authors acknowledge the limitation of an unrepresentative sample; however, since this is exploratory research, the results are nevertheless considered relevant and significant to consider. While an adequate number of questionnaires were obtained, the number of fully completed questionnaires were less than the required number. This is since only respondents who fully completed the segmentation variable sections



could be included in the analysis. Future researchers need to consider this when conducting surveys of this nature.

REFERENCES

Albayrak, T. & Caber, M. (2018) A motivation-based segmentation of holiday tourists participating in white-water rafting. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, 9, 64–71.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2017.11.001.

Alvarez, M. D. & Campo, S. (2014) The influence of political conflicts on country image and intention to visit: A study of Israel's image. *Tourism Management*, 40, 70-78.

Avraham, E. (2018) Nation branding and marketing strategies for combatting tourism crises and stereotypes toward destinations. *Journal of Business Research*, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.02.036.

Barry, J. & Weinstein, A. (2009) Business psychographics revisited: From segmentation theory to successful marketing practice. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 25(3-4), 315-340.

Bertan, S. & Altintaş, V. (2013) Visitors' perception of a tourism destination: The case of Pamukkale. *TOURISMOS: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of* Tourism, 8(1), 115-132.

Buhmann, A. (2015) Measuring country image. Theory, method, and effects. Wiesbaden: Springer.

Campo, S. & Alvarez, M. D. (2010) Country versus destination image in a developing country. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 27(7), 749–765.

Chen, L. J. & Chen, W. P. (2015) Push-pull factors in international birders' travel. Tourism *Management*, 48, 416-425.

Chung, J. Y. & Chen, C. C. (2018) The impact of country and destination images on destination loyalty: a construal-level-theory perspective. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 23(1), 56-67.

Clark, L. A. & Watson, D. (2016) Constructing validity: Basic issues in objective scale development. In A. E. Kazdin (Ed.), Methodological issues and strategies in clinical research, pp 187–203. American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/14805-012.



Cohen, J. (1988), Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences (2nd ed.). New Jersey:Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.

Cohen, S. A., Prayag, G. & Moital, M. (2014) Consumer behaviour in tourism: Concepts, influences and opportunities. *Current Issues in Tourism*, https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2013.850064.

Cook, P. S. (2010) Constructions and experiences of authenticity in medical tourism: the performances of places, spaces, practices, objects and bodies. *Tourist Studies*, 10(2), 135-153.

Crompton, J. L. (1979) Motivations for Pleasure Vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(4), 408–24.

Cruz-Milán, O. (2019) Plog's model of personality-based psychographic traits in tourism: a review of empirical research. *Tourism Planning and Destination Marketing*, 49–74.http://dxi.doi.org/1397781622.

Dann, G. (1977) Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 4(4), 184-194.

Dann, G. (1981) Tourist motivation an appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8(2), 187-219.

Das, G. & Mukherjee, S. (2016) A measure of medical tourism destination brand equity. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Health Marketing*, 10(1),104-128.

De B'béri, B. E. & Louw, P. E. (2011) Afro-pessimism: a genealogy of discourse. *Critical Arts*, 25(3), 335-346.

De Nisco, A., Mainolfi, G., Marino, V. & Napolitano, M. R. (2015) Tourism satisfaction effect on general country image, destination image, and post-visit intentions. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 21(4), 305–317.

Department of Tourism SA. (2018) South Africa: state of Tourism Report 2016/2017. Pretoria: Department of Tourism:

Detotto, C., Giannoni, S. & Goavec, C. (2017) Does good governance attract tourists? Available at: http://working-Paper-TerRA-n02-Does-good-governance-attract-tourists-Does-good-governance-attract-tourists.pdf. (accessed 12 December 2020).

Dinnie, K. (2008), Nation branding: Concepts, issues, practice. Oxford: Butterworth.



Dryglas, D., & Salamaga, M. (2017). Applying destination attribute segmentation to health tourists: A case study of Polish spa resorts. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 34(4), 503-514.

Elliot, S., Papadopoulos, N. & Kim, S. S. (2011) An Integrative Model of Place Image: exploring relationships between destination, product, and country images. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(5), 520–534.

Farmakia, A., Khalilzadehb, J. & Altinayc, L. (2019) Travel motivation and demotivation within politically unstable nations. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 29,118–130.

Fetscherin, M. & Stephano, R. M. (2016) The medical tourism index: scale development and validation. *Tourism Management*, 52, 539-556.

Fieger, P., Prayag, G. & Bruwer, J. (2019) 'Pull' motivation: an activity-based typology of international visitors to New Zealand. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 22(2), 173-196. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2017.1383369.

Galloway, G. (2002). Psychographic segmentation of park visitor markets: evidence for the utility of sensation seeking. *Tourism Management*, 23(6), 581-596.

Hankinson, G. (2004). The brand images of tourism destinations: a study of the saliency of organic images. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 13(1), 6-14. https://doi.org/10.1108/10610420410523803.

Hanna, S. & Rowley, J. (2013) Place brand practitioners' perspectives on the management and evaluation of the brand experience. *The Town Planning Review*, 84(4). https://doi.org/10.3828/tpr.2013.25.

Helmi, J., Bridson, K. & Casidy, R. (2020) A typology of organizational stakeholder engagement with place brand identity. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 28(7), 620-638. http://dx.doi.org10.1080/0965254X.2019.1593224.

Hwang, J., Asif, M. & Lee, K. W. (2020) Relationships among country image, tour motivations, tour quality, tour satisfaction, and attitudinal loyalty: the case of Chinese travellers to Korea. *Sustainability*, 12, 31-82.

IBM Corp. Released 2019. IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 26.0. Armonk, NY, IBM Corp.

Jung, S. & Lee, S. (2011) Exploratory factor analysis for small samples. Behavioural Research, 43, 701–709.



Källström, L. & Hultman, J. (2019) Place satisfaction revisited: residents' perceptions of a good place to live. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 12(3), 274-290.

Kastenholz, E., Davis, D., & Paul, G. (1999). Segmenting tourism in rural areas: the case of North and Central Portugal. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(4), 353-363.

Kim, K. (2007) Understanding differences in tourist motivation between domestic and international travel: The university student market. *Tourism Analysis*, 12(1-2), 65-75. https://doi.org/10.3727/108354207780956717.

Kladou, S., Kavaratzis, M., Rigopoulou, I. & Salonika, E. (2017) The role of brand elements in destination branding. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, 6, 426–435.

Li, M. & Cai, L. A. (2012) The effects of personal values on travel motivations and behaviour intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(4), 473–487.

Litvin, S. W. & Smith, W. W. (2016) A new perspective on the Plog psychographic system. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 22(2), 89–97.

Liu, Y., Hultman, M., Eisingerich, A. B. & Wei, X. (2020) How does brand loyalty interact with tourism destination? Exploring the effect of brand loyalty on place attachment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 80, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2020.102879.

Lunt, N.T., Mannion, R. & Exworthy, M. (2013) A framework for exploring the policy implications of UK medical tourism and international patient flows. Social Policy and Administration, 47(1). https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9515.2011.00833.x.

Madaleno, A., Eusébio, C. & Varum, C. (2017) Exports and tourism: testing the causality. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, 18(4), 444-458. https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2017.1289140.

Matiza, T. &Slabbert, E. (2020a) South Africa's place brand: A marketing axiom to South Africa as a tourism destination? *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, 15, 100380. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2019.100380.

Matiza, T. & Slabbert, E. (2020b) The salient place brand factor(s) influencing medical tourism to South Africa. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, 68(3), 336-353. https://doi.org/10.37741/t.68.3.7.

Motsi, T. & Park, J. E. (2019) National Stereotypes as antecedents of country-of-origin image: The role of the stereotype content model. *Journal of*



International Consumer Marketing, https://doi.org/10.1080/08961530.2019.1653241.

Moutinho, L. (1993) Consumer behaviour in tourism. European Journal of Marketing, 21(10), 5-44.

Mussalam, G, Q. & Tajeddini, K. (2016) Tourism in Switzerland: how perceptions of place attributes for short and long holiday can influence destination choice. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 26, 18-26.

Nadeau, J., Heslpo, L., O'Reilly, N. & Luk, P. (2008) Destination in a country image context. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(1), 84-106.

Neumayer, E. (2010) Visa restrictions and bilateral travel. *Professional Geographer*, 62(2), 171-181. https://doi.org/10.1080/00330121003600835.

Nikjoo, A. H. & Ketabi, M. (2015) The role of push and pull factors in the way tourists choose their destination. *Anatolia*, 26(4), 588-597. https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2015.1041145.

Nothias, T. (2018) How western journalists actually write about Africa. *Journalism Studies*, 19(8), 1138-1159.

Palau-Saumell, R., Forgas-Coll, S., Amaya-Molinar, C.M.& Sánchez-García, J. (2016) Examining how country image influences destination image in a behavioural intentions model: The cases of Lloret De Mar (Spain) and Cancun (Mexico). *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 33(7), 949-965.https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2015.1075456.

Papadopoulos, N. & Hamzaoui-Essoussi, L. (2015) Place images and nation branding in the African context: challenges, opportunities, and questions for policy and research. *Africa Journal of Management*. https://doi.org/10.1080/23322373.2015.994423.

Park, J. & Jang, S. (2014) Psychographics: static or dynamic? *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16, 351–354. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.1924.

Pesonen, J. A. (2012) Segmentation of rural tourists: combining push and pull motivations. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 18(1), 69-82.

Piuchan, M. (2018) Plog's and Butler's Models: a critical review of psychographic tourist typology and the tourist area life cycle. *TURIZA*, 22(3), 95–106. https://doi.org/10.5937/turizam22-18835.

Plog, S. C. (1974) Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 14(4), 55–58.



- Plog, S. C. (2001) Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity: an update of a Cornell Quarterly Classic. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 42(3), 13–24.
- Plog, S. C. (2002) The power of psychographics and the concept of venturesomeness. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(3), 244–251.
- Plog, S. C. (2006) One mo, once: a commentary on the Litvin paper on the Plog Psychographic System. Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 47(3), 254–259.
- Prayag, G. (2009). Tourists' evaluations of destination image, satisfaction, and future behavioural intentions—the case of Mauritius. *Journal of Travel and Tourism*Marketing, 26(8), 836-853. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548400903358729.
- Prayag, G. (2010) Images as pull factors of a tourist destination: a factor-cluster segmentation analysis. *Tourism Analysis*, 15(2), 213-226.
- Prayag, G. & Ryan, C. (2011) The relationship between the 'push' and 'pull' factors of a tourist destination: the role of nationality an analytical qualitative research approach. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(2), 121-143. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683501003623802.
- Reitsamer, B. F. & Brunner-Sperdin, A. B. (2017) Tourist destination perception and well-being: what makes a destination attractive? *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 23(1), 55–72.
- Rodrigues, C., Skinner, H., Dennis, C. & Melewar, T.C. (2019) Towards a theoretical framework on sensorial place brand identity. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 13(3), 273-295. https://doi.org/10.1108/JPMD-11-2018-0087.
- Sarstedt, E. &Mooi, M. (2019) Concise guide to market research: the process, data, and methods using IBM SPSS statistics. 3rd edition. Berlin, Heidelberg, Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Septianto, F., Chiew, T. M. & Thai, N. T. (2020). The congruence effect between product emotional appeal and country-based emotion: the moderating role of country-of-origin. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 52,101916.
- Signé, L. (2018) Africa's tourism potential. Trends, drivers, opportunities, and strategies. New York: Brookings Institution.



Stepchenkova, S., Shichkova, E., Kim, M. & Rykhtik, M. I. (2018) Do strained bilateral relations affect tourists' desire to visit a country that is a target of animosity? *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 35(5), 553-566, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2017.1374907.

Stylidis, D., Sit, J. K. & Biran, A. (2018) Residents' place image: a meaningful psychographic variable for tourism segmentation? *Journal of Travel and Tourism*Marketing,

http://dx.doi.org10.1080/10548408.2018.1425176.

Sung, Y. K., Chang, K. C. & Sung, Y. F. (2016) Market segmentation of international tourists based on motivation to travel: a case study of Taiwan. Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 21(8), 862–882.DOI:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2015.1080175.

TIBCO Statistica® 13.6.0. Released 2019, available: https://docs.tibco.com/products/tibco-statistica-13-6-0 Downloaded and installed: January 2020.

Tichaawa, T. (2017) Business tourism in Africa: the case of Cameroon. *Tourism Review International*, 21(2), 181-192.

Tkaczynski, A., Rundle-Thiele, S. R. & Beaumont, N. (2009) Segmentation: a tourism stakeholder view. *Tourism Management*, 30,169–175.

Van Dyk, A., Tkaczynski, A. & Slabbert, E. (2019) Repeat tourism, destination image and behavioural intentions: implications for sustainable development in South Africa. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 44(3), 392-398. https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2019.1637610.

Villamediana-Pedrosa, J. D., Vila-López, N.& Küster-Bolud, I. (2020) Predictors of tourist engagement: travel motives and tourism destination profiles. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, 100412. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2020.100412.

Winter, de J. C. F., Dodou, D. & Wieringa, P. A. (2009) Exploratory factor analysis with small sample sizes. *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, 44,147–181.

Zhang, H., Xu, F., Leung, H. H. & Cai, L. A (2016) The influence of destination-country image on prospective tourists' visit intention: testing three competing models. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 21(7), 811-835.

Zhang, J., Wu, B., Morrison, A. M., Tseng, C. & Chen, Y.C. (2018) How country image affects tourists' destination evaluations: a moderated median approach. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 42(6), 904-930.



Appendix 1: Variable statements and Factor Loading Coefficients

Factor	Items	Factor loading
Country image statement influence'	nts (CI) - Scale of agreement, where 1 = 'Very negative influence' and 5 = 'Very positive	

Factor	Items	Factor loading
	Rich cultural heritage	0.818
	General openness to international visitors (immigration, visa requirements)	0.715
Stereotypical CI	The people of South Africa	0.699
ororoory production	Physical amenities (hotels, roads, air/seaports, shopping malls)	0.687
	Image as a country	0.515
	Rich natural resources	0.508
Reverse-Country-of-	Various international business-related opportunities Ability to manage its affairs (resources, economy, institutions, international relations)	0.826 0.786
Origin CI	Branded products available in foreign markets (wine, food, art, music, services)	0.630
Place branding stateme	ents - Scale of agreement, where 1 = 'Not at all influential' and 5 = 'Extremely influential'	0.000
	Perception of South Africa as a tourism destination of choice	0.818
	Positive marketing advertisements/promotions related to South Africa	0.769
Marketing	The value for money that I receive from South African tourism products	0.763
Markening	The attractive uniqueness of South Africa compared to other destinations	0.747
	Sufficient information about South Africa as a tourism destination country	0.697
	Acceptance of tourists by South Africans	0.568
	Commonality of cultural values with South Africans	0.751
	Entrepreneurial nature and innovativeness of South Africans	0.734
	Societal equality in South Africa	0.726
	The colonial heritage of South Africa	0.707
Socio-cultural	Equal opportunities for all who live in South Africa	0.702
	Availability of efficient basic service utilities in South Africa (water, electricity)	0.626
	Quality of life in South Africa	0.537
	South Africa's public resources (health and education)	0.533
_	South Africa's friendly trade policy Control of corruption by the South African government	0.516
	Risk of terrorist attacks in South Africa	0.802
Governance	The political stability in South Africa	0.742
Oovernance	Safety from crime in South Africa	0.723
	Visible policing in South Africa	0.713
	South Africa's sports attractions	0.711
	South Africa's entertainment attractions	0.700
Tourism profile	The closeness of South Africa to my country	0.665
	The relations between South Africa and my own country	0.638
	Visa policy of South Africa towards my home country	0.707
	Ease of immigration visa procedures when travelling to South Africa	0.620
Compositivo	South Africa's climate	0.568
Competitive advantages	The friendliness/helpfulness of South Africans	0.554
advarriages	The scenic beauty of South Africa (Table Mountain, Kruger National Park, beaches)	0.552
	South Africa's human-made tourism attractions (Ariel Cableway, Sun City, Robben Island, museums, game lodges and resorts)	0.535
	Illegal poaching of wildlife in South Africa (rhino, elephant, lion)	0.609
No makiya accessishin	Association of South Africa with the illicit trade in animal parts (such as lion bones,	0.585
Negative associations	rhino horn, elephant tusk)	<u> </u>
	Social unrest (community protests, strike actions)	0.504
	xcluded because they did not contribute to a simple factor structure and failed to	meet the
minimum criteria of hav	ring a primary factor loading of 0.5 or above. ociate with tourism to SA - Scale of agreement, where 1 = 'Strongly disagree' and 5 = 'Str	onaly
agree'		
	Possesses technologically advanced health systems	0.894
	Allows access to high quality medical services	0.872
Medical tourism	Has relatively relaxed health laws	0.871
attributes	Has world-class health facilities (private health sector)	0.867
	Facilitates access to affordable medical treatment	0.842
	Has reputable medical doctors Offers a variety of unique flora and fauna	0.839
Nature-hased tourism	Offers a variety of unique flora and fauna	0.863
	Has unspoiled beaches (Durban, Cape Town, Port Elizabeth)	0.838
Nature-based tourism	I there we delicate an efficiency in entre and a contract of the second	
Nature-based tourism attributes	Has world-class national parks, conservancies and nature reserves	0.814
	Offers various natural attractions (mountains, lakes, rivers)	0.785
	Offers various natural attractions (mountains, lakes, rivers) Has excellent weather	0.785 0.740
	Offers various natural attractions (mountains, lakes, rivers)	0.785



Factor	Items	Factor loading
	Allows access to academic activities/ opportunities (teacher/student exchange, studying for a period <1-year, research)	0.793
	Is a good destination for corporate business trips (product delivery/sourcing, sales trips, product launches)	0.730
	Is a shopping paradise	0.723
	Offers tourists unique food/cuisine experiences (traditional, western)	0.769
Leisure tourism	Offers various entertainment activities (sports, theme and water parks, casinos)	0.690
attributes	Has a unique culture and way of life to share with tourists (religion, traditional African culture)	0.651
Cultural tourism	Hosts a variety of festivals, the arts, music concerts	0.784
attributes	Has museums, monuments, and historical locations and artefacts of interest	0.682





Recebido em 08.10.2020 Aprovado em 10.12.2020

Avaliado pelo sistema double blind review Editor Científico: Marlusa de Sevilha Gosling

DOI: 10.29149/mtr.v6i2.6746

Appendix 2: Cross tabulation and Chi-square results based on the identified segment characteristics

Variables	Segment 1	Segment 2	Segment 3	Segment 4	Chi-	df	Phi-value	Sig.
variables	N = 13	N = 42	N = 70	N = 81	square	at	Phi-value	level
Gender					1.997	3	0.099**	0.573
Male	38%	55%	49%	57%				
Female	62%	45%	51%	43%				
Level of education					8.565	12	0.205**	0.740
Non-formal education	8%	2%	0%	1%				
High school qualification	25%	19%	17%	21%				
Bachelor's degree	17%	38%	39%	36%				
Post-graduate qualification	33%	19%	20%	23%				
Professional	17%	21%	23%	19%				
Employment status					17.116	12	0.296**	0.145
Student	30%	10%	12%	9%				
Unemployed	10%	0%	0%	5%				
Employed in the private sector	60%	55%	51%	49%				
Employed in the public sector	0%	24%	32%	28%				
Retired	0%	12%	5%	9%				
Country of residence					13.919	12	0.260**	0.30
United Kingdom (UK)	15%	26%	20%	14%				
Netherlands	0%	2%	7%	14%				
United States of America (USA)	15%	14%	11%	11%				
Germany	8%	14%	11%	22%				
Other	62%	43%	50%	40%				
Previous visits to SA	/-	,			0.666	3	0.057**	0.881
First time	69%	79%	74%	73%		-		
More than once before	31%	21%	26%	27%				
Influential media channels	• 1,70	2.70	20,0	2, 70	19.547	18	0.315***	0.359
Television	25%	12%	6%	0%				
Print media (Newspaper/magazine)	0%	2%	1%	1%				
The Internet (Websites)	17%	24%	24%	27%				
Social media (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram)	17%	5%	10%	8%				
Previous visits	8%	12%	12%	10%				
Word-of-mouth (friends, family, work colleagues)	25%	41%	42%	48%				
Travel/trade shows	8%	2%	4%	5%				





Recebido em 08.10.2020 Aprovado em 10.12.2020 Avaliado pelo sistema double blind review Editor Científico: Marlusa de Sevilha Gosling

DOI: 10.29149/mtr.v6i2.6746

